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Correlations among Perceived Autonomy Support, Intrinsic Motivation, and Learning Outcomes in an Intensive Foreign Language Program

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Abstract—This study assesses how learners' perceptions of classroom autonomy correlate to intrinsic motivation and learning outcomes as measured by grade point average (GPA); analysis of the data shows a positive correlation among the variables and supports the argument that the psychosocial variable of perceived autonomy support can be used to maintain intrinsic motivation and enhance learning outcomes over time. Adult learners (n=77) enrolled in an eight-week, intensive academic language program completed two survey instruments during the first and seventh week of the program. Correlational analyses determined that greater perceptions of learners' autonomy support were strongly correlated to higher levels of intrinsic motivation and moderately correlated to GPA. Perceived autonomy support accounted for 9% of the variance in learners' GPA.

Index Terms—self-determination theory, perceived autonomy, language learner motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

One glance at the learning objectives for a typical semester-long foreign language course can quickly leave a teacher feeling overwhelmed. Each year, highly motivated adult language learners enroll in intensive, academic language programs with the expectation of developing proficiency. For these programs which pack two semesters of material into the improbable span of eight weeks, the perfunctory response from a course design perspective is to employ a lockstep approach to content delivery around the learning objectives, ensuring maximum productivity in every 60-90 minute lesson. As language teachers know from first-hand experience, learning a second language (L2) as an adult is a complex process, and cognitive ability alone is insufficient to guarantee or predict proficiency development. For language learners, affective variables are as critical as aptitude when predicting language learning achievement (Gardner, 1985; Scovel, 2000).

Of the affective variables studied in the field of second language acquisition (SLA), motivation plays a critical role in the rate and success of adult L2 acquisition (e.g., Dornyei, 1998; Gardner, 2010; Reeve, 2006). Motivation influences the amount of effort students invest in language learning (Gardner, 1985; Oxford, 1989). Whether their proficiency goals are academic, professional, or personal, learners' motivation serves as the catalyst to begin studying a language and to sustain those efforts over time. As such, examining factors that influence motivation is crucial to help understand the language learning process. Practitioners should plan for learners' motivation and those factors influencing motivation. By harnessing motivation's power, the teacher is in a position to compel learners to work persistently through whatever course demands may come.

Motivation is a complex construct understood through various perspectives. Precisely because of the effort required to learn a language, Dornyei (2003) advocated a process-oriented approach when studying motivation in language learners, one that can describe the inevitable changes in motivation that come with the individual's stage in the learning process and the goals set ahead of him or her. At its base level, motivation is a neurobiological function, which results from how an individual appraises a set of stimuli as either being positive and rewarding or negative in relation to a specific goal (Schumann & Wood, 2008). Examples of stimuli include teacher feedback (e.g., "Great job!" or "I just taught this. Weren't you listening?"), task success (e.g., finishing a project or presentation), grades, and social interactions (e.g., group work with friends or group work with strangers). A learner who appraises a situation positively will continue to work towards achieving his or her goal. Conversely, the learner will avoid target language stimuli which he or she appraises as negative (Schumann & Wood, 2008). Continued positive appraisals of stimuli over an extended period sustain learners' motivation levels and eventually lead to successful foreign language acquisition.

The current study uses the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) as a framework to understand motivation and its role in an individual's participation in an activity or task (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000, 2008). Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000) posited that humans have three basic needs when pursuing an activity, and the SDT framework is based on the degree to which each individual's basic needs are met in a given context when carrying out the activity. These three basic needs are: feelings of competency, feelings of relatedness (i.e., belonging), and perceived autonomy support (i.e., perceived freedom of choice about learning tasks) (Deci & Ryan, 2000). These three needs fall on a continuum and interact to

influence an individual's level of motivation (Vandergrift, 2005). Changes in any of these basic needs can result in a change in the level of self-determined motivation an individual experiences.

The SDT has three main categories of motivation which describe how self-determined, or freely chosen, an individual's actions are. These categories are, in order from least self-determined to most self-determined: *amotivation*, *extrinsic motivation*, and *intrinsic motivation* (Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2003). Intrinsic motivation is the most self-determined form of motivation and describes activities or goals that are chosen freely by the individual because they are "interesting and fun to do" (Noels et al., 2003, p. 101). These individuals experience a sense of full volition during task performance.

The SDT framework applies to a wide range of life activities (Deci & Ryan, 2008), and was extended to the field of adult L2 learning by Noels, Clement, and Pelletier (2001) in a study of 159 adult English speakers learning French, validating that language learner motivation can be assessed using the intrinsic motivation subtypes delineated by Deci and Ryan (2000). The SDT has since been used successfully in various studies involving language learning (e.g., Noels, 2009; Noels et al, 2003; Vandergrift, 2005).

Of the three universal needs in SDT, autonomy support is the basic need that directly influences student motivation. Contexts that support perceived autonomy, or foster perceived control, tend to maintain or increase intrinsic motivation, whereas contexts that individuals perceive as controlling weaken intrinsic motivation (Black & Deci, 2000). More specifically, scholars argue that student perceptions of autonomy supportive classroom environments affect individual learner motivation (Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 1999; Noels et al., 2003; Reeve, 2006). Indeed, Reeve (2006) proposed a dialectic relationship wherein the student's long-term motivational growth depends upon a learning environment that allows him or her freedom of choice when pursuing a learning activity or goal.

Within the field of SLA, researchers have examined the role of perceived autonomy support in adult language learners. Noels et al. (1999) found that students who perceived their teachers as controlling in the classroom and critical with feedback reported lower levels of intrinsic motivation. In a similar study examining how various motivational subtypes correlate to teachers' communication styles, Noels et al., (2003) found a positive correlation between learners' intrinsic motivation and their perceptions of teachers who were autonomy-supportive. Conversely, students with a decreased sense of control over their learning environment experienced decreased levels of intrinsic motivation. This highlights the importance of students' perceived autonomy in maintaining more self-determined forms of motivation, as well as how external variables, in this case the teachers, might influence intrinsic motivation. One design limitation to the study was that it measured learners' perceptions and motivational orientations at one point in time; as such, the researchers called for a longitudinal research methodology to examine the interaction of variables over time (Noels et al, 2003). The present study extends this research using a longitudinal design measuring learners' intrinsic motivation both at the beginning and end of the course.

Beyond influencing intrinsic motivation, autonomy support can also impact learner outcomes. In an experiment designed to extend the SDT framework to an educational context, Boggiano, Flink, Shields, Seelbach, and Barrett (1993) measured the correlation between performance outcomes and freedom of choice on analytical tasks with adult learners. The researchers' findings, while not specific to the foreign language context, identified that autonomy supportive learning environments act as a foundational predictor variable between levels of motivation and learning outcomes.

Intensive language courses typically adhere to set curricula, with few opportunities for students to guide lessons. When analyzed from the SDT perspective, this highlights the need to examine perceived autonomy support as a factor influencing intrinsic motivation over time as well as learning outcomes in the intensive foreign language classroom.

II. PURPOSE

External factors can threaten learners' intrinsic motivation. This idea conforms to Black and Deci's (2000) finding using the SDT framework that autonomy-supportive learning contexts can maintain and enhance learners' intrinsic motivation, while learning environments that students perceive as controlling undermine intrinsic motivation. Students in autonomy-supportive environments experience greater levels of enjoyment and better academic performance. The basic need of autonomy either fosters or undermines students' intrinsic motivation, which directly correlates to outcomes.

Many scholars have argued that learner autonomy supports intrinsic motivation and outcomes. The present study extends this argument to the intensive, academic foreign language context. The purpose of this study was to analyze the relationship among learners' perceptions of autonomy support, changes in intrinsic motivation over time, and proficiency outcomes in adult foreign language learners ($N = 77$) enrolled in an intensive, academic foreign language program. The study focused on the following research question:

RQ. What are the correlations among perceived classroom autonomy support, students' intrinsic motivation (T1) (T2), and language acquisition among adult foreign language learners enrolled in an intensive, academic foreign language program?

The answer should provide meaningful insight to teachers and administrators concerned with maintaining learners' motivation in intensive language programs.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The setting of the study was a graduate college in the United States known for specializing in foreign language education, interpretation, and translation. Participation was voluntary and all students enrolled in the program were eligible to take part in the study. The study consisted of 77 adult learners enrolled in a summer intensive, academic foreign language program. Ages ranged from 18 to 45; the mean was approximately 25 years (SD 5.64). Participants reported demographic data, including: age, gender, and language of study. Of the participants in the sample, 33 (42.9%) were female and 42 (54.5%) were male.

Students came from around the United States and enrolled in the Arabic, Chinese-Mandarin, Russian, French, and Spanish programs at the beginning through the advanced levels according to the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages scale. The average class size was 10 students. In this academic setting, students attended class five days a week, for five hours of academic instruction daily, followed by approximately 4 hours of assigned homework and self-study outside of class. The 8-week course consisted of 180 hours of academic instruction with curricula focusing on proficiency development. The setting of the current study was similar to intensive academic language programs offered at other college-level educational institutions.

B. Materials

The instruments included in the current study are widely used in educational psychology. They were adapted for the academic foreign language context. The following is a description of the scales along with their Chronbach's alpha of internal consistency.

1. Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation was measured using the standard 7-item Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI) interest/enjoyment subscale designed to examine the participant's self-perception of the interest/enjoyment of a given task (Self-Determination Theory, 2008). The interest/enjoyment subscale is considered a self-measure of intrinsic motivation ($\alpha = .78$) (McAuley, Duncan, & Tammen, 1989). The scale has been shown to maintain its validity and reliability when substituting the chosen activity for the word task (Self-Determination Theory, 2008). As such, the word *task* was changed to *learning my language*. Items were rated by range on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true*) to 6 (*very true*). Sample items from the index included, "I feel like I am doing what I want to do while I am working on learning my language," and "I feel pressured while learning my language."

2. Autonomy Support

Perceived autonomy support was measured using the Learning Climate Questionnaire (LCQ) ($\alpha = .93$) (Black & Deci, 2000) designed for use with college students to measure participants' perceptions of instructor autonomy support. The LCQ is a 15-item Likert-type instrument, with items rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Sample items from the index included, "I feel that my instructors provide me choices and options" and "I don't feel very good about the way my instructors talk to me."

3. Learning Outcomes

The program monitored student progress closely, with learners receiving weekly grade reports. Participants self-reported their GPA at week seven to measure language acquisition.

C. Procedure

Questionnaires were distributed during class at the end of the first week (T1) and again during week seven (T2). The T1 questionnaire consisted of the IMI as well as background information on language of study, age, and gender. This initial questionnaire served as a baseline measurement of intrinsic motivation in support of a process-oriented approach to capture motivational changes over time (Dornyei, 2003). The T2 questionnaire consisted of the IMI and LCQ, to measure intrinsic motivation (T2) and perceived autonomy support, respectively. Surveys were coded to ensure participant anonymity. Participants had the option to opt out at any time.

Data were analyzed using SPSS 16.0. All data were inputted using double entry. Stepwise deletion was used for missing data points. A partial correlation analysis was used to control for the confounding variables of age and gender. In order to run the partial correlation analyses for the control variables of age and gender, the primary variables of intrinsic motivation (T1) (T2), perceived autonomy support, and GPA were converted into ranked variables. A Spearman correlation can be considered as a Pearson correlation between ranked variables (Howell, 1997).

IV. RESULTS

A. Reliability

Means and standard deviations were calculated for each of the primary variables and are shown in Table 1, which shows that item means (standard deviations are bracketed) for intrinsic motivation ranged from 5.31 (1.10) to 5.24 (0.98) for (T1) and (T2), respectively, to 5.08 (1.83) for perceived autonomy support.

TABLE I.
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR PRIMARY MEASURED VARIABLES

Primary Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intrinsic Motivation T1	76	5.31	1.10
Perceived Autonomy Support	77	5.08	1.83
Intrinsic Motivation T2	77	5.24	0.98

Chronbach's alpha for each of the surveys and subscales used were acceptable ($\alpha > 0.70$) (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The IMI interest/enjoyment subscale had a consistency of $\alpha = 0.75$ (T1) and $\alpha = 0.76$ (T2). The LCQ had a consistency of $\alpha = .98$.

B. Correlations Among Variables

To assess the relationship among perceived autonomy support, intrinsic motivation (T1) (T2), and learning outcomes, a Spearman's rho correlation matrix was conducted between each of the variables. The results are shown in Table 2.

Perceived autonomy support had a moderate positive correlation with intrinsic motivation (T1) ($r = .249$, $p < .05$), and a strong positive correlation with intrinsic motivation (T2) ($r = .522$, $p < .001$) and GPA ($r = .33$, $p < .01$). Participants who self-reported more perceived autonomy support from their teachers tended to report higher levels of intrinsic motivation throughout the course and higher GPAs at the end of the course.

TABLE II.
SPEARMAN'S RHO CORRELATIONS AMONG PRIMARY RESEARCH VARIABLES

	Intrinsic Motivation (T1)	Intrinsic Motivation (T2)	Perceived Autonomy Support
Intrinsic Motivation (T1)	-	-	-
N			
Intrinsic Motivation (T2)	.596***	-	-
N	76		
Perceived Autonomy Support	.249*	.522***	-
N	76	77	
GPA	.123	.273*	.333**
N	64	64	64

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ (2-tailed).

Further, while intrinsic motivation (T1) had no significant correlation to GPA, intrinsic motivation (T2) did have a moderate positive correlation to GPA ($r = .274$, $p < .01$). This indicates that learners' level of intrinsic motivation at the beginning of the course was unrelated to learning outcomes, while intrinsic motivation at the end of the course was related.

In addition to investigating the correlations among perceived autonomy support, intrinsic motivation, and foreign language acquisition, the current study also investigated the relative effects of the primary variables on language acquisition as measured by GPA. The stepwise regression did show that perceived autonomy support was found to have moderate variability on participants' GPA ($\beta = .29$, $p < .05$). The overall regression was $R^2 = .09$; these findings indicate that perceived autonomy support accounted for approximately 9% of the variability in participants' GPAs. This finding was consistent with other findings in the literature on autonomy support and academic outcomes (Boggiano et al., 1993).

The partial correlation analysis used to control for the confounding variables of age and gender and resulted in no statistically significant differences to the p values that emerged from the Spearman's rho correlations. In terms of significance in this context, controlling for the confounding variables of age and gender did not significantly alter the correlations among the primary variables of intrinsic motivation (T1) (T2), autonomy support, and language acquisition.

V. IMPLICATIONS AND GENERAL DISCUSSION

The current study examined the role of perceived autonomy support in an intensive, academic foreign language program. The primary research question focused on the correlations among perceived autonomy support, intrinsic motivation, and language acquisition. The results indicate the existence of a positive correlation among the variables. Additionally, stepwise regression indicates that the variable perceived autonomy support accounts for 9% of the variability in participants' GPAs. In the study's context, participants who enjoyed greater perceived autonomy supportive learning environments also tended to have better academic learning outcomes.

The results suggest that perceived autonomy support is linked with intrinsic motivation and learning outcomes in a manner consistent with previous research (Deci & Ryan 1985; Noels et al., 2001). The study further supports the idea that perceived autonomy support is a psychosocial variable which can be harnessed to enhance learners' motivation (cf. Noels, 2003), as well as learning outcomes (Bogiano et al, 1993).

Intrinsic motivation (T1) and perceived autonomy support shared a significant, although weak, correlation ($r = .249$, $p < .05$). The possibility exists that during the first week in the program changes in participants' motivation levels had already begun, and is a design limitation in the present study. While causation cannot be determined, the correlation

between intrinsic motivation and perceived autonomy support this early in the course indicates the value of future research with these two variables.

The positive correlation between intrinsic motivation (T2) and GPA ($r = .273, p < .05$) suggests changes in motivation orientation are correlated to learner outcomes (Dornyei, 1998; Scovel, 2000). In the current study, participants with higher levels of self-reported intrinsic motivation at week seven also self-reported higher GPAs.

The limitations in this study are those inherent in studies relying on self-reported data. There were three readily apparent confounding variables which were not examined: language level, language, and clustering. First, the population size was not large enough to restrict participants by level of language learner (e.g., beginner, intermediate, advanced). This weakened the internal validity of the research. Similarly, the statistical analysis did not control for target language (i.e., the foreign language the participant was studying in the program). It was assumed that adults experience foreign language learning in an intensive academic setting in a similar manner between languages. Another limitation to the current design was the potential impact of clustering of students within classes. A particular class may have shared a learning experience that significantly impacted their responses to this research topic. These three variables should not be considered inclusive of all possible confounding variables which, for practical purposes, were outside the scope of the present study. Finally, the study only focused on learners' perspectives. Extending the research to include teachers' experiences and classroom practice would give a better idea of how perceived autonomy support, intrinsic motivation, and proficiency development interact.

VI. CONCLUSION

Identifying and understanding affective variables in adult foreign language learners is of import for educators and program administrators involved in curriculum design and teaching methodology. This study strengthens the argument that perceived autonomy support, intrinsic motivation, and learner outcomes are correlated. The results suggest that perceived autonomy support is a psychosocial variable that can impact learner outcomes.

Course outcomes tend to dictate many classroom practices; however, factors influencing motivation and perceived autonomy support also need consideration. Practitioners can foster an autonomy supportive classroom climate in multiple ways. Deci and Ryan (1985) offer suggestions to support learners' feelings of autonomy. Teachers can give learners a choice over classroom and homework activities (e.g., a report or a presentation), or by offering learners a choice about due dates (e.g., before the final or after). Other options can include soliciting topics and ideas for activities from the learners directly, co-constructing a syllabus based on learners' needs and interests. The teacher is limited only in his or her creative abilities to identify occasions for learners to exercise freedom of choice.

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Mediating Cultures between and among Arabic Teachers

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Abstract—This paper explores how Arabic teachers participating in a 2013 StarTalk program incorporated culture in performance-based assessments while mediating their respective cultures for teaching in US schools. The primary focus centers around how teachers mediate between their first culture and the cultures of the US as demonstrated in their micro teaching simulations. Promoting intercultural and cross-cultural competencies becomes a primary goal and objective for Arabic teachers in the US. We conclude and concur with the sentiments of Rings (2006): the teaching of Arabic must be deliberately focused on mastering cultural knowledge that exposes students to multiple authentic scenarios and assists teachers in mediating cultures between and among Arabic teachers.

Index Terms—culture, critical need languages, teacher development

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper explores how Arabic teachers participating in a 2013 StarTalk program incorporated culture in performance-based assessments while mediating their respective cultures for teaching in US schools. The primary focus centers around how teachers mediate between their first culture and the cultures of the US as demonstrated in their micro teaching simulations. The United States Department of State issued a call for the need for “highly qualified” world language teachers in “critical need languages.” Arabic is one of the languages that falls into this category. In response to this call our teacher education program has actively sought ways to respond by providing multiple opportunities to fill a gap. StarTalk is a component program of the National Security Language Initiative (NSLI). The initiative seeks to expand and improve the teaching and learning of strategically important world languages that are not now widely taught in the United States. StarTalk’s mission is to increase the number of Americans learning, speaking, and teaching critical need languages by offering students and teachers of these languages creative and engaging summer experiences that strive to exemplify best practices in language education and in language teacher development, forming an extensive community of practice that seeks continuous improvement in meaningful assessment of outcomes.

Our university is a large public institution with more than 32,000 full time equivalent (FTE) students, located just outside Washington, DC. The Graduate School of Education is part of the College of Education and Human Development in which the Foreign/World Language Licensure program offers PK-12 teaching licenses. Thanks in large part to generous grants from StarTalk, we have been able to sponsor six summer institutes for Arabic and Chinese teachers. The sixth summer institute (2013) and the Arabic teacher participants are the focus of the present paper.

II. THE STARTALK SUMMER INSTITUTE

The 2013 summer institute, “Creating The Authentic Assessment Toolbox for Today's Learner-Centered Classroom,” provided three weeks of critical methodological training in transitioning teachers to learner-centered instruction for today’s millennial learners. Fifteen Arabic pre and in-service teachers engaged in carefully structured learning sequences including face-to-face and online blended communities of practice. Week one consisted of varying reading tasks, selected scholarly articles on assessment, and viewing best practices videos. Week two was comprised of a series of professional development workshops focused on creating an authentic assessment toolbox. This included learner-centered approaches to language teaching as highly effective tools for addressing pedagogical issues inherent in less commonly taught languages. Workshop topics included, “Effective Planning for Assessment In a Standards-based Classroom;” “Integrated Performance Assessment;” “Standards-based Learner Centered Assessment;” “Formative Assessment;” “Summative Assessment;” and “Technology-based Assessment.” On days five and six of this week, teacher participants conducted two thirty-minute micro teaching demonstrations with students attending a simulated children’s camp in Arabic. This provided opportunities to connect theory to practice. Week three was a continuation of online blended learning activities using the Ning as a social mediated platform. (Ning is an online platform for people and organizations to create custom social networks.)

Mediating Between Cultures as Observed in the Micro Teaching Simulations

Although Arabic Startalk participants struggle with newly learned concepts, they were determined to become effective teachers. Both returnees and new participants at the Startalk workshop shared the same goal: their classrooms would no longer focus only on grammar and vocabulary, but also on building communicative competence. They were aware that linking the standards for learning languages to both the assessment and to the curriculum would develop the critical awareness needed to compete in the global multicultural environment¹. Mastering the new teaching approaches would enable participants to plan meaningful lessons and assessments that match the millennial students' awareness of the digital world and their need to fulfill the citizen of the world status. However, this itinerary was fraught with obstacles.

The first issue this paper will focus on is the rising of the cultural "dimension" as a barrier to understand and apply effective teaching methods, particularly the Integrative Performance Assessment (IPA)². Integrating the three modes of communication in an assessment that shows what students can really do in an authentic environment raises another issue, which is linked to the status of the Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) in the Arab world. The second issue deals with how Arabic teachers bridge the gap in teaching MSA in the absence of a "native speaker" of the Arabic language.

Often the concepts addressed in Startalk workshops are difficult for the Arabic participants to understand, especially for those who have switched to the teaching career from some other profession. A one week workshop onsite and another one on-line are not enough to assimilate such highly condensed notions, let alone integrate them into lesson plans. Most of the Arabic education specialists recognize that the explanation and the translation of these concepts into Arabic are challenging because this is a new field for Arabic pedagogy. Arabic experts are still working on coining the terminology, for example, while some experts call the interpersonal mode of communication *الصورة التبادلية* (exchange approach), others call it *الصورة الحوارية* (dialogue approach). Sometimes the meaning is lost in the translation.

The participants' pattern of cultural thinking was another challenge, often slowing down the understanding of these concepts. It is known that communication is impacted by each individual's or group's set of values and behavior. Blake, Walker, and Walker (2003) captured the cultural behavior existing worldwide in ten dimensions³. The three most significant cultural orientations that impact directly the participants' learning in the Startalk workshop are: structure, thinking, and communication. These three aspects are not stereotypes, nor negative cultural traits. They have been developed in the cultural neuroscience field to promote the intercultural awareness leading to the learning styles that make part of a community construct to which each community reacts to.

As far as structure is concerned, most participants showed that they are "order and structure oriented" and needed thorough instructions to guide them in their tasks. This may be tied to their political experience with dictatorships where conformism is praised at the expense of personal initiative in most fields. Therefore, people become more passive and expect to be given directions to follow. This became evident in the lesson plan writing procedure, where teachers had to be instructed step by step in crafting it. Teachers were provided with an English StarTalk lesson plan template that the master teacher had translated into Arabic. However, this was not sufficient, as will be explained later. The participants often confused the different modes of communication and how they should be addressed. In general, while new participants struggled with choosing what to teach or not teach from a specific topic or theme, the returnees seemed to be more comfortable with this phase.

Cultural Variables in Task Design

Most returnees were familiar with *backward design* (a method of designing educational curriculum by setting goals before choosing instructional methods and forms of assessment), but they still seemed to have difficulty preparing tasks to demonstrate evidence of students' learning. These teachers knew how to start with the end in mind to determine which direction their lesson should follow. However, it took them time to come up with evaluating tasks for assessing their students' understanding of a given topic.

In one group we observed that Middle Easterners⁴, North Africans and Chinese⁵ tended to be deductive thinkers. They focused on general ideas rather than on details. Using a deductive approach was not a negative quality since most mathematic reasoning relies on deductive thinking to show that the facts are true. However, this cultural variable

¹ The accelerating degree of contact and exchange among cultures is redefining our worlds and posing... challenge." Blake, Walker, and Walker, *Doing Business Internationally, The Guide to cross-cultural success*, New York, McGraw Hill, 2003

² Integrated Performance Assessment (IPA) is also referred to as Performance Based Assessment (PBA), and Thematically Organized Assessment (TOA). They all refer to assessments which are integrated in one another because they feed into each other. They follow the same theme in this way they provide the student with knowledge, content and experience upon which the next assessment would depend. Paul Sandrock, *The Keys to Assessing Language Performance*, The American Council on The Teaching of Foreign Languages, Alexandria, VA, 2010.

³ The other dimensions are: environment, time, action, communication, space, power, individualism, competitiveness, structure and thinking.

⁴ Blake Walker & Walker include in the Middle East Arabs North Africans. Though these regions underwent the same early European colonization wave in the late 1800 and early 1900, after the fall of the Ottoman Empire, they are still distinct from one another. First, the colonizing cultures were themselves different and this was reflected on the colonized societies. While France colonized Morocco and Algeria, Britain colonized most of the Middle Eastern countries. Second, North Africans do not consider themselves as Middle easterners. The Berber communities, who are the native populations of Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and Libya, were submitted to the "arabization" process that happened with the Muslim Conquest around the 640 AD after the Prophet's death. Berbers preserved their language and still speak it in Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia. In some regions Berbers do not speak nor understand Arabic. The Berbers do not consider themselves as Arabs and they still advocate for teaching Berber in schools. There is another problem that pertains to the whole educational system in Morocco for example. It underwent a whole process of arabization in schools and administrations from the French language years after the French left.

⁵ Jin Wang, *Culture Differences and English Teaching*, *English Language Teaching*, Vol. 4, No. 2; June 2011, pp. 223-230. Available at www.ccsenet.org/elt

explains why it was difficult for participants to put a multilayered structure, such as the communication modes or the IPA, in practice in a short time even when it was scaffolded for them.

The lack of critical thinking in the Arabic educational system, which is an issue in other nation systems, such as China, contributed to some of the difficulties that participants encountered. Very often, new participants confused proficiency and achievement objectives. However, the nature of the practicum at Startalk makes it hard for participant to plan attainable objectives, assessments, or a theme's logical sequence for students they did not meet yet. The 2013 StarTalk teaching simulations were challenging because participants were asked to write communicative tasks for a heterogeneous class.

The 2013 StarTalk participants modeled some qualities that teachers would like to see in their classrooms. They cared for each other and showed strong teamwork relationships. While this could be true, there should be caution about idealizing this show of friendly cooperation by taking into consideration the intricacies of social relations and social stratification that are at play in the region. This could be attributed to the "indirect communication" dimension displayed in these groups' interaction. Arabs tend to reinforce "conflict avoidance" and "face saving." Any direct communication may be viewed as aggressive, bad mannered, and lacking in courtesy.

During the feedback sessions, which followed the mini lessons, the observing teachers did not avoid pointing out their criticism to their peers in a direct way. However, there were other aspects that were made understood implicitly, such as making sure that the Sudanese participant knew that her dialect was not as good as others. Thus, it should not be used in the classroom, while theirs can be allowed. There is an issue among Arabs about the sense of "ownership" and "mastery" of the Arabic language. For example, the North African Arabic, according to some Middle Easterners, has been "compromised" by the influence of the Berber language. Linguistically speaking, languages cannot escape the influence of the invading cultures and this is true for all Arabic dialects.

This shows that "the cultural process" is often subtle and complex. Culture makes things understood without being stated. Very often, it was not easy for the master Arabic teacher to understand what the participants needed when they stated it indirectly. She could not take at face value what some participants said. Sometimes they were embarrassed to say they did not understand. For example, Arabs would never admit their lack of knowledge.

A recurrent question asked while writing a lesson plan was the number of new words that participants should include in each lesson. Participants were encouraged to consider the standards for learning languages and to focus on the communication purpose in context. Once the objectives of the communication modes were defined, it became easier to plan an assessment to determine what type of mastery they wanted to evaluate. Only then did it become clear for them which semantic or syntactic items should be included to achieve mastery.

Returning teacher participants usually showed full mastery of the standards for learning. They could write clear objectives and match them with engaging activities. However, they still could not determine the purpose of the communication. While technology was strongly apparent in their planning, the cultural objectives were not achieved because the various modes of communication were not linked together.

Understanding Communicative Modes and Integrated Performance Assessment

When it came to writing on-line tasks for the communication modes or the Integrative Performance Assessment (IPA), participants, new and returnees, did not seem to have grasped these concepts yet. They did not realize that the three modes of communication are but a duplicate of what we do when we are communicating with one another in the real world, and that we try to create a simulation of the real world to build those skills in our students. Participants sometimes confused simple activities carried out during the guided practice phase with the integrated tasks of the IPA scenario. Participants mistook simple activities carried out during the guided practice phase with the integrated tasks of the IPA scenario. One reason for this confusion was that they did not have enough time to do a scaffolding writing process that would take them from IPA to lesson planning. Their focus was on the standards, lesson objectives, and the vocabulary. They did not have time to write a different lesson plan to build up a unit which would allow for writing an IPA. They often confused the activities of the guided practice with the final IPA tasks.

To have a clear idea about how participants confused the communication mode activities and the IPA tasks, we provide samples below. One of the new participants identified the strategies of the three modes by writing that in the interpersonal mode, the teacher asks questions and the students provide answers; in the presentational mode, the students recite a poem, and in the interpretive mode, the students write answers to questions. When the teacher participants did not understand a newly taught concept, they would go back to what they know best: their experience. It was hard for participants and sometimes for foreign language teachers in general, to break away from what they had experienced for years as students. Interaction was inhibited in the Arab traditional education and critical thinking strategies were often replaced with memorization which is still practiced in many Arab countries today.

The next sample quoted below shows that some learning process of the three modes of communication was taking place but not materializing yet. The three modes of communication that were carried out during the mini lesson are highlighted. They represent, respectively, the interpersonal, presentational, and interpretive modes:

Interpersonal Mode: *Teaching Vocabulary specifically the words of different animals. Each animal would be matched with its picture and an interactive game would be done between the students where I would say the animal word (showing the picture) and the students would make the animal sounds. With this game all students participate so it is viable for a multi-level class.*

Presentational Mode: A game where kids sing a song that I have taught them that are about the new vocabulary words so that the kids can have fun while they are learning. I teach K2 and first grade so this method is a way to get them involved in the learning process presentational.

Interpretive Mode: Using cards: The children are in groups where they take turns pulling out cards. The cards have a picture of what the vocabulary word represents and they will then say it out aloud. This goes well in a multi-level class because the lower level students can learn from the group as they play along.

The participant described the activities she provided her students in the mini lesson. She seemed to have remembered only the “presentational” term, but not the others. Maybe the other modes’ definitions were not clear for her. Actually, there was a discrepancy between what the participant taught and what she wrote above. The activities displayed in her class included engaging moments focusing on receptive and productive skills for all levels. First, she had students stand in line facing each other and take turns exchanging animal sounds and names. She tried to differentiate her “interpersonal task” by dividing the class into groups of three. She had the “novice low” students produce bird sounds and the “intermediate” students ask and answer questions about birds, talk about their favorite birds, and describe them (always prompting students with questions). She created the opportunity for all students to develop their receptive and productive skills. She allowed “intermediate” students teach the “novice low” students the new words while modeling for them.

It was difficult for the observing participants to determine which of the modes were displayed in the practice. During the discussion that followed the micro teaching simulations, only a few of the teacher participants identified the modes they actually used. Below are the summary notes of one of the new participants who commented on the Ning on the micro teaching simulation:

- *During our lesson demo, last week, our team's objectives were:*
- *The students would be able to recognize the names of five birds (duck, pigeon, bird, chicken, and rooster).*
- *The students would be able to identify these birds' different colors, sounds, foods, and habitats.*

Our activities were designed accordingly to meet these objectives. Participant1 used the "magic bag" activity to introduce the names of the birds. Participant2 used different games to introduce the colors. Participant3 "created" her own song of these birds (both teachers and students enjoyed it big time! Good job Participant3!). She also used different games to introduce the birds sound. I ended this lesson introducing their foods and by making a closing project consisting in making a bird's nest. The students in the end were able to produce an IPA by talking about their project and also like the video activity as an interpretive one since students are going to identify the meaning of the video through strategies that you prepare in advance such as the questions that Paul Sandrock has introduced in his presentation. This is a summative assessment so students should have complete mastery of the topic before they listen to the video and answer your questions.

The participant showed mastery of writing objectives but could not express adequately what she did in her performance. Her activities were engaging too. She confused the fact that summative assessment comes at the end of a given unit and not a topic. As for the interpersonal and the presentational modes, she identified them as “talking about the project.”

The returning participants collaborated with the two other groups and included a good link to the lesson and performed engaging, receptive and productive activities for the interpretive mode. Their topic was about animals on the farm. In the interpretive mode, the students succeeded in answering questions about the visuals they were shown. In the presentational mode, the students commented on their drawings, and in the interpersonal mode, the tasks were not so clear. Most of the speaking activities were either carried out individually or prompted by the teacher. The cultural standard took the aspects of pictures of animals popular in the Arab world such as the horse and the draumadory. Maybe participants did not have time to develop more meaningful cultural activities.

Importance of Meaningful Cultural Objectives

Another common feature of the participants’ lesson plans was the lack of meaningful cultural objectives. Culture comes after communication in importance. Students have a full mastery of the language when they understand the context in which the language evolves. When participants were asked about their cultural choices, they often complained about the lack of teaching material. In fact, any authentic digital teaching material available was in dialect. This made it difficult for participants to transform the material they found into teaching material for developing interpretive, listening, or speaking skills in MSA. The teacher became the only source of MSA spoken language. Besides reading, students needed to listen to a language text to develop listening and interpretive skills. In Arabic classes, students are exposed to speech acts that are written in a manual and not acquired from an authentic context. Therefore, there remains a gap between what students acquire and what is going on in the real world.

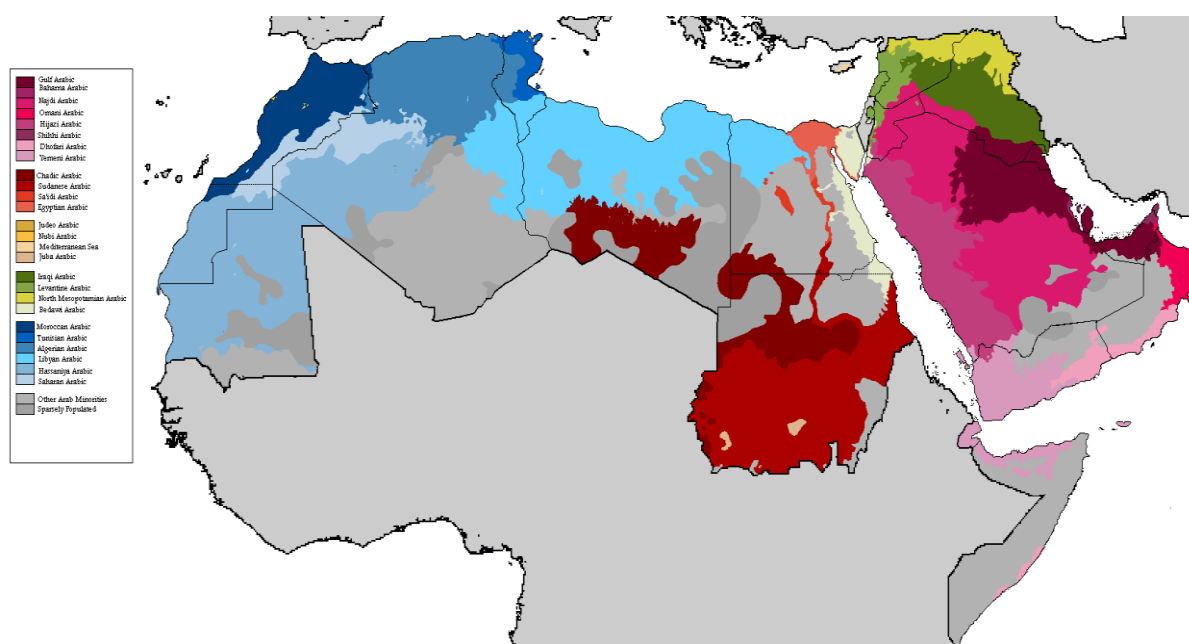
Students do not acquire the knowledge or the skills that will turn them into native speakers. In explaining the speech acts, Halion refers to Derrida saying that “how words and expressions are understood is determined by how they are used throughout the community. But such uses vary from time to time and from place to place. There is nothing as permanent as to be accountable in terms of rules or to be determined as dependent on, or independent of, some other use.” How can Arabic teachers develop intercultural competence in their students if they do not have the material to do so? This also raises the issue of the native speaker who speaks the same language that is being taught in class. The colloquial language in which most culture with (little c), is performed is not taught at school because it is the language

of the street. Those who cannot read nor write MSA are called “illiterate” in Arabic. That is why participants and Arabic teachers in general, have problems finding audio visual authentic material in MSA targeting the Arabic native speaker when they address casual and personal themes. How can participants and teachers manage to mediate between MSA and dialect is discussed in the following section.

Mediating Between MSA and Dialect

The absence of material in MSA has been a significant issue during the StarTalk summer institutes. Teachers cannot find teaching material in MSA. Most interesting postings on YouTube come in dialects. Even in the news which tackles major topics in MSA, there is code switching when interviews and personal opinions are reported. In the last five years, some teachers tried to meet this need by posting material in MSA on YouTube, but it serves only the purpose of developing listening and speaking skills in the classroom. These videos show drastic modifications of the spoken language. Their language is slow and void of any natural socio-cultural characteristics. It is not an appropriate material for IPA because it is not authentic.

Most Arab speaking countries use dialects for colloquial communication and MSA as an official language for speeches, media⁶, academic purposes, and administration “correspondence.” There are twenty six dialects in the Arab region. The following map shows how they are spread in the Arab World:



http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Arab_World-Large.PNG

Sometimes we may find more than one dialect spoken in one country. For example, in Saudi Arabia, the spoken dialects are Najdi, Hijazi and the Gulf Arabic. The dialect itself has variants that differ from one region to another. In Morocco, for example, people of the plains struggle to understand mountain dwellers, referred to as “Jbala.” Generally, every group of speakers in the Arab World proclaims to be the closest in their speech to MSA. There are many blogs that address and argue this matter.

Since cultural trends may raise communication barriers, it becomes clear that promoting the intercultural and the cross-cultural competencies are important. Functional linguistics has revealed that language is ambiguous, and “shared” knowledge that speakers must have in order to communicate appropriately...is as essential to successful communication as are words and forms.” Lana elaborated further that “it is this structured background knowledge, often culture-specific, that helps human beings interpret the language of others.”⁷ How can students master that cultural knowledge if they are not exposed to it through various authentic scenarios? How can students understand the underlining cultural structure of a language if they are not exposed to it in its integral form? There are many topics that cannot be taught through a descriptive or a prescriptive approach. Students need to listen and interpret a text to find out those semantic and cultural markers that develop the speaker’s socio-cultural competence of a language. If the teaching of the Arabic language is missing this fundamental part, which is the speaking, how accurate is IPA in Arabic? How can the interpersonal mode be authentic while it is carried out in MSA, which is not the language of the Arabic native speaker?

⁶ For example, al-Jazeera programs are in MSA. When interviews occur in documentaries they are carried out in MSA but the interviewees generally speak in their dialects. The interviewers paraphrase in MSA. The Moroccan channel also mixes MSA comments with real people’s interventions in dialect in programs. I still use those programs in class and give students a task to look for key words.

⁷ Lana Rings, The Oral Interview and Cross-Cultural Understanding in the Foreign Language Classroom, Foreign Language Annals, 39(1), p.43.

This problem does not exist in the Arab world because Arab students learn MSA academically and speak the dialect at home. When starting to teach languages abroad, instructors copied the same model. The problem was not imposing itself because only Eastern Arabs, mainly Egyptians, Lebanese, Syrians and Palestinians, used to teach in America. When Iraqi, Sudanese and North Africans joined the field, the dialect issue imposed itself. The public school system in America is not sensitive to this issue yet because MSA is taught exclusively and because district-wide assessments such as Performance Assessment for Language Students (PALS) includes the interpersonal mode only at level three, which is equivalent to the intermediate level. Besides, Arabic teachers are still struggling in making the Arabic language stand firm⁸ in front of other electives and other languages that are traditionally established, such as Spanish and French. For example, there is only one pyramid for the Arabic language in the whole Fairfax County Public Schools.

This issue was more felt at the college level where the Arab instructors tried to handle this situation in different ways. For example, the al kitaab writers⁹ added lessons in dialects at the end of each chapter. Some colleges¹⁰ offered classes in pure dialects sustaining that they are solely responding to students' demands. Some think that teaching a certain variety creates a problem because the learner of a dialect will speak only the variety of a specific region within the same Arab country.

On the other hand, conservative scholars disapprove of these changes and define them as "patching hole" solutions. MSA is a written variety of the classical Arabic, which is the language of the Quran. Being a "light version" of the classical Arabic, it is more popular among the Arabs and thus used intelligibly among educated Arabs¹¹. They think that it would be more beneficial to teach MSA for at least two or three years before allowing any dialect studying¹². Teaching dialects without MSA will weaken its use in the United States and will not prepare the young learners adequately for the reality they may face in a given Arab country. They will not be able to read the media for example nor understand the news and most programs on TV.

We do not minimize the dialect teaching project as an endeavor to facilitate the mediation between MSA and other dialects because any attempt to facilitate teaching and learning Arabic in an accurate way should be encouraged and supported. However if the purpose is to teach Arabic, dialects should not be considered as a surrogate of MSA. Students can use their MSA background knowledge for intelligibility in any given Arabic country and develop proficiency in a given dialect in a faster time, but the contrary may not be true. This issue pertains to cinema in the Arab world too. The Arab movie producers are challenged by the language choice for movie dubbing to make foreign movies accessible to a wider Arab audience. While the notorious Syrian producer, al-Haitham al-Haqqi, believes that it is worthwhile to use the Egyptian, Syrian, or Lebanese dialect for the movie series and MSA for long motion pictures such as "Alexander," the Egyptian journalist, Tarik Saad, supports the use of MSA for all types of movies to avoid conflict about dialect choice among Arabs. In his opinion, this choice sustains the use of MSA throughout the region and makes it stronger¹³. Like Tariq Saad, we think that instruction in MSA should precede that of any of the Arabic varieties if students have the intention to develop proficiency in Arabic in general.

III. CONCLUSION

This paper grew out of the experiences of a master Arabic teacher and the program director of a federally funded teacher development program for critical need language teachers. Over the last six years our university's StarTalk programs' summer institutes have addressed a wide range of topics germane to preparing critical need language teachers for teaching in US schools. The topics have ranged from brain-compatible teaching and learning, assessment, transitioning to teaching in US schools, to differentiating instruction in a learner-centered, standards-based classroom. We have learned a great deal about the often complicated issues that these teachers and would-be teachers face in their professional development training. However, we continually recognize and acknowledge that culture is a broadly defined construct. One cannot simply talk about "a culture" or "the culture" of any group. Instead we must all be critically aware of viewing culture through a myriad of lenses. It is through these lenses that we are able to co-create empathy.

Given the breadth and depth of the Arab world, its many cultures and languages, the guiding force behind this paper was to situate one particular topic: mediating cultures between and among Arabic teachers. We set out to examine how teachers in this program incorporate their respective cultures while preparing to teach in US schools. During the course of the 2013 summer institute, we were interested in examining how these teachers mediated between and among cultures. Given that the topic of this particular institute was assessment, one goal was to investigate how teachers mediated between cultures as demonstrated in preparation for their micro teaching simulations. We highlighted two

⁸ For example, there is only one pyramid for the Arabic language in the whole Fairfax County Public Schools.

⁹ "Alkitaabtextbook.com" is the home of the companion websites for the Al-Kitaab Arabic Language Program. The Al-Kitaab Arabic language textbook program, published by Georgetown University Press, uses a communicative, proficiency-oriented approach with fully integrated audiovisual media to teach modern Arabic as a living language. The series concentrate on developing skills in Modern Standard Arabic and spoken Egyptian and Levantine Arabic.

¹⁰ The College of William and Mary, for example, offers classes in Arabic dialects.

¹¹ MSA is popular among Asian Muslims too in America because they learn the Quran

¹² Yale University follows this model

¹³ www.alarab.com.qa/printarticle.php?docId=99767

primary areas that were revealed: a rising of cultural dimension as a barrier in understanding and applying effective teaching tools, particularly use of the Integrated Performance Assessment; and how Arabic teachers bridge the gap in teaching Modern Standard Arabic in the absence of a native speaker of the Arabic language. The way information is received and comprehended was also a contributing factor. It can be argued that many of our participants were comfortable with instruction following “order and structure” orientation. Further, many of the teacher participants when planning lessons preferred to focus on general ideas rather than on specific details.

Finally, one of the most outstanding revelations and confirmations for us in doing this research highlighted the dearth of authentic materials and resources in Modern Standard Arabic. Today’s Arabic teachers continue to struggle to locate truly “authentic” resources for use in their classrooms. The internet provides some useful tools but these are often fraught with errors and sometimes are culturally and linguistically insensitive. Promoting intercultural and cross-cultural competencies becomes a primary goal and objective for Arabic teachers in the US. We conclude and concur with the sentiments of Rings (2006): the teaching of Arabic must be deliberately focused on mastering cultural knowledge that exposes students to multiple authentic scenarios and assists teachers in mediating cultures between and among Arabic teachers.

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Umbilical Accord and Symbiosis between Man and the Environment: A Stylistic Analysis of Selected Poems of Joe Ushie's *Hill Songs* and Unimna Angrey's *Drought (Ubuang)*

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Abstract—This paper analyses selected poems in the poetry collection of Joe Ushie entitled *Hill Songs* and those of Unimna Angrey's collection entitled *Drought (Ubuang)*. It is an investigation of the linguistic choices that the selected writers have made in order to establish their connections with their environment and the representation of the effects of the negative and unfavourable conduct and destructive activities of man on it (the environment). The paper uses a conflation of three theories- ecofeminism, modification in grammar and conceptual theory of metaphor. In this respect, focus is mainly on the use of lexical items, verses, the imagery and certain literary devices, such as metaphor and simile, that the poets deploy in their works to establish that connection and the attack that the environment, which man is inextricably a part of, has undergone in man's quest for development. The aim is to draw attention to the poetic discourse on the effects of the man's interactions with the environment as expressed by these new poets. The paper concludes that the poets' concern for, and conviction about the symbiosis between man and the environment have constrained the deployment of anthropomorphic and anthropocentric idiom and the style of their poetry.

Index Terms—man, anthropomorphic and anthropocentric idiom and style

I. INTRODUCTION

The concern for the environment, in view of the inextricable link with, and the mutual interdependence of, man and the environment has found expression in a number of literary works, poetry, inclusive. Poets particularly have a unique way of semiotizing their sensibilities, demonstrating their concerns and capturing the symbiosis between them and the environment. And when they witness a devastation of the ecosystem, they do not fail to hide their feelings and point out the effects on the world. Andrew Bennett and Nicholas Royle (1995) have observed that:

twenty-first century global capitalism is currently facing the possibility that within the lifetime of many of us living today, our rapacious, land-grabbing, polluting rage for road and air-travel, consumables and other material possessions will lead inexorably, unstopably to the effective destruction of more or less all life on the planet (p.141).

This position might sound alarmist but it is a timely call to us all that we must begin to reflect on our actions in relation to how we view and manage the environment that we live in, and that the consequences that await us in the not too distant future if we continue to selfishly exploit and destroy the environment, are grave. If the ecology is viewed purely from anthropocentric lenses, that from the belief that the environment exists only to serve man and so should be exploited as such without regard to how man should preserve it and sustain their interdependence, not only nature, but man will ultimately suffer.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Joe Ushie's poetry has received quite some critical attention for his concern with the problems of poor leadership, corruption, despoliation of the environment, and the like. For instance, Bassey Ude Bassey (2008) in his study he entitles "The Hills and the Vales: Images of Leadership in the Poetry of Joe Ushie," discusses the social contents of *Hill Songs*. He writes "... the poet consistently refers to the hills as a place of refuge, a symbol of attainment, and the source of life" (p.32). We agree with this assertion and posit that it is the attempt to denude the hills of these positive qualities through the negative actions of man that is one of the concerns of the poet in this collection. And this is the preoccupation in the Angrey collection too.

Romanus Aboh (2010), on the other hand, discusses the poetry of Ushie from the perspective of the poet's usage of certain linguistic items from his mother tongue and other sources in his creative enterprise. In "Lexical Borrowing and the Construction of Identity and Politics in Ushie's Poetry," the title of the paper under reference, Aboh asserts that

Ushie's poetry "... shows a pattern of great incorporation of indigenous vocabulary as well as grammatical forms in English" (4). In yet another study that he entitles "Modality as a Discourse Strategy in New Nigerian Poetry," Aboh again tells us that in Ushie's consideration, "poetry is a potent form of rebuke and purification. He, therefore, (sic) draws a distinction between those who use poetry to support the excesses of government and those who use poetry to reflect and refract the ills in society" (8). But he does not show how he uses these to comment on the state of the environment in the poetry. In other words, Aboh, in his studies of Ushie's poetry, does not pay attention to his relationship to his environment and how he uses his language to reflect that bond that exists between the writer and that environment.

Saeedat Bolajoko Aliyu (2013) examines the aesthetics of place in *Hill Songs* from an Ecocritical perspective and observes that the poet, Ushie, uses place as a discursive tool which enables him to catalogue the functionality, spirituality and mysticism of nature while engaging in a political venture of mediating for those whose very existence is tied to the preservation and the humane exploration of its components. Hence, Ushie's deployment of the aesthetic of 'Place' is dual in function: as a framework for an exploration into how contemporary poets perceive and utilize nature in their creative ventures; and as a political tool to champion the quest for proper handling of the environment and the people affected by it in the face of capitalist and industrial demands for resources. (p. 145)

We share Aliyu's observation especially the assertion that Ushie uses his poetry to intervene in the lives of the common people, the deprived, in their struggle for space and survival in the Nigerian landscape. Ushie's attempts at drawing attention to the devastation that the environment has endured in the quest to probe for the riches that lie beneath is also at the heart of the poetry.

Godwin Ushie and Koton Ofem (2013) in linking the nexus between the social concerns and style in some poems of Unimna Angrey show that the social situation upon which the poems are based, to wit, poverty in the midst of plenty and environmental degradation provides the metaphor for the language of the poems and hence the style. They read a political representation of the agents of poverty as predator birds that not only destroy the ecosystem, but also leave the pastoral people who depend on the ecosystem in "tattered penury". These agents are semiotized as politically powerful people from the north who swoop on the ecosystem.

The next subsection critically examine the two collections of the two poets under study in this essay to see how they create that connection between the poet personae and the natural environment around them through the intermediary of lexical choices.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This paper benefits from a synthesis of Ecofeminism, Modification and the Conceptual Theory of Metaphor. Ecofeminism essentially interconnects the oppression of women and that of nature. It espouses the view that "[d]iscrimination and oppression based on gender, race and class are directly related to the exploitation and destruction of the environment" and that they are wrought by patriarchy (Metz, 2008). While some ecofeminist critics view the link between the woman and nature in positive, empowerment lenses, others view it negatively as degrading and as having been imposed by patriarchy. The import, and hence the value, of this theory, is in the analogy that as male sees the female as a sexual object to be exploited, so is the environment looked upon as an object to be exploited. Anthropocentrism (the view that the environment is meant for man to dominate, exploit and even destroy in the process) therefore, is coterminous with sexual exploitation of the female by the male.

Modification is the grammatical tie that exists, for example, between an adjective and its noun, or a verb and its adverb" (Rogers, 2000). Sometimes an adjective may modify a whole phrase or clause; a clause may modify another clause, a phrase or even a word (in which case it is labelled a "rankshifted clause". Sometimes a nominal can be used to modify another nominal. In modification of nominal, a modifier may come before or after the head, that is the nominal it is modifying. When an epithet (an adjective) or even a noun that modifies another comes before the head, it is called a (pre) modifier. And when it comes after the head, it is called a qualifier in Systemic Functional Grammar or a postmodifier in Transformational Generative Grammar.

Essentially, modification of nominal generally, whether by adjectives or adjectival structures (rankshifted structures) supplies additional information about the head or it specifies/ limits the nominal. This means that modification is an asset in description/ descriptive focus. It is this quality that makes modification fit into the theoretical framework of this paper.

A metaphor transfers the quality (ies) of one object to another directly and hence makes comparison in the process of description very effective. Goatly (1977) asserts that "a metaphor occurs when a unit of discourse is used to refer to an object, concept, process, quality, relationship or world to which it does not conventionally refer or colligates with a unit(s)with which it does not conventionally colligate...."(p.105).

In cognitive linguistics, metaphor consists of a source language and target language and a set of mappings between the source and target. Metaphor is an understanding of one conceptual domain (the source) as another domain (the target), hence "the conceptual domain of A is the conceptual domain of B" (Kovecses2010 quoted in Krisnawati, 2014).

The usefulness, therefore, of this triadic theoretical framework is that the modification/ qualification of the environment in the poems symbolically and metaphorically describes the environment as woman that is exposed to exploitation and abuse, the environment and the woman being coterminous.

IV. DISCUSSION

As pointed out earlier, the objective in this study is to assess the collections of the two poets under study with a view to establishing their stylistic choices which reveal the connections of their poet personae to their environments. Both writers come from places that have the same geographical features of hills and valleys; environments that are in the montane vegetation belt within the tropical forest region of Nigeria, specifically in Cross River State; for this reason their choices of language to express the ambience of that environment portray an uncommon bond between man and his environment in their poetry.

In "Hill song" (pp.9-12), the first poem in the collection and which also gives the collection its title, Ushie represents his affinity with his environment through his choice of certain linguistic terms, especially his choice of modifiers. In the very first stanza of the poem, the persona tells us of his closeness to the hills of his birth thus:

O hills of *my* birth/ *My post-natal* womb/*Silent* shields *whose* gallantry
Beats time, beats clime (p.9) (Emphasis (italics) here and subsequently are ours).

In the extract, the use of modifiers establishes the link the persona has with the hills of his birth; the relationship that is established in the first line is personal as shown by the possessive (pronoun) modifier 'my.' The modifiers, whether as epithets or as qualifiers, in these poems become a code for capturing the symbiosis between the poet persona and the environment. The hills have a personal link with the persona as against a general link; he has appropriated the resources of the communal to a personal end. The hill is foregrounded in the poem by its repeated use in the opening line of each of the first three stanzas of the poem. This situates for the reader the fact that the persona is nostalgic about the hills and holds them dear to his heart.

The fact that the poet treasures his environment, the "hills of [his] birth, and inveighs them with much love and admiration is further established by the pre-modifiers in lines 2 and 3 – 'my post-natal womb' and 'silent shields', all of which are metaphoric. The persona enjoys the serenity of the hills of "[his] birth" as much as the unborn child enjoys the comfort of the womb of its mother; that is why the hills are equally "silent shields" shields being indicative of this their protective nature. The hills at once have motherly and military protection for the persona. Hence, the anthropomorphic terms here amply establish an uncommon bond between the persona and his environment as represented in the hills of his birth.

This argument of the hills as protective shields runs through to the eleventh stanza of the poem. All through the poem, the persona addresses the hills as if they have life; he personalizes them through the use of apostrophe. For him, the hills have become human, even a god with their brooding presence. In each of these first eleven stanzas, this direct address to the hills comes through –

"O hills of my birth" – lines 1, 5 and 9; "Your ridges like forgotten garden" – line 12;
"Your crown of rocks worn" – line 15, etc.

This style of direct address or the use of apostrophe in these examples and in the opening lines of each of the next eight stanzas of the first eleven stanzas affirms the positive qualities of the hills and the surrounding environment; and it makes it more harrowing when we are confronted with the negation of these qualities beginning from stanza twelve when man's actions begin to take their toll on this environment with its protective garb. The modifiers in these stanzas which have positive connotations are used about thirteen times to underscore the value the hills have for the persona and not just the people but also for nature itself, hence the symbiotic interdependence. As the persona tells us in stanzas five to seven, man, animal, and plants alike are nurtured by the hills and their resources:

Your crown of rocks worn berets in whose womb/The rodents dwell
O the sand-filtered springs/ Leaping from your groins/ To nurture man, beast and tree
Twilight and you roost in silence/ Tree and earth passed into/A garment of night fondled by wind

In this extract, the rocks that are a part of the hills' environment provide abode for the rodents. We cannot miss the military image through the use of simile in the first stanza of the extract; it establishes once more the protective force of the hills. The rocks are like a beret, a military symbol, in whose bowels the rodents find a home.

The modifier in the second stanza of the extract which describes the springs is quite apt as it captures the quality of the springs. The compound form of the modifier, "sand-filtered," is striking in itself; it is made up of a nominal and a verbal adjective. It shows the purity of the water in its natural state as it is unaffected by man's action on the hills. The water of the springs has both healing and generative properties hence it is able to nurture not just man, but also beast and trees. Man in the natural state of the hills lives in harmony with nature because he is a part of the environment. It is because of this that at night, "trees and earth" are united in the protective covering that the hills provide which he metaphorically refers to as "a garment."

The second part of the poem does not convey that positivist outlook that we encounter in the first part chiefly because of man's negative actions on the environment and its ecology. The poet marks this separation of the poem into two parts by his choice of linguistic markers, through juxtaposition, and not by physical separation. In stanza 12, he tells us: "But by axe and flame / You stand *undressed, nude* / Like an anthill at the market place" (10). The modifiers in this extract, "undressed" and "nude," are post-posed; they are the complements of the subject in the second line of the extract, "You," which has the same referent as the "... hills of my birth" in line one. This undressing and nakedness of the hills is as a result of man's action – deforestation. This action has made bare the hills which, as a result have lost their protective covering for man and nature. The hills assume the image of a helpless woman who is forcefully stripped

“naked,” “undressed” and violated. The metaphor and the simile are unmistakable; they show that like the anthill, and in this case the one in a market place, there is no single vegetation left of the hills.

This image of helplessness runs through to the end of the poem, the image of man’s predatory nature and greed that have robbed the hills of their greenery and life. In an agonizing voice, the persona laments the deplorable state the hills are now in which is as a result “greed-fanned flame,” “greed-clad axe,” and so result in “greed-brewed death,” all compound modifiers which pre-modify the nouns flame, axe, and death to show that man’s greed has no limit. The persona resorts to the use of repetition to underscore the state of the hills in order to make their state stick in the reader’s mind. “[T]he widow,” “the orphan,” and “the weak,” in that order are left helpless by the actions of those who have denied the hills of their “bloom.”

Conceptually analysed, the image of the environment couched in metaphoric terms is clear in the following lexical items/structures:

Source: ECOLOGY	Target: MOTHERHOOD/WOMANHOOD
...my birth	Mother
...postnatal womb	Mother
...wombs rodents dwell in	Mother
...your groin	Woman
You stand undressed, nude	Woman violated
umbilical accord	inextricable filial bond

Another image captured in the metaphors and modification is that of military men giving protection to humans, the flora and fauna.

Source: ECOLOGY	Target: MILITARY/ SECURITY
...crown of rocks worn berets	military presence
<i>Silent</i> shields whose gallantry	protective cover
A garment of night fondled	protective covering

This same bond is established in the poem, “Back to Kugbudu” (pp.28-29), wherein the poet laments the deprivation and the neglect of both the environment and the people by those who are “Cushioned in sleek cars which whiz / Past wind-filled shirts housing / Abstracted pedestrians” (p.28). The modifiers “sleek,” “wind-filled,” and “abstracted” show a difference in the life styles of the privileged and the deprived. “Cushioned” and “sleek” convey images of comfort, relaxation, and contentment, whereas “wind-filled” and “abstracted” convey the opposite especially when we remember that these refer to pedestrians who are open to weather elements and deep in thought to the extent they are oblivious of what is happening around them as “Each [is] with his Nile of woes,” hence they are abstracted.

In this extract, the poet deploys a total of twenty nine modifiers to describe the people and their environment. All these modifiers communicate something negative except “... the over-fed [who are] Cushioned in sleek cars”. For instance, “erosion-serrated road,” “famine-pelted mango trees,” “A forgotten book, dust-browned and pale,” “scaly streets,” “Helpless reapers of crown-grown penury,” etc communicate a sense of abandonment, total deprivation, and complete neglect of the common people and the country side. The people and their community and their daily struggles are “re-membered only during ballot season,” when promises are distributed in quantum unhindered “At that *sweet-poisonous* tongue of the / *crowd-prone* chameleon” (p.29). The modifiers here convey that negative trait we have referred to earlier as what the tongue, a synecdoche for the politician, says has the potential to destroy; that is why it is “sweet-poisonous,” an oxymoronic expression deployed by the deceptive politician (“chameleon”) to momentarily excite the crowd who live through an instance of willing suspension of disbelief.

In “From hill to valley” (pp.33-35), the last poem from Ushie’s collection that is examined in this study, the same bond between persona and the environment is recreated and the decimation of that ecological haven is again lamented. The poem opens in the form of an oral narrative, which is a stylistic marker for story telling; the story of the hills: “Once upon a hill / trees stood as Goliaths / dressed in *resplendent* ferns” (p.33). The modifier, “resplendent,” which qualifies the noun “fern” at once situates for us the lushness of the hills at a point in time past and the nostalgia that invokes in the persona. The opening line prepares us for the despoliation that we will encounter later as we read the poem further. The trees were at some point like Goliaths. This Biblical image calls to mind the huge Philistine that David had to contend with in order to rescue Israel. These Goliath-like trees do not stand the test of time as they are soon laid bare by man’s greed.

The beauty that the persona presents to the readers in the first eleven stanzas of the poem contrasts sharply with the gloom in stanza thirteen; stanza twelve presages that movement from bloom to gloom; it marks the turning point of the beauty of the first part with the gloom of the second. As we have observed, the modifiers in this first part of the poem connote positive images. We have as examples the following for illustration:

- i “*resplendent* ferns” – line 3
- ii “... the iroko’s / *expansive* empire” – lines 4 and 5
- iii “... bougainvillea / brandishing / her *multi-racial* flowers” – lines 13-15
- iv “its *milky* clouds of wool / sailed leisurely over the valleys / on a sea of *steel-muscled* wind” – lines 24-26, etc.

The extracts present vivid images of beauty, solidity, aesthetics, allurements and sturdiness; all of these combine to make the hills an abode of serenity that was once an inviting spectacle to any keen observer. But now the reverse is the case as the persona bemoans the decay and destruction that has taken place on the hills; what is now in place is that:

Every *dry* season, /undressed rocks like skeletons/ lay open on crowns of the hills in grove's homesteads/tending orphan shrubs,/ nursing wilting rills (p.35)

This is happening because the *iroko*, mahogany, and silk cotton trees that used to provide protective coverings for man, animal, and these shrubs and rills have all either been cut down or burnt through the actions and greed of man. In this second part of the poem we encounter such modifiers as:

"black cloud" – line 45; "undressed rocks like skeletons" – line 53; "orphan shrubs" – line 56; "grave-faced valleys" – line 61; "sterile spear grass" – line 63, and many others.

These are linguistic terms / markers that convey negative sentiment as they portray the present condition of the hills as having been stripped of all that represented the beauty and solidity that was its armour in times past. The poet's style of juxtaposition is to establish the agonizing state of things in their present condition as compared to what was that he feels nostalgia for.

In *Drought*, Angrey, like Ushie, connects us with the landscape of his ancestral home of Kigbor-Ukpe, the flora and the fauna and equally establishes a relationship that is deep and pervading all through the poems in the collection. The first poem in the collection which is titled "The first call" (1) establishes that connection. The poem opens with the remembrance of the first urging to return home to the hills, the Ukpe hills the persona's homestead; a call which he headed. The poem is written in quatrains of free verse, and it contains four stanzas with the first stanza opening with: "I first heard your *strident* calls/ at the banks of the River Wouri/ they pierced through the walls of my *Bess & è marshes* home"

The persistence of the call is underscored in the first line because it is "strident," and it is therefore inevitable that he has to answer it. We are kept in suspense as to who the caller is until the second line of the fourth and last stanzas of the poem when the persona lets us in: "I have come here to stay / my *mother-like* Ukpe hills." He personalizes the hills because of his love for them and the metaphoric reference to them as mother further reinforces that connection. According to him, the hills offer a "cool embrace" "and nestle me in your *wide* / arms like a mother her baby." The phrase "wide arms" indicates that the hills are welcoming to all the children of the land who answer the call to return home and have the resources to cater for all like the generous mother that they are. The bond as in Ushie is deep as the hills are assigned motherly role over the people.

The persona answered the call more than two decades before he is recounting the experience to us. He has never had any regret since then. After he hears the "strident call," he "... traversed rivers and streams / vales, mo[u]nts (sic) and meandering hills / along the bumpy Kumba-Mamfe road." He is delighted to recall that strenuous journey homeward to pay obeisance to the "mother-like Ukpe hills;" to answer the call of his progenitors who, as we are later to find, dwell in these hills.

"Ejimashor," a poem which the poet dedicates to his kinsfolk in Kigbor – Ukpe, is divided into thirteen sections of three quatrain stanzas each thus making a total of one hundred and fifty six (156) lines. In these lines, the persona explores the ever present river, Ejimashor, which protects, heals, cuddles, fertilizes, and feeds the children of Kigbor now as in the past. Ejimashor is "bountiful stream" and "purveyor of hope and life" for the persona and his kinsmen of Kigbor. The persona tells us of longing from the beginning to have a rendezvous with the river

I had sought to see your face / in the pristine hours of my youth / I had not yet felt your presence but you sat close to my mind.

It is the bond, that connection that the persona shares with Ejimashor that makes him both an admirer of and a supplicant to the "bountiful stream." The persona style here is to address and celebrate the stream like an adoring child would a parent who had shown love and care to the child. The persona underscores yet again the power of Ejimashor to provide for the people when he tells us:

I have come to you/ *Kind* stream of all times/ I keep admiring you as you glide

Your *snaky* way down the hills / down to our most *fertile* soils/ into which you incessantly run

in your *unfettered* journey/from the most *cherished* Ukpe monts (sic). We see here that the stream is "kind," "snaky" in its movement, "fertile," and "unfettered." These adjectival modifiers clearly illustrate the stream's value to the people who inhabit the hills; it does not discriminate in its fertilization of the land for the people to gain maximally from their toil on the soil.

The "unfettered journey" of the Ejimashor stream contrasts sharply with the Abe River of Ushie. In Ushie's poem we are told that: "Old now, the Abe River goes / Wearily bearing bundles of woes" (p.29). This invokes pain and anguish, whereas in Ejimashor the tone is pacy, expectant, and excited.

Angrey in this poem makes use of these pre-modifiers about sixty five times and post-modifiers a lot fewer times, and all of these are positive. This is to show that all through he celebrates the natural state of the hills and the beauty and healing qualities of Ejimashor. He is not so much preoccupied with the destruction that takes place around him like Ushie vividly does in *Hill Songs*. His is both celebrative and supplicatory, as shown in section VI (p.20) of the poem. The persona tells us: I have now kissed your face/for three and twenty years/your bountiful flow of blessings/ does compensate us for our work

That relationship of kinship is again established in this line through linguistic choices; in the manner the persona addresses what we may rightly term the stream of life. The mother-child relationship established earlier continues here as shown by the verb, “kissed;” and this has been on “for three and twenty years.” And because of their loyalty and dedication to Ejimashor, its “bountiful flow of blessings does compensate [them] for [their] work.” Both the stream and the inhabitants, the community benefits from each side; while the people pay their respect to the stream, it in turn blesses the work of the hands of members of the community. This position is further reinforced in the last two stanzas of the section when the persona tells us that:

Your *ceaseless* flow down/ to the young *dying* palm trees/ of the *luscious* Ikem-Akpe/ is a banner of our *common* bliss/ You’re the thread of unity/ that binds Kigbor children/ they are to the *fertile* soil /bound by your *bountiful* face

It is clear from the modifiers deployed in this extract that the stream, Ejimashor, is regenerative, productive, unifies and forever present to direct the destiny of the of the people of Kigbor towards their desired destiny. It binds and unifies the people together in their journey through life. These images of the stream run through the other sections of the poem; at one point it is a “good mother” with “daughters brave,” and at other times it is a “soothing balm to / wipe away *sour* tears / of labour pains;”

In the last section of the poem, section XIII (27), the persona changes the celebrative tone of the earlier sections of the poem; there is now a connection between the “ceaseless flow” of the stream “down its inevitable course” with the persona’s “... final journey / down the rugged road of life.” However, even though he has been made aware of this inevitable journey “from them under these trees laid,” this which is an obvious reference to his forebears, the persona is “not in a hurry to tread it” yet. The constancy of the flow of the stream, since it is “ceaseless,” is a reminder to the inhabitants that their individual lives are on immutable ebb to that final end to which all human lives are subject. This style of connecting the steady flow of the stream to the gradual but inevitable ebbing away of human life has the force of oral or folklore authority. The stream Ejimashor plays multi-faceted roles in the lives of the Kigbor people.

Ushie & Ofem (2013) read a political undertone in the poem “Men from the North” in which the poverty agents are semiotized as predator birds that cause artificial poverty. It is ironic that the northerners who came “in tattered penury” (line 1) left with the juiciest fruits leaving the people “in tattered misery” (line16). The farming folk work the soil with their bare hands and reap the crops which they hardly enjoy because the northerners in great numbers come to “the Delta, like rapacious birds of prey,” and pick the “juiciest fruits”. The owners and tillers of the land are bereft of land, food and aquatic life as “the ecosystem is so devastated” (lines23–15, p.8). The Niger Delta indigenes suffer this devastation of the ecosystem in the forms of polluted water that destroys marine life, blighted flora and fauna and degraded land. In this poem man’s relationship with the ecosystem is that of destructive pests that unabashedly and selfishly exploits and destroys the environment. Man is likened to “rapacious birds of prey” (line11, p.7) that suck the “juiciest fruits”. The effect is bizarre: “the owners of the land” are left /without land, without food and fish/ the ecosystem is so devastated/ the men are left in tattered misery (ll14–16, p.8).

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper we have attempted a study of the place of mainly the use of modifiers and conceptual metaphors to establish the connection between Joe Ushie and Unimna Angrey in their poetry. We demonstrate that their use of lexical items which is highly anthropomorphic shows their abiding commitment and attachment to the hills, a topographic feature of their ancestral homes. Their use, also of modification becomes a code for semiotizing and foregrounding the symbiosis between man and the ecosystem. We showed that whereas Ushie is concerned with the effect that man’s action has wrought on the hills, Angrey on the other hand is mainly concerned with the protective cover that the hills, with its flora and fauna, offer, except in “Men from the North” in which the ecosystem is devastated by man. The analysis also shows that the environment, like the woman is seen purely from anthropocentric perspective, the perspective of an object to be exploited without regard to sustainability in use. It is couched in the image of a woman good only for use and not for preservation

Beyond the use of modifiers to establish that “umbilical accord” and the symbiotic relationship between the poets and their homelands, the poets make use of other stylistic markers such as inversion, sound features such as alliteration and others. Both poets also resort to their respective mother tongue to borrow certain linguistic items to add local flavour to their style.

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Ranking of Causes of Failure to Infer Implicature in TOEFL-like Based on Gender

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Abstract—Inferring implicature or pragmatic meaning from TOEFL-like relies on gender. The present study aims at exploring: 1) types of implicature question that male and female test-takers failed to answer and 2) causes of failure and their rankings. This case study involved six students. Data were collected with tests, retrospective report, inventory of causes of failure, interview, recording and analysed with Mixed Methods. Some causes of failure and one type of implicature questions that male and female test-takers' failed to answer are different. Males' ranking is Pronunciation > Sentence Complexity > Cultural Value > Colloquial > Context ≈ Discourse Marker > Mishearing ≈ Speed Rate Delivery ≈ Gender; while females' ranking is Cultural Value > Pronunciation > Sentence Complexity > Context > Discourse Marker > Colloquial. Based on the levels, the ranking is Male Low > Male Medium > Male High > Female Low > Female Medium ≈ Female High.

Index Terms—implicature, TOEFL-like, gender, failure, ranking, discourse marker

I. INTRODUCTION

There is no interactive conversation in the absence of shared knowledge or common ground. Conversation as an example of an interactive verbal communication requires relevance between speaker's intent (or pragmatic meaning) and listener's inference. In a conversation, the speaker generally expresses an utterance which requires the hearer to infer the intended (or pragmatic) 'meaning' or intention commonly called conversational implicature. Arifuddin and Susanto (2012) express that inferring conversational implicatures could be difficult for foreign language learners. Such a difficulty leads to the pragmatic failure. Meanwhile, inferencing ability as an aspect of pragmatic competence is required to raise English language proficiency.

English language proficiency is frequently tested with an instrument called Test of English as a Foreign Language (henceforth TOEFL). Ichsan (1993) tested English language proficiency of his students and found that it is low and listening comprehension is the most difficult skill. Although no detailed information about what makes listening skill low, the study reveals a description of English language proficiency of some English language students in Indonesia.

In relation to teachers' capability, Jalal, et al. (2009) suggest that if the premise that qualified teachers produce qualified students is acceptable, then the poor achievements of students can be attributed to the poor quality of teachers. The achievement of Indonesian students may reflect the lower quality of teachers in Indonesia relative to other countries.

Empirically, a really risky condition indicating low quality of English language learning in English language department in certain higher educations is found. In the 'Visiting Lecture' held at State University of Surabaya on November 20, 2010, Saukah reports that there appears to be a critical problem in English Language Education Program.

The quality of English language teachers in Indonesia is inseparable from their educational background. Saukah (2000) found that English language proficiency of higher education teachers is low, and they do not have good command of English language. A great many English language teachers and even some lecturers show 'insufficient' proficiency. The mean TOEFL scores of English language lecturers in Indonesia is only 390.50, far lower than those of the third year Senior High School students, 435. Among the three sections, Listening section is the most difficult one. This finding is consistent with the one reported by ETS (1997). Based on the data summary, means scores of Listening section, Structure and Written Expression and Reading Comprehension are 63.7, 69.7 and 69.1 respectively. Such a similar condition also appears in Japan. Nishino and Watanabe (2008) found that in Japan, many secondary school English language teachers show low English proficiency on the TOEFL.

According to Saukah (2000), there are a plenty of English language undergraduates who do not show good command of English language. They are not qualified as models in English language teaching. A similar situation occurred at other English education in Indonesia. TOEFL-like studies conducted by Arifuddin and Sujana (2004) and Sujana, et al. (2003) showed that mean scores of English proficiency of the 'senior' students of English Education Program at University of Mataram (henceforth EEPUM) is 437, lower intermediate level, far lower than the minimum standard TOEFL-like score of 500 required for graduation. This is 'unique.' Interestingly, their mean score of Listening section is 462, higher than the other two sections. They could only answer correctly 46% of 50 items of listening section involving Short Conversation (Part A) 30 items, Longer Conversation (Part B) 8 items and Monolog/Talk (Part C) 12 items. So, the contribution of Short Conversation (Part A) which assesses pragmatic meanings, implicature in particular, might be high to the low score of both Listening section Parts A and B and TOEFL as a whole. It is probable that one of the causes of low total English proficiency could be low ability in implicature inference from short conversations. Blight

(2002) states that understanding pragmatics or implicatures is still problematic for EFL learners and it hinders proficiency. As a proficiency test, TOEFL generally contains pragmatics (McGormley, <http://rcah.msu.edu/language>). Unfortunately, TOEFL publishers and ETS never explicitly inform about common barriers of listening comprehension in Paper-based TOEFL.

Regarding content or topics, Part A Listening section of TOEFL-like is gender-free or gender-neutral. However, based on data summaries, for example, ETS test and score data summaries January 2011-December 2011 (ETS, 2012) and January 2008-December 2008 (ETS Researcher, 2008), TOEFL scores are inseparable from test-takers' gender. The mean scores and standard deviations of each section (or skill) according to 'gender' are different. All standard deviations of males' mean scores are higher than those of females. Almost every year ETS reports the means scores of male and female test-takers. It implies that ETS realizes that gender potentially affects test-takers' TOEFL scores. The ETS's concern with the role of gender in English proficiency is a reasonable basis for investigating whether the emergence of types and rankings of causes of failure in inferring implicature from Part A of Listening section of TOEFL-like rely on test-takers' gender.

To guarantee the availability of data and to determine whether implicature comprehension of Part A of Listening Comprehension of TOEFL-like between male and female students of EEPUM is different or not, two preliminary studies were done, on November 11, 2011 attended by 20 males and 32 females and on March 1, 2012 by 30 males and 32 females. These studies aimed at determining whether male students obtain different means correct answers of inferring implicatures by using Part A of Listening section of TOEFL-like. Based on the test administered in the preliminary studies, it indicates that male and female students showed different means of correct answers of implicature inference. Female test-takers' comprehension is better than that of male test-takers. On the basis of their mean scores of pragmatic comprehension, the majority of the test-takers show low ability in inferring implicatures from TOEFL-like. Male test takers achieved far lower mean scores of correct answers than those of females. This finding is definitely relevant to the objectives of the present study.

The difference of mean scores of implicature comprehension of males and females may be related to their preference in language use. It is found that females are prone to produce indirect speech and males direct speech acts in their verbal communication (Mckelvie, 2000; Mulac, Bradac, and Gibbons, 2001). Accordingly, it is *assumed* that: a) female test-takers face fewer causes of failure to understand implicatures from short conversations than do male test-takers and b) Inferring implicatures from short conversations in TOEFL-like needs the test-takers' schema and familiarity with the contexts of indirect speech.

The present study is worth conducting because, as Grujicic-Alatraste (2008) notes, studies focusing on relation between gender and implicatures have not been extensively conducted. Yappy (2002) notes that not much study concerning language functions or pragmatics, particularly used in TOEFL listening section, has been done. That is why, Thijittang and Le (2009) suggest that more research on pragmatics need to be done. A limited number of research findings are reported. For example, it proved that gender influences aural pragmatic understanding (Amin, 2003; Cedar, 2006; Dykstra, 2006) or implicature inference (Barati and Biria, 2011; Cocco and Ervas, 2012). More specifically, women outperformed men in answering inferential comprehension question of aural proficiency tests (John et al., 2003; Farashayian and Hua, 2012). *However*, none of the studies explored the *types* and *rankings* of causes of failure in inferring implicature from short conversations of TOEFL-like on the basis of gender. This is a *gap*. Therefore, it is important to explore them. This is the *novelty* and *authenticity* of the present study.

As mentioned earlier, despite their 'seniority' in terms of semester, the EFL learners' listening comprehension is low. Nissan et al.'s (1996) study shows that TOEFL short dialogues with implicit ideas are difficult for test-takers to infer. In relation to pragmatic failure, the problem is whether male and female test-takers experience different types of causes of failure in each type of implicature question when doing Part A Listening Comprehension of TOEFL-like and how Brown & Yule's (1983) ranking or theory differs from the rankings of causes of failure obtained from the present study. To solve this problem, an investigative study which attempts to reveal gender-specific causes and *rankings* of causes of failure in inferring implicature from Part A Listening section of TOEFL-like has been conducted. Considering the scope, the obtained rankings are compared with three out of four factors affecting listening comprehension that Brown and Yule (1983) mention. Boyle's (1984) and Rubin's (1994) rankings and causes of failure are used as reference for categorization.

II. THE RESEARCH AIM AND THE QUESTIONS

The present study aims at exploring the:

1. gender-specific causes of failure
2. rankings of causes of failure in inferring implicatures in TOEFL-like based on gender.

The present study pursued the following research questions:

1. What types of implicature question do male test-takers fail to answer? Why?
2. What types of implicature question do female test-takers fail to answer? Why?
3. What are the rankings of causes of failure to infer implicature based on gender?

III. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

Theoretically, the findings clarify Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking' and pedagogically, they are meaningful reference for the remedy of EFL learners' aural pragmatic failures.

Pedagogically, the types of implicature question failed to be answered, gender-specific and new rankings of causes of failure are meaningful reference for the remedy of EFL learners' aural pragmatic failures. The application of this approach requires: a) Dedicated teachers with sufficient pragmatic competency responsible for diagnosing students' difficulties and doing remedy, b) English teachers and curriculum developers who are competent in both TOEFL strategies and pragmatics because the nucleus of Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching is *language use* or pragmatics, c) The enthusiasm of the English language educations to introduce TOEFL-like to their learners and d) English language teachers to consider learners' characteristics or, for instance, gender or sex differences. It is recommended that teachers consider EFL learners' differences and treat them as individuals or, at least, as groups, not as a collection of homogeneous creatures.

Since the subjects of the present study are not so familiar with the interlanguage pragmatic content of the authentic proficiency test, TOEFL-like in particular, it is suggested that test developers modify or adapt the pragmatic orientation of the test to suit Indonesian English language learners' schema.

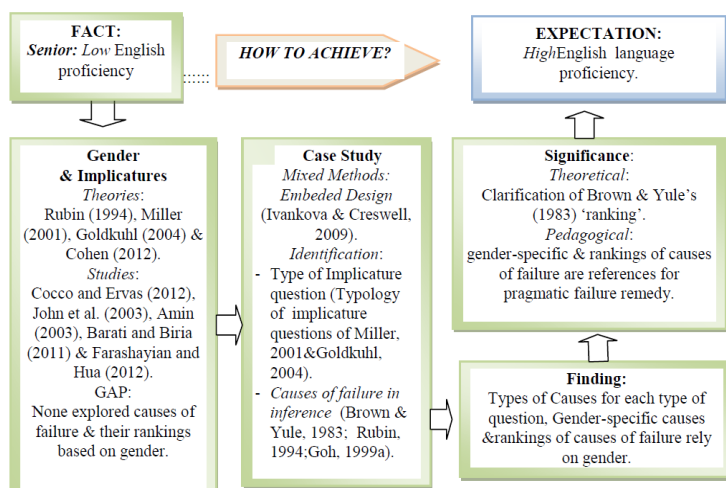
IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

In daily communication, it is assumed that females tend to use more indirect utterances or implicit ideas than males do. This assumption is supported by Markovic's (2007) statement that no one would argue than men use more direct speech constructions than do women because of innate differences between the sexes. It is also relevant to Lindblom's (2010:105) statement indicating that women's speech is more indirect than men's. Similarly, Yule (1996) notes that some researchers have pointed to a preference among women for indirect speech acts rather than the direct speech act.

Empirically, a recent study conducted by Karjo (2011) shows that there are gender differences in production and comprehension of pragmatic meaning. Females are more pragmatic than males. This finding is relevant to Ning et al.'s (2010) research finding indicating that women's speech tendsto reflect pragmatic content than men's.

The theories used are Miller's (2001) and Goldkuhl's (2004) *Typology of Implicature Questions* was used to identify the types of implicature questions asked by the narrators in short conversations in Part A Listening section of TOEFL-like. Brown and Yule's (1983) and Rubin's (1994) theories regarding the *factors which affect listening comprehension* were used to identify and categorize the causes of failure as the basis for their ranking. Meanwhile, Cohen (2012), Cocco and Ervas (2012), John et al. (2003), Amin (2003), Barati and Biria (2011) & Farashayian and Hua (2012) regarding gender and implicature (or pragmatic) comprehension are among the research findings used as references. The research findings and theories are inseparable from the rationale and the design of the present study. Their relationship is illustrated in the following schematic *theoretical framework*.

The fact is that English language proficiency of *senior* students of EEPUM measured with TOEFL-like is low. Preliminary studies indicate that one of the causes is low ability in inferring implicatures from TOEFL-like. Based on some theories and studies, gender affects implicature (or pragmatic) understanding. Theoretically, the present study refers to those theories and research findings. Unfortunately, factors or causes failure in inferring implicature from TOEFL-like and their rankings on the basis of gender have not been extensively explored. This is a *gap*. Therefore, a case study using Mixed methods was employed to investigate the causes of failure for each type of implicature question and gender-specific causes. The data are used as the basis for the formulation of rankings of causes of failure in inferring implicatures from TOEFL-like. The types of cause for each implicature question, gender-specific causes & rankings of causes of failure rely on gender. Theoretically, the findings clarify Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking' and pedagogically, they are meaningful reference for the remedy of EFL learners' aural pragmatic failures. Next is the theoretical framework of the present study.



V. METHODOLOGY

A. *Subjects of the Research*

This case study involved six students of English Education Program University of Mataram selected based on the result of the test in the preliminary study. Implicature questions asked in Part A Listening comprehension TOEFL-like are the materials of present study.

B. *Instruments for Data Collection*

Data about causes of failure to infer implicature were collected with tests (Part A TOEFL-like), retrospective report, inventory of causes of failure, interview, recording and human instrument.

C. *Procedures*

The present study was conducted according to the following phases: a) Preliminary studies; b) Subject selection using Part A Listening TOEFL-like; c) Data Collection; d) Data Analysis; and e) Verification of the findings. Note that the identification and categorisation of causes of failure and causes of failure employed Miller's (2001) and Goldkuhl's (2004) Typology of Implicature and Brown and Yule's (1983) and Rubin's (1994).

D. *Data Analysis*

Data were analysed with Mixed Methods: Embedded Design. Qualitative analysis was done using Yin's (2011) iterative qualitative analysis integrated with Descriptive Quantitative: Frequency.

VI. FINDINGS

The description of causes of failure for each type of implicature question related to gender-specific causes presented in Table 1 below aims at providing the answer for Research Question 1, "How do the rankings of causes of failure of male test-takers differ from those of female test-takers?"

TABLE 1.
GENDER-SPECIFIC CAUSES OF FAILURE

	Gender-specific Causes		
	Male	Female	
Types of Question: Causes of Failure	<i>Meaning/Intent question:</i> Mishearing, Speed Rate/Delivery & Context	<i>Meaning/Intent question:</i> Discourse Marker	
	<i>Inference question:</i> Colloquial	<i>Inference question:</i> Not identified	
	<i>Reference question:</i> Context	<i>Reference question:</i> Sentence Complexity	
	<i>Deixis question:</i> Not identified	<i>Deixis question:</i> Sentence Complexity, Cultural Value & Context	
	<i>Presupposition question:</i> Pronunciation, Gender & Discourse Marker	<i>Presupposition question:</i> Context	
	<i>Predictable action question:</i> Not identified	<i>Predictable action question:</i> Context	
	Overall	Mishearing, Speed Rate/Delivery & Gender	Not identified

Based on TABLE 1, gender or sex difference is obviously apparent because some gender-specific causes of failure are identified. It is described below.

In *Meaning/Intent* question, gender-specific causes of failure are found. Mishearing, Speed Rate/Delivery and Context appear as *gender-specific: male*, while Discourse Marker appears as *Gender-specific: female*. In *Inference* question, Colloquial is identified as *gender-specific: male*. In *Reference* question, Context appears as *gender-specific: male* and Sentence Complexity as *gender-specific: female*. In *Deixis* question, Sentence Complexity, Cultural Value and Context are identified as *gender-specific: female*. Gender-specific is identified in *Presupposition* question. 'Man's voice is easier.' Gender, Pronunciation and Discourse Marker appear as *gender-specific: male*. For female test-takers, Context is identified as *gender-specific: female*. *Predictable action question* is answered incorrectly only by female test-takers, so that this type of implicature question is *gender-specific: female*.

Meaning question is the most dominant cause of failure. Of all types of question, except for 'Deixis' and 'Predict,' male test-takers faced broader coverage of cause of failure than female test-takers. The difference of total frequency of causes of failure in *Meaning/Intent* question between male test-takers and female test-takers is extremely high, 28:11. It means that males are superior to females in terms of level of causes of failure. This is relevant to some theories claiming that female test-takers outperform male test-takers in listening comprehension.

Male test-takers faced broader causes of failure in *Meaning*, *Inference* and *Presupposition* questions than female test-takers did. However, they faced narrower coverage of failure in *Deixis* and *Predictable action* questions than female test-takers did. Nevertheless, male test-takers and female test-takers shared the same coverage of causes of failure in *Meaning* and *Reference* questions. Thus, based on the total causes of failure in all types of implicature question, *gender-*

specific: male is superior to *gender-specific: female*. The rankings based on the levels (or frequencies) of causes of failure related to gender-specific causes are briefly described below.

For male test-takers, the highest level cause of failure is Pronunciation (60) and the lowest one is Gender (1). Male test-takers cover far broader causes of failure than female test-takers. Only did male test-takers face Mishearing (1), Speech Rate/Delivery (1) and Gender (1) as causes of failure. Besides Pronunciation, Sentence Complexity (14) and Cultural Value (9) also place high level of causes. Colloquial (4), Context (3) and Discourse Marker (3) are in the middle position. Context and Discourse Marker share the same level of causes, so do Mishearing, Speech Rate/Delivery and Gender. Mishearing, Speed Rate/Delivery and Gender are *gender-specific: male*. Below is male test-takers' ranking:
 $Pr > SC > CV > COL > Cont \approx MarkRh > MisH \approx SRD \approx Gen$.

For female test-takers, Cultural Value (20) is the in the highest level of cause of failure, while Colloquial (1) is in the lowest one. Pronunciation (18) and Sentence Complexity (18) are also in the high position. Like male test-takers, female test-takers also place Context (11) in the middle position. However, as a whole, no *gender-specific: female* appears. It means that female test-takers experienced less diverse causes of failure than male test-takers. The following is the female test-takers' ranking:

$CV > Pr > SC > Cont > MarkRh > COL$.

Regarding superiority, male test-takers are superior to female test-takers in Pronunciation (60), Colloquial (4), Mishearing (1), Speech Rate/Delivery (1), Discourse Marker (3) and Gender (1). In Sentence Complexity (15), Cultural Value (20) and Context (11), female test-takers achieved higher level of causes of failure than male test-takers did. Accordingly, the rankings are as follows:

$Male > Female: Pr, COL, MisH, SRD, MarkRh, Gen$; while $Male < Female: SC, CV, Cont$.

In addition, related to the levels of the subjects, high (H), medium (M) and low (L); the order of the three levels of subjects based on frequencies of causes is Male Low (55), Male Medium (26), Male High (19), Female Low (16), Female Medium (15) and Female High (15). Interestingly, the three levels of female subjects show relatively comparable number of frequencies. Accordingly, the ranking of causes of failure based on their frequencies is as follows:

$Male L > Male M > Male H > Female L > Female M \approx Female H$.

It indicates that all three levels of male subjects experienced more causes of failure than those of three levels of female subjects.

To sum up, in the context of the present study, male test-takers and female test-takers differ in terms of: 1) emergence of causes to a peculiar sex (or natural gender) (gender-specific) and 2) coverages and levels of causes of failure. *Male test-takers experience broader coverage of gender-specific causes of failure in implicature inference of short conversations than female test-takers do*. In other words, female test-takers experienced less diverse causes of failure than male test-takers. This is a new finding (or *theory*) generated from the present study.

The presentation of coverage and order of causes of failure of male test-takers and female test-takers in tabular form is to show how the obtained rankings are derived and how they differ from Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking'. The causes of failure as sub-factors are categorised under each factor as appropriate. This presentation is aimed at answering.

Research Question 2, "How do the rankings of categorised causes of failure in inferring implicatures obtained in the present study differ from Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking'?"

There are three components which are compared with Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking':

- 1) Total (Sub-factors + Frequency);
- 2) Sub-factors
- 3) Frequencies.

This comparison reveals new ranking(s) of factors affecting the failure in communicative listening, implicature inference of Part A Listening Comprehension of TOEFL-like in particular.

The coverage and sequence factors which affect failure in implicature inference are based on Brown and Yule (1983), Underwood (1989), Rubin (1994), Van Duzer (1997), Goh (1999a), Van Duzer (2003), Goh and Taib (2006), Graham (2006), Kijpoonphol (2010), and But *et al.* (2010). Some of the specific factors (or features) mentioned by the scholars are overlapped. In categorising the factors or causes of failure, the researcher carefully examined the characteristic similarity of the specific causes.

The detailed coverage and order of causes of failure that male test-takers and female-test-takers experienced used as the bases for ranking formulation are written. Furthermore, the total frequency of each cause of failure is placed under the column of sub-factors of appropriate factor (*see* TABLE 2). In Table 2, the categorisation of causes or factors which affect implicature inference follows Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking'. Besides, the taxonomy of subfactors or features under each factor is based on categorised factors affecting listening of Rubin (1994), Van Duzer (1997), Goh (1999a), Goh and Taib (2006) and Kijpoonphol (2010).

TABLE 2.
COVERAGE AND ORDER OF MALE TEST-TAKERS' AND FEMALE TEST-TAKERS' CAUSES OF FAILURE

Male Test-takers		Female Test-takers	
Factor	Sub-factor	Factor	Sub-factor
Listener	CV = 9, Cont= 3 and MisH = 1	Listener	CV =20 and Cont= 11
	Sub-factor: 3 Frequency: 13		Sub-factor : 2 Frequency: 31
Speaker	Pr (Voice, BS, Acc) = 60 COL = 4, Sex/Gen= 1 & SRD = 1.	Speaker	Pr (Voice, BS, Acc) = 18 &COL = 1.
	Sub-factor: 6 Frequency: 66		Sub-factor: 4 Frequency: 19
Content	SC = 14 & MarkRh = 3	Content	SC = 16 &MarkRh= 2.
	Sub-factor: 2 Frequency: 17		Sub-factor: 2 Frequency: 18
Visual Support	<i>Not involved.</i>	Visual Support	<i>Not involved.</i>
Total	Sub-factors (Coverage): 11 Frequency(Order): 96	Total	Sub-factors (Coverage): 8 Frequency (Order) : 68
Male Test-takers' Ranking: Coverage: <i>Speaker > Listener > Content</i> Order: <i>Speaker > Content > Listener</i> Coverage + Order: <i>Speaker > Content > Listener</i>		Female Test-takers' Ranking: Coverage: <i>Speaker > Listener ≈ Content</i> Order: <i>Listener > Speaker > Content</i> Coverage + Order: <i>Listener > Speaker > Content</i>	
Brown & Yule's (1983) (non-gender-based): <i>Listener > Speaker > Content</i>			

Codes:

CV= Cultural Value, Cont= Context, MisH= Mishearing, Pr= Pronunciation, BS= Blended sounds, Acc= Accent, COL= Colloquial, Gen= Gender, SRD= Speech Rate/Delivery, SC= Sentence Complexity, MarkRh= Discourse Marker.

VII. DISCUSSION

Based on the summary data presented in Table 2, how male test-takers' rankings of causes of failure differ from female test-takers' is summarised below:

a) As a whole, the number of sub-factors under each factor and the total of sub-factors and frequency of causes of male test-takers' failure are higher than those of female test-takers'. It means that male test-takers experienced more causes of failure in implicature inference than female test-takers did.

b) In terms of 'coverage', the primary cause of failure is 'Speaker'. However, female test-takers were so sure that Content and their own listening competency (as Listener) share the same degree of causes of failure, while male test-takers admitted that Content is not a significant cause of failure. It means that male test-takers comprehend Content better than female test-takers do.

c) Of the three female test-takers' rankings, two rankings place Listener as a cause of failure in listening to short conversations, while male test-takers consider that the main factor which contributes to their failure is Speaker, not they themselves as Listener. The fact that male test-takers' and female test-takers' rankings are different proves that there is an effect of gender on the failure in inferring implicatures from Part A Listening Comprehension of TOEFL-like.

d) Brown & Yule's (1983) 'ranking', *Listener > Speaker > Content*, is different from all male test-takers' rankings (Coverage, Order and Coverage + Order) and one of three female test-takers' rankings (Coverage). Only female test-takers' Order and Coverage + Order rankings are the same as Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking'.

The emergence of gender-specific causes of failure in each type of implicature question is described as follows. In *Meaning/Intent* question, gender-specific causes of failure is identified. Mishearing and Speed Rate/Delivery appear as *gender-specific: male*, while Discourse Marker and Context are found to be *gender-specific: female*. In Inference question, Colloquial is identified as *gender-specific: male*. This finding is relevant to Eisenstein's (1982) research finding which shows that females consistently and significantly outperformed males in discriminating among different American English sounds.

For female test-takers, Sentence Complexity, Cultural Value and Context are identified as *gender-specific: female* in Deixis question. Gender-specific is also identified in Presupposition question. 'Man's voice is easier.' Gender, Pronunciation and Discourse Marker appear as *gender-specific: male*. For female test-takers, Context is identified as *gender-specific: female*. Predictable action question is answered incorrectly only by female test-takers, so that this type of implicature question is *gender-specific: female*. In conclusion, males dominate female in both *gender-specific*. This finding is relevant to Zaidi's (2010) note reporting that some neurological studies have shown that men use the left side of their brains when they listen to someone speaking, whereas women use both sides. Similarly, Lenarz, et al. (2012) also state that women show greater bilateral activity in language. This means that women may face fewer causes of failure in listening than do men.

Meaning question is the most dominant cause of failure. Of all types of question, except for 'Deixis' and 'Predict,' male test-takers faced broader coverage of cause of failure than female test-takers. The difference of total frequency of

causes of failure in Meaning/Intent question between male test-takers and female test-takers is extremely high, 28:11. This finding is relevant to Zaidi's (2010) note reporting that some studies have shown that men listen better than men.

Male test-takers faced broader causes of failure in Meaning, Inference and Presupposition questions than female test-takers did. Male test-takers faced narrower coverage of failure in Deixis and Predicable action questions than female test-takers did. Male test-takers and female test-takers shared the same coverage of causes of failure in Meaning and Reference questions.

Based on their levels, the rankings of causes of failure of male test-takers and female test-takers are described as follows. In male test-takers' ranking,

$Pr > SC > CV > COL > Cont \approx MarkRh > MisH \approx SRD \approx Gen$,

the highest level cause of failure is Pronunciation and the lowest ones are Mishearing, Speech Rate/Delivery and Gender. This is in line with Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) hypothesis that females may possess better listening skills than do males.

To female test-takers, Cultural Value is the in the highest level of cause of failure, while Colloquial is in the lowest one. Pronunciation and Sentence Complexity are also in the high position. Like male test-takers, female test-takers place Context in the middle position. However, as a whole, no *gender-specific: female* appears. It means that female experience less diverse causes of failure than male test-takers. In female test-takers' ranking,

$CV > Pr > SC > Cont > MarkRh > COL$,

Cultural Value is the in the highest level of cause of failure, while Colloquial is in the lowest one. Pronunciation and Sentence Complexity are also in the high position. Like male test-takers, female test-takers also place Context in the middle position. However, as a whole, no *gender-specific: female* appears. It means that female test-takers experienced less diverse causes of failure than male test-takers.

In addition, regarding the levels of the subjects (High, Medium and Low), the holistic ranking based on the frequencies of causes of failure of is as follows:

$Male L > Male M > Male H > Female L > Female M \approx Female H$.

In relation to superiority, male test-takers are superior to female test-takers in Pronunciation, Colloquial, Mishearing, Speech Rate/Delivery, Discourse Marker and Gender. In Sentence Complexity, Cultural Value and Context, female test-takers achieved higher level of causes of failure than male test-takers did. The rankings are as follows:

$Male > Female: Pr, COL, MisH, SRD, MarkRh, Gen$; while

$Male < Female: SC, CV, Cont$.

In conclusion, in the context of the present study, male test-takers and female test-takers differ in terms of: 1) emergence of causes to a peculiar sex (or natural gender) (gender-specific) and 2) coverages and levels of causes of failure. *Male test-takers experience broader coverage of gender-specific causes of failure in implicature inference of short conversations than female test-takers do.* Female test-takers experienced less diverse causes of failure than male test-takers. This finding is consistent with Barati and Biria's (2011) and Cocco and Ervas's (2012) studies indicating that gender influences implicature inference or pragmatic understanding.

In relation to Research Question 2, there are three components which are compared with Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking': 1) Total (Sub-factors + Frequency); 2) Sub-factors and 3) Frequencies. This comparison reveals new ranking(s) of factors affecting the failure in communicative listening, implicature inference of Part A Listening Comprehension of TOEFL-like, in particular.

As a whole, the number of sub-factors under each factor and the total of sub-factors and frequencies of causes of male test-takers' failure are higher than those of female test-takers'. It means that male test-takers experienced more causes of failure in implicature inference than female test-takers did. This finding is relevant to Farashayian and Hua's (2012) and John et al.'s (2003) studies which show that women outperformed men in answering inferential comprehension questions of auditory discourses in proficiency tests.

Regarding the 'coverage', both male test-takers and female test-takers experienced 'Speaker' as the primary cause of failure. However, female test-takers were so sure that Content and their own listening competency (as Listener) share the same degree of causes of failure, while male test-takers admitted that Content is not a significant cause of failure. It means that male test-takers comprehend Content better than female test-takers do.

Of the three female test-takers' rankings, two rankings place Listener as a cause of failure in listening to short conversations, while male test-takers consider that the main factor which contributes to their failure is Speaker, not they themselves as Listener.

The fact that male test-takers' and female test-takers' rankings are different proves that there is an effect of gender on the failure in inferring implicatures from Part A Listening Comprehension of TOEFL-like. Consequently, the research findings which show that listening comprehension (Amin, 2003) and implicature or pragmatic understanding (John et al., 2003; Barati and Biria, 2011; Cocco and Ervas, 2012; and Farashayian and Hua, 2012) between men and women are different is *confirmed*. Thus, gender is one of the factors which affect the success or failure in inferring implicature from short conversations.

The following are three previous studies and one proposed theory which all report *coverages* of factors which affect communicative listening comprehension. Uniquely, the *coverages* and *orders* of factors of the three studies are different. The emergence of the diverse *rankings* provides scientific opportunity for conducting further comparative investigations.

The present study provides the detail of gender-specific causes and rankings of causes of failure that learners experienced when inferring implicatures from short dialogues. Theoretically, this finding: a) is useful for the clarification of categorisations formulated in the previous studies, b) reveals gender-specific and ranks of causes of failure in implicature inference formulated based on gender; and c) is the basis for clarifying Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking' of factors affecting listening.

The finding of the present study meaningfully clarifies Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking' of factors which affect listening comprehension. Indirectly, the new finding yields further information for Amin's (2003) study, Goh's (1999a) and Chang's (2009) studies. Hopefully, in reference to these new rankings, EFL learners will not 'overgeneralize' those findings, Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking of factors', in particular.

Pedagogically, the types of implicature question failed to be answered, gender-specific and new rankings of causes of failure are meaningful reference for the remedy of EFL learners' aural pragmatic failures. The application of this approach requires: a) Dedicated teachers with sufficient pragmatic competency responsible for diagnosing students' difficulties and doing remedy, b) English teachers and curriculum developers who are competent in both TOEFL strategies and pragmatics because the nucleus of Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching is *language use* or pragmatics, c) The enthusiasm of the English language educations to introduce TOEFL-like to their learners and d) English language teachers to accommodate learners' characteristics or, for instance, gender or sex differences. It is recommended that teachers consider EFL learners' differences and treat them as individuals or, at least, as groups, not as a collection of homogeneous creatures.

Since the subjects of the present study are not so familiar with the interlanguage pragmatic content of the authentic proficiency test, TOEFL-like in particular, it is suggested that test developers carefully create short conversations which contain more universal pragmatics.

The findings of the present study will be useful for language centres' TOEFL instructors in selecting and designing TOEFL listening materials, and applying appropriate teaching and learning strategies which facilitate comparable trainees to effectively comprehend pragmatic capacity. Besides, it is a good idea for a language centre to recognise the trainees' difficulties in raising their TOEFL scores. Basically, TOEFL score should be raised through self-study or independent learning. The trainees need to apply independent learning which focuses on their listening problems or weaknesses. The causes of failure in listening obtained from the present study are good references. By so doing, it is expected that the trainees' English proficiency be improved. Language Centre University of Mataram, for instance, is responsible for designing TOEFL preparation materials for those who apply for further study. Familiarity with the types of implicature questions could help the trainees or test-takers comprehend pragmatic meanings. To achieve high score in Part A Listening Comprehension of TOEFL-like, it is essential that the test-takers be familiar with the types of questions and specification of content of the conversations.

VIII. CONCLUSION

It is concluded that: 1) male test-takers dominate gender-specific causes of failure. To male test-takers, the highest level cause of failure is Pronunciation and the lowest one is Gender. Pronunciation, Sentence Complexity and Cultural Value also place high level of causes. Context is in the middle position. Context and Discourse Marker share the same level of causes, so do Mishearing, Speech Rate/Delivery and Gender. Mishearing, Speed Rate/Delivery and Gender are *gender-specific: male*. Accordingly, male test-takers' ranking is:

Pr > *SC* > *CV* > *COL* > *Cont* ≈ *MarkRh* > *MisH* ≈ *SRD* ≈ *Gen*.

Female test-takers' ranking is:

CV > *Pr* > *SC* > *Cont* > *MarkRh* > *COL*.

Male test-takers are superior to female test-takers in Pronunciation, Colloquial, Mishearing, Speech rate/Delivery, Discourse Marker and Gender. In Sentence Complexity, Cultural Value and Context, female test-takers achieved higher level of causes of failure than male test-takers did. The rankings are as follows:

Male > *Female*: *Pr*, *COL*, *MisH*, *SRD*, *MarkRh*, *Gen*; while *Male* < *Female*: *SC*, *CV*, *Cont*.

These rankings indicate that male test-takers experience broader coverage of causes of failure in implicature inference of short conversations than female test-takers do. This is a *new finding* from the present study.

In addition, the holistic ranking of causes based on the frequencies of causes of failure of the three levels of subjects - High, Medium and Low -- is as follows:

Male L > *Male M* > *Male H* > *Female L* > *Female M* ≈ *Female H*.

Thus, all levels of male subjects show higher ranks of causes of failure in implicature inference than those of female subjects. This is another *finding*. As a whole, the number of sub-factors under each factor and the total of sub-factors and frequencies of causes of failure of male test-takers' failure are higher than those of female test-takers'. It means that male test-takers experienced more causes of failure in implicature inference than female test-takers did. In terms of *coverage*, both male test-takers and female test-takers experienced 'Speaker' as the dominant cause of failure.

The rankings formulated based on the results of the present study differ from Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking'. The order of the three factors in their ranking formulated as *Listener* > *Speaker* > *Content* is different from all male test-takers' rankings: a) Coverage: *Speaker* > *Listener* > *Content*, b) Order: *Speaker* > *Content* > *Listener* and c) Coverage + Order: *Speaker* > *Content* > *Listener*) and one of the three female test-takers' rankings, that is, Coverage:

Speaker > Listener ≈ Content. Only female test-takers' Order and Coverage + Order rankings are the same as Brown and Yule's (1983) 'ranking'. Consequently, limited to causes of failure in inferring implicatures from short conversations in TOEFL-like, their 'ranking' or 'theory' is now *clarified*. This finding proves that gender is one of the factors which affect failure in inferring implicature from short conversations in TOEFL-like.

It is urgent to do further studies which explore detailed: a) example(s) of each specific cause of failure in inferring implicature, e.g. example(s) of intercultural values and b) rankings of causes of failure for each type of implicature question of each level of subjects.

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Integrating Local Literature in Teaching English to First Graders under K-12 Curriculum

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Abstract—The K to 12 curriculum has already been implemented and part and parcel of it is the MTB-MLE program in which the mother tongue of the learner is used as a medium of instruction and also taken as a subject. As this program advocates the instilling of cultural heritage in the learner, this study explores on integrating local literature (Cordilleran) in the teaching of English. This is done by looking at several factors affecting the choices of teachers, determining the weaknesses of the learners particularly in English grammar awareness, and creating a sample appropriate activity to address the identified weak areas. Data were collected primarily via survey, inter-rater and summative tests and treated through descriptive statistics. Results show that values laden, motivational, in line with the subject matter, substantial, and culturally relevant literary pieces top the line of preferred literature. Also, results of the test in determining weak areas show a big percentage of learners finding the test on identified competencies easy. However, percentage of those who find it difficult is still at an alarming level. Resulting to this is the making of a sample activity created with special emphasis on illustrative activities. The local literature is selectively integrated in the prototype lesson guide issued to the teachers in line with the objectives and the theme embracing each of the given activities.

Index Terms—K-12 curriculum, MTB-MLE, Cordilleran literature, grammar awareness, identified weaknesses, descriptive statistics, prototype plan, illustrative activities, visual learning

I. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

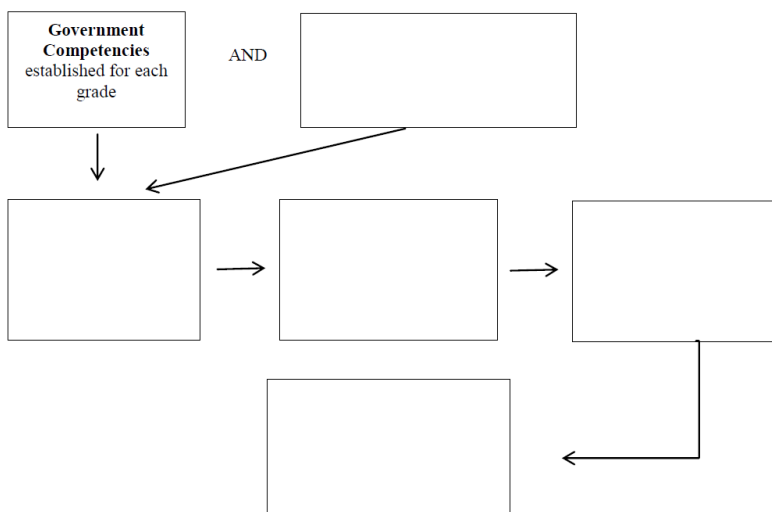
Historically, the Philippine education system has undergone several modifications to meet continuously rising local and global demands for quality education. However, this is the only time that it has undergone dramatic calibration since the change affects both basic and higher education levels. The number of years from elementary to high school used to be ten (10) only, but under the newly implemented K to 12 curriculum, the number of years increased to twelve (12), six (6) in the elementary and six (6) in the high school. The new curriculum has been made legal by the creation of Republic Act No. 10533, an act enhancing the Philippine Basic Education System by strengthening its curriculum and increasing the number of years for basic education, appropriating funds therefore and for other purposes. It is otherwise known as Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013 approved on May 15, 2013, and which took effect on June 8, 2013.

Section 4 of the Act labeled Enhanced Basic Education Program stipulates that for kindergarten and the first three (3) years of elementary education, instruction, teaching materials and assessment shall be in the regional or native language of the learners. It further stipulates that for purposes of this Act, mother language or first Language (L1) refers to language or languages first learned by a child, which he/she identifies with, is identified as a native language user of by others, which he/she knows best, or uses most.

Section 5 under Curriculum Development stipulates that the curriculum shall be learner-centered, inclusive and developmentally appropriate; relevant, responsive and research-based; culture-sensitive; contextualized and global; adhere to the principles and framework of MTB-MLE which starts from where the learners are and from what they already knew proceeding from the known to the unknown; instructional materials and capable teachers to implement the MTB-MLE curriculum shall be available; flexible enough to enable and allow schools to localize, indigenize and enhance the same based on their respective educational and social contexts. The production and development of locally produced teaching materials shall be encouraged and approval of these materials shall devolve to the regional and division education units.

Another new program being implemented simultaneously with the K-12 curriculum as it is part and parcel of the Enhanced Basic Education Program is MTB-MLE. As has been advocated by its proponents and as mentioned in the republic act, this is the use of the mother tongue as a subject and as a medium of instruction in the first three (3) grades. This being said, it can be seen that so much is placed on the shoulders of instructional materials developers. Since this is a new curriculum, therefore, it requires such that can cater to the needs of the learners per K-12 and MTB-MLE standards.

To give a bird's eye view of the steps in the process of developing curriculum and teaching/learning materials that are educationally sound, acceptable to education authorities and helpful for teachers, Susan Malone (2012) developed the following flowchart:



It is worthy to note at this point that in K-12’s first leg of implementation, the mother tongue, like the Ilocano language, is used as a subject and as a medium of instruction. English is also taken as a subject. The K-12 list of competencies in the Mother Tongue has already been issued to schools. However, as of this writing, the competencies in the English language has yet to be completed, but it is safe to assume that the competencies used for the Mother Tongue subject is similarly used for the English Language subject.

The aim of this study is to develop English language instructional materials for first graders that are within the standards of the new curriculum. Tomlinson (2012) explicated that materials can be informative (informing the learner about the target language), instructional (guiding the learner in practicing the language), experiential (providing the learner with experience of the language in use), eliciting (encouraging the learner to use the language) and exploratory (helping the learner to make discoveries about the language). As different learners learn in different ways (Oxford 2002), the ideal materials aim to provide all these ways of acquiring a language for the learners to experience and sometimes select from (Tomlinson 2012). To achieve this objective, the use of literature as a technique for teaching both basic language skills (i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking) and language areas (i.e. vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation) has become very popular in the field of language learning and teaching. Langer (1997, as cited in Shang, 2006) states that literature is used with EFL learners because it taps what they know and who they are, and literature is a particularly inviting context for learning both a second/foreign language and literacy. To further back this view, many teachers consider the use of literature in language teaching as an interesting and worthy concern (Sage, 1987). In fact, the literature-based approach supports integrated skills and, as a result, activities usually target reading, writing, listening, and speaking all in one (Seghayer, 2003). According to Fitzgerald (1993), literature can be the vehicle to improve learners’ overall language skills. It can “expose students to a wide variety of styles and genres” (p.643). It is in literature that “the resources of the language are most fully and skillfully used” (Sage, 1987.p.6.) Abulhaija (1987, as cited in Shang, 2006) states that teaching language in isolation from literature will not move students toward mastery of the four language skills.

Based on experience, it can be noticed from among the young learners of today that most of them know well all about the literatures of other countries. This is primarily because most teachers make use of materials with foreign literature in them in teaching since they are the most easily available and accessible. However, the K-12 curriculum mandates the use of the mother tongue in teaching most subjects in schools, including English; but, based on studies, instructional materials developed out of local pieces are the hardest to find and create. Since the thrust of the K-12 is instilling in the pupils their cultural heritage, the best source is the local literary pieces.

Objectively, through this research, the integration of local literature (Cordilleran) in the lessons of these pupils will possibly be made into fruition. The development of instructional materials that cater specifically to a certain locality generally adheres to a pre-established process (see flowchart by Malone on page 2). To efficiently complete the process, the study focused on answering the following concerns: 1) what local literature (Cordilleran) can be used in teaching English to first graders as preferred by teachers in the first grade; 2) what weaknesses of the pupils in terms of English grammar awareness are identified, specifically on a) identifying proper nouns, b) giving the proper names of nouns, c) writing proper nouns; and 3) what activities can be made to address the identified weaknesses.

With the findings of this research, future teachers will be made aware of the Cordilleran literature that can be appropriately used for instructional materials development for English language teaching. Moreover, awareness amongst younger generation of Cordillerans on the existence of their own literature is enhanced, thus instilling in them the beauty of their cultural heritage. Also, teachers of MTB-MLE will be more open to different ways in carrying out their task as facilitators of learning, especially on grammar awareness competencies. Future ESL/EFL educators will

likewise be exposed to different competencies of beginners in an ESL classroom under the K to12 curriculum, thus making them more effective and critical in selecting instructional materials.

II. RESEARCH FRAME WORK

For the study to work effectively, the following theories of learning are considered as its underpinnings.

The Social Development Theory of learning was introduced by Lev Vygotsky who “argues that social interaction precedes development; consciousness and cognition are the end product of socialization and social behavior”. (Discroll, 1994) Moreover, Vygotsky focused on the connections between people and the socio-cultural context in which they act and interact in shared experiences. According to Vygotsky, humans use tools from their culture, such as speech and writing, to interact with their environment. Children use these tools to communicate their needs. Vygotsky believed that the internalization of these tools led to higher thinking skills (Driscoll, 1994). This is one of the learning theories that guide the MTB MLE program. This also guides this study as it mentioned the use of “tools” from the culture of the children for them to learn how to communicate. Part of those tools could be the literature of their culture. Since this research aims at integration of Cordilleran literature in the teaching of English, this theory is apt to support this aim. As the pupils learn the basic concepts of grammar, they can also be in contact with different literatures that reflect the richness of their own culture. They will become socially aware of their roots through the tales that they will encounter.

Winitz (1981) states that the approach Comprehension-based is a methodology that is listening comprehension. Accordingly, listening for the student is very important and is viewed as the basic skill that will allow speaking, reading, and writing to develop spontaneously over time, given the right condition. Learners should begin by listening to meaningful speech and by responding nonverbally in meaningful ways before they produce any language themselves. Learners should not speak until they feel ready to do so; this results in better pronunciation than if the learners are forced to speak immediately. This theory becomes important to the study because of the way of teaching in the first grade. The pupils’ listening skill is eventually improved because the tales to be read to them are in English. With this, they are exposed to the second language by listening to it. Undeniably, the teacher will have to use bridging for the pupils to understand certain vocabularies from the reading. However, as the theory indicates, this is helpful since the pupils will know how the words and statements are uttered properly so they can follow the manner of speaking as how they were spoken to them.

The focus of Content-Based Instruction approach is not on the language itself but more on what is being taught using the language. The language becomes the medium through which something new is learned. In the CBI, pupils learn English by using it to learn new content. (Bilash, 2009) In the case of the study, pupils will use the English language to learn their culture via the literatures that they are going to study. However, since the pupils are still being introduced to the English language, it cannot be avoided that teachers will use bridging to get the information across. The theory behind CBI is that when pupils are engaged with more content, it will promote intrinsic motivation. (Bilash, 2009) Since the pupils will be using their own literature to learn English it is the hope of the researchers that they will be more comfortable and will be more expressive. This approach is very flexible when it comes to the content which is to be used in teaching that it’s worth looking into for this study. Classes in the K-12 are somehow conducted just like what this approach is saying. As stated, one objective of the study is for literature to become part of the content of the teacher’s teaching materials. By making use of the tales, the learning process becomes interactive since the pupils can now relate to the subject (content) being talked about.

The Literature-based approach is one of the recent additions to the approaches in teaching English as a second language. One of the benefits of this approach is its flexibility. Any literature can be utilized as long as it includes the components of the target language that is going to be taught by the teacher. Moreover, the literature-based approach supports integrated skills and, as a result, activities usually target reading, writing, listening, and speaking all in one (Seghayer, 2003). Part of the flexibility of this approach, grammar can be given emphasis on the lesson just as culture is being highlighted because of the cultural undertones of the literature being utilized. Because of the nature of this teaching approach, it is imperative to include it as part of the study’s framework.

Visual thinking is a learning style where the learner better understands and retains information when ideas, words and concepts are associated with images or pictures that the learner can easily relate with. The Visual Learning Theory is very relevant in today’s generation of learners. Previous researches tell us that majority of the pupils need to see photos and images of the information for them to learn it. (Inspiration Software, Inc., 2013) Also, seventy-five percent of all information processed by the brain is derived from visual formats (Williams, 2009). With these givens, it is important to use Visual learning Theory as one of the theoretical background when developing lesson plans. This theory is highly significant to the pupils since it can help in making connections on how given information is related to an image shown to them. It can also help in organizing and analyzing information. Through organization, the pupils can then see relationships and patterns about what they are learning. Naturally, this way of learning can help pupils integrate new knowledge because it motivates their imaginative skills to visualize the information. Thus, it can also help in the development of the pupils’ critical thinking. By linking what they hear and what they see, it helps the pupils understand relationships of related details.

III. METHODS

Data for this study were collected via a survey, inter-rater test, and a summative test done in Lucban Elementary School in Baguio City. Three hundred one of their first graders and their ten teachers in the first grade were made the subjects. Data gathering was set to motion on the third quarter of the school year since it was only then that English was started to be taught to the pupils. The first part of the study was the surveying of the literary pieces. A list of 27 possible literatures which were numbered was provided for the grade one teachers to study. They ranked each literary piece according to their preference basing on several factors presented. The weaknesses of the learners in English grammar awareness were then measured by way of a summative test. In making the test, a list of competencies laid out by the Department of Education (DepEd) was referred to. After identifying these weaknesses, sample of the tasks and activities to address the weaknesses integrating the preferred literature was made. The study was quantitative and qualitative. Descriptive statistics was used in the first part (frequency, mean, and ranking). The literary pieces and factors affecting the teachers' choices were ranked accordingly by the teachers themselves.

The second part was the administering of the summative test. The learners were given a test after their lessons under identified competencies (e.i. identifying proper nouns; naming proper nouns; etc.). Before the test was administered, an inter-rater validity test was given to the teachers to see if the prepared summative test was appropriate to the pupils' level. The result of the summative test was treated using descriptive statistics, too. The grading system of elementary public schools issued by the DepEd in interpreting the raw scores was utilized. This grading system was introduced by then Education Secretary Edilberto C. de Jesus. It states that the passing rate should be at 75% of the overall total score. (Rimando, 2004) Thus, this was followed in assessing the results of the test.

Basing on the results of the test, a sample task was made and this comprised the third phase of the study. This task was geared toward a more visual approach to learning. The task was supposedly made to improve the identified weak areas.

IV. RESULTS

The first phase of the research was to know the preferences of teachers as to the literature to be integrated. Ten teachers in the first grade were presented twenty-seven (27) stories to choose from. After reading the stories they were asked to rank it from 1 to 27, 1 being their most preferred and 27 their least preferred.

TABLE 1.0
TOP 10 PREFERRED STORIES

Title of the Story	Raw scores	Average	Rank
1. The Squash Seed	65	6.5	1
2. Palpal-ama and Palpal-iking	95	9.5	2
3. The Origin of Rice	98	9.8	3
4. The Star Children	98.5	9.85	4
5. The Creation and the Peopling of the Earth	100	10	5
6. How the climate Change	101	10.1	6
7. The First Tools	110.5	11.05	7
8. Why the Crab doesn't have a Head	112	11.2	8
9. Malekdon	114.5	11.45	9
10. The Crow and the Lizard	117	11.7	10

Table 1.0 shows the top ten most preferred stories. To find the top ten, percentages and averaging were utilized. First, the ranks given by the teachers to each story were added, hence the raw scores. They were then divided by ten to get the average, after which ranking was made from lowest to highest, the lowest ten being the top ten most preferred literary pieces.

TABLE 1.1
FACTORS TO CONSIDER IN CHOOSING A STORY

Factors to consider	Ave	Significance
1. There are morals and values reflected on the literary piece.	1.6	Significant
2. The piece has a great motivational factor.	1.8	Significant
3. The contents are in line with the subject matter.	1.8	Significant
4. The substance of the literary piece as a teaching material.	1.9	Significant
5. The piece can be an aid for the social awareness of the pupils.	2	Significant
6. The significance of the piece to the cultural background of the pupil.	2.1	Significant
7. The appeal of the imagery presented by the piece.	2.3	Significant

Next determined were the factors that affected the teachers' decision in ranking the stories (Table 1.1). Another set of questionnaire designed to answer the aforementioned query was included. This questionnaire was imperative to the progress of the study as the literary pieces would then be integrated in the lessons of the pupils. Each factor was assessed from 1 to 4 according to its significance: 1 being the most significant; 2, significant; 3, less-significant; and 4 being the least significant.

TABLE 2.0
INTER-RATER VALIDITY TEST RESULTS

Test	Percentage	Rank
I: Naming Proper nouns	3.9	Easy
II: Identifying Proper nouns	3.4	Satisfactory
III: Writing Names of Proper nouns	2.7	Satisfactory
Overall percentage:	3.3333	Satisfactory

Table 2.0 shows the result of the inter-rater validity test given to the teachers to assess if the summative test was indeed suitable to the level of the test takers. The assessment followed the following scale: 5 –very easy; 4 –easy; 3 –satisfactory; 2 –difficult; 1 –very difficult.

The results of the summative test show the weaknesses of the first graders in the aforementioned competencies as shown in the succeeding tables.

TABLE 2.1
TEST I: NAMING PROPER NOUNS

Score	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Easy	209	69%	1
Satisfactory	44	15%	2
Difficult	13	4%	4
Very Difficult	35	12%	3
Mean = 4.32	DE = Easy		

TABLE 2.2
TEST II: IDENTIFYING PROPER NOUN

Score	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Easy	120	39.9%	1
Satisfactory	68	22.6%	2
Difficult	59	19.6%	3
Very Difficult	54	17.9%	4
Mean = 3.81M	DE = Satisfactory		

TABLE 2.3
TEST III: WRITING NAMES OF PROPER NOUNS

Score	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Easy	187	62%	1
Satisfactory	37	12%	3
Difficult	34	11%	4
Very Difficult	44	15%	2
Mean = 3.8	DE = Satisfactory		

Tables 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 all show the level of the first graders based on their scores in the summative test. The ranking was based on 75% passing rate (Rimando, 2004). Such is the case when one gets 75% of 5, one gets 3.75 as the passing mark for a test that has five items. Each test had five (5) questions, and each question was focused on a specific proper noun. If the learner got 5 in a certain test, then that test was easy for him. If he got a 4 that was still satisfactory, but when he got 3 to 0 then he failed the test, which in turn, could mean a weakness.

Moving on phase three of the study, to address the identified weaknesses, a sample material was made. Current lesson guides were studied. A part that contained a song was picked; instead of singing songs that are not culturally based, the learners would listen to a local story (Cordilleran). The chosen literature was seen fit to the theme of the lesson guide. The following table shows an excerpt of the entire lesson plan. This only shows the part where the literary piece was integrated.

TABLE 4.0
SAMPLE MATERIAL (EXCERPT OF A LESSON PLAN)

Theme: Me and My Family	
Target skills: At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: Expressive objectives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Realize that the body parts can do a lot of things • Appreciate that story-telling, singing songs, and reciting rhymes can be fun Instructional objectives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oral language: Listen and share about him/herself • Phonological Awareness: Recognize words that rhyme • Listening Comprehension: Listen and share about him/herself; follow directions • Vocabulary and Grammar : Recognize, Identify, and give examples of naming words (body parts) 	
Suggested Number of Minutes	WEEK 5 – Day 1 Lesson Plan
10 mins	I. Pre-Assessment Conduct a game of “touch your body part” Have the class point to a body part Ex. Can you touch your nose?
	II. Objectives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognize parts of the body • Understand the story of the “The Squash Seed”
	III. Subject Matter and Materials Subject Matter: Body parts, nouns Materials: body parts puzzle, pictures
5 mins	IV. Procedure 1. Activating Prior Knowledge; Ask the children to form a puzzle of a boy and a girl using different body parts (paper cut-outs) 2. Presentation: The teacher will read the story to the children while showing drawings of events from the story. To connect it to procedure number 1, the drawings must highlight/emphasize the different body parts of the characters shown in the scene of events. The Squash Seed By: Andrew Kiley Long ago, there was Gatan and Bangan, the two youngest children in the family, and the favorites of their parents. All their requests were granted by their parents while their elder brothers and sisters were ignored. When the parents died, the older children were happy because they can force Gatan and Bangan to work for them. Soon, the two youngest children were treated like servants’ by their older brothers and sisters. They were forced to work for the others who did not work for themselves. From that day on they were treated very harshly. One day, Gatan felt very sorry for his younger sister Bangan. He took her on his back and left home. On their way they found a squash seed. They took it with them. Then it rained. They went to rest in a small cave. But before they fell asleep, they stuck the squash seed in a tone crack. The next day they saw that the squash seed had grown up and had many fruits. Bangan decided to cook some for breakfast. When she opened the squash, she was surprised to find the inside full of rice. She took another one and opened it and it, too, was filled with rice. They decided to build their house there. A few years later, a famine occurred in the land. People had to buy rice from other places. The older brothers and sisters were also affected so they went to buy rice as well. They were surprised to see that the people selling rice were their youngest brother and sister. They presented themselves timidly and bought some rice. When Bangan and Gatan saw there brothers and sisters were sorry for what they did, and Bangan and Gatan invited them to live with them. After a long pause because of their shame, their brothers and sisters gratefully agreed to live with Bangan and Gatan.
10 mins	3. Guided Practice: Show the pictures and let the children identify the events in the story
	4. Independent Practice Identify the other nouns in the story

V. DISCUSSION

This study highlights the making of an appropriate instructional material at par with K to 12 standards utilizing local literature. Since the new curriculum is still newly implemented as of this writing, educators are quite in a quandary to find learning materials that are localized and or indigenized as dictated by the MTB-MLE program. The findings of this study demonstrate that it is indeed potentially probable to realize such goal as likewise carefully and sequentially explicated in the research.

The top ten preferred literary pieces chosen by the teacher-respondents themselves prove that there are indeed local materials, specifically Cordilleran, that are readily available to sustain the MTB-MLE inspired educational system. The choices of the respondents can only be explained by looking at the factors that affected such choices. It was found out that stories that reflect morals and values, the ones that motivate the learners, and stories whose content is in line with the subject matter topped the factors affecting the respondents’ choices. Looking closely at these factors, it can be seen that the socio-cultural aspects of teaching and learning are manifested in them and the likelihood of the material to be used in a learner-centered activity or environment is always feasible. These ideas are clearly espoused by the Social

development theory by Vygotsky. (Driscoll, 1994). The other factors reflect the idea of Content-Based Instruction. (Bilash, 2009). The factors were chosen from the list proposed by Eowyn Brown (2004) in her "Using Children's Literature with Young Learners" which was published in *The Internet TESL Journal*. Also considered was the Definition of a Literary Merit by Deborah Shepard in her article "Engaging Students with Literature – Curriculum Module for AP English Literature and Composition" published in *The College Board* in 2010. Based on the result, all the listed factors are worthy of consideration.

Moving on to the next phase of the research, before administering the summative test, an inter-rater validity test was conducted and the findings demonstrate the suitability of the items to the level of the test-takers. A number of teachers held that the test was easy for advanced pupils (pupils who can read) but it was difficult for the non-readers. In administering the summative test, a brief review on nouns was given and afterwards, the test was read to the learners for the benefit of those who are still hard up in reading English. This part of the research was also a concrete manifestation of the Comprehension-Based Approach. English classes in grade one are all dictations done by the teacher since most cannot read and speak in English yet. Listening comprehension then is the first skill that is enhanced before the other skills are introduced to the pupils. Looking at the result of the test, generally speaking, the pupils didn't manifest any difficulty in the first competency. In Table 2.1, 69% of the pupils found it easy to name a proper noun and only 16% displayed a weakness. Table 2.2, however, shows that only 39.9% found identifying proper nouns easy and 37.5% found it either difficult or very difficult. The gap is quite close. Table 2.3 is almost at par with Table 2.1 showing 62 % of the pupils could write names of proper nouns and only 26% were hard up in doing it. Nevertheless, this competency was still pegged at satisfactory since the overall mean offered a different interpretation. Basing on the results and the overall mean of each competency, it is safe to note that the curriculum is properly working but it still suggests possible improvement on the instructional level.

Illustrated on the last part of the result portion is the crafted lesson plan. The original lesson guide followed by the teachers is thematic and lessons are made on a weekly mode. The lesson plan was crafted in line with the theme and objective of the plan for week 5. Moreover, since it would be used in attaining the objectives of the lesson guide, the storytelling activity manifested the entire objective. As for the presentation, it underpinned the theory of visual learning. While the teacher was telling the story, illustrations depicting events from the story would be shown. Not only that, the purpose of the drawing was to show concrete examples of the lesson's objectives.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Basing on the literature and data survey presented, developing instructional materials at par with K to 12 and MTB-MLE standards undergoes a careful process of selection of materials and matching of such with identified learning outcomes and indicators. To be within standards, these materials have to be thematically in line with the thrusts of the current curriculum. The ten most preferred stories all manifest morals and values evident of human frailty and kindness. It can be gleaned from this a basic character of man that learners relate with which makes them retain information quickly and meaningfully. Factors such as motivation, in line with subject matter, substance, aiding social awareness, imagery, and cultural significance were also considered as significant in choosing these stories. The result of the summative test provides an impression that the K to 12 curriculum is working as indicated by the scores of the pupils. There are a greater percentage of pupils who find the competencies easy to tackle. However, since the percentage of pupils who still need improvement is still at an alarming level, it is important to develop a material that will address the specific needs of these pupils. As presented by the sample task, the integration of a local literature (Cordilleran) in the prototype plan or lesson guide issued to teachers is seen as a welcome innovation that will benefit the learners, especially in the Cordilleras, to make them rooted to their cultural heritage thus attaining the primary objective of the curriculum currently in place.

Basing on the above conclusions, in choosing a literary piece, an educator has to consider factors that manifest and are appropriate to the thrusts of the current curriculum to attain optimal learning. Lessons should also be presented more visually, meaning, teachers should have more effective visual aids. As visual learning theory states, pupils of today's generation tend to learn more if they visualize what they are learning. The use of visuals in education, although consistently shown to aid in learning, must be carefully planned, though, as the use of visuals that steer the learner to the exciting or entertaining aspects of presentation rather than encouraging thoughtful analysis of the underlying meaning may interfere with the intent of the lesson (Sherry, 1996). Pupils retain more information if their imagination is better stimulated. This theory also suggests that visual learning can help pupils learn to become more critical in studying and imbibing the lessons being discussed. This recommendation is supported by the presented sample lesson plan. Even if the lesson plan follows the prototype plan for English issued by the DepEd to Grade 1 teachers, this can be improved by integrating local literary pieces (in this study, Cordilleran, for that matter) and by including enhanced visual activities that can help in the discussion of the piece to improve identified weaknesses under specific competencies.

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Effect of Pragmatic Awareness on Comprehension and Production of Conventional Expressions

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Abstract—Mastery of target language conventional expressions seems to require awareness of the differences between native language and target language pragmatic features. To test the effect of awareness of target language pragmatic features on comprehension and production of target language conventional expressions, the current study was conducted over 60 learners of English in an intensive English program in Universiti Sains Malaysia. Pragmatic awareness, comprehension, and production were respectively assessed through a contextualized pragmatic judgment task, a multiple choice pragmatic listening comprehension test, and an oral discourse completion task. The results of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient revealed that awareness of target language pragmatic features is a predictor of appropriate comprehension and production of target language conventional expressions. The pedagogical implications of the findings suggested the development of awareness of target language pragmatic features in English as Foreign Language learners.

Index Terms—conventional expressions, noticing hypothesis, pragmatic awareness

I. INTRODUCTION

Conventional expressions, described as “tacit agreements, which the members of a community presume to be shared by every reasonable co-member” (Coulmas, 1981, p. 4), “consist of strings such as *no problem*, *nice to meet you*, and *that’d be great*, which native speakers use predictable in certain contexts” (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009, p. 756). Knowledge of target language conventional expressions for language learners is of crucial importance not only because they contribute to nativelike speech fluency (Pawley & Syder, 1983) but also because speakers from the same speech community share knowledge and use of the same inventory of conventional expressions (Wray, 2002), put it simply, “in embodying societal knowledge they are essential in handling of day-to-day situations” (Coulmas, 1981, p. 4).

Mastery of conventionalized expressions of the language to be learned seems to require language learners’ awareness of the differences between the sociolinguistic and sociocultural features in their native language and the target language. Generally, awareness of target language sociolinguistic and sociocultural features (pragmatic awareness), defined as “conscious, reflective, explicit knowledge about pragmatics”, that is, “knowledge of those rules and conventions underlying appropriate language use in particular communication situations and on the part of members of specific speech community” (Alcon Soler & Safont Jorda, 2008, p. 193), plays a crucial role in foreign language acquisition (Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 2001; Leow, 1997, 2000; Takahashi, 2001, 2005). In fact, according to the noticing hypothesis, conscious noticing or awareness is a necessary and sufficient condition for input to be converted into intake for learning to take place (Schmidt, 1993).

Given the significance of familiarity with the expressions which have been conventionalized in the target language for effective cross-cultural communication and avoiding communication failure between native speakers and nonnative speakers on one hand and the role of awareness of target language sociolinguistic and sociocultural features (pragmatic awareness) in facilitating learning conventionalized expressions of the target language on the other hand, the current study seeks to investigate the relationship between level of awareness of target language pragmatic features and the ability to appropriately comprehend and produce target language conventional expressions. More specifically, the research questions to be asked in the current study are:

1. Does awareness of target language pragmatic features lead to appropriate comprehension of target language conventional expressions?
2. Does awareness of target language pragmatic features lead to appropriate production of target language conventional expressions?

Accordingly the null hypotheses are:

1. There is no significant relationship between awareness of target language pragmatic features and appropriate comprehension of target language conventional expressions.
2. There is no significant relationship between awareness of target language pragmatic features and appropriate production of target language conventional expressions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Pragmatic Awareness*

A review of literature in the field of interlanguage pragmatics shows that the studies conducted on the awareness aspect of pragmatics have predominantly explored the influence of a variety of individual difference variables including motivation (e.g. Takahashi, 2005), language proficiency (e.g. Matsumura, 2003; Takahashi, 2005), learning environment (e.g. Matsumura, 2001; Schauer, 2006), target language exposure (e.g. Matsumura, 2003), length of residence in target language country (e.g. Bella, 2012), and emotional intelligence (e.g. Rafieyan et al., 2014b) on the development of pragmatic awareness.

Matsumura (2003) conducted a study to examine the effect of target language proficiency and exposure to target language on the development of language learners' pragmatic awareness. Participants in the study consisted of 187 Japanese learners of English on an eight-month academic exchange program at a university in Canada. Pragmatic awareness was measured using a multiple choice questionnaire focusing on offering advice. English proficiency was also measured using language learners' TOEFL marks. Amount of exposure to English was obtained through a self-report questionnaire. The findings revealed that amount of target language exposure has potential to account for the development of pragmatic awareness (as cited in Rafieyan et al., 2014a).

Schauer (2006) was the other researcher who explored the effect of learning environment on the development of pragmatic awareness in language learners. Two participant groups consisting of 16 German learners of English enrolled in a university in England and 17 German learners of English in a higher education institution in Germany participated in the study. Data for the study were elicited using the combined video-and-questionnaire instrument developed by Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998). The study revealed that learning environment plays a substantial role in priming language learners' pragmatic awareness (as cited in Rafieyan et al., 2014a).

Most recently, Bella (2012) investigated the effect of length of residence in the target community on the development of pragmatic awareness in language learners. Two groups of participants with differing lengths of residence in Greece, one group with 1.6 years mean length of residence and the other group with 3 years mean length of residence, participated in the study. The instrument for data collection was the contextualized pragmatic and grammatical judgment test developed by Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998). The findings of the study revealed that increase in length of residence does not result in increase in pragmatic awareness (as cited in Rafieyan et al., 2014a).

B. *Comprehension of Conventional Expressions*

Studies on comprehension of conventional expressions have been both cross-sectional and developmental. These studies, conducted predominantly by Taguchi, have either compared language learners' ability to comprehend conventional and nonconventional expressions (e.g. Taguchi, 2007) or explored the role of individual difference variables such as language proficiency and study-abroad experience on the development of ability to comprehend target language conventional and nonconventional expressions (e.g. Taguchi, 2008; Taguchi, 2011).

In one study, Taguchi (2007) investigated whether language learners' accurate and speedy comprehension of implied meaning improve over time. Ninety-two Japanese learners of English enrolled in an intensive English program in a university in Japan participated in the study. The ability to comprehend implied meaning was assessed by a computerized listening task consisting of conventional and nonconventional expressions. Findings suggested that although the development of accuracy and comprehension speed was observed in both types of expressions, language learners' comprehension was more accurate and faster for conventional expressions than nonconventional expressions.

In another study, Taguchi (2008) explored whether there are gains in accurate and speedy comprehension of implied meaning of target language expressions over time. Participants in the study were 44 Japanese learners of English at a college in the United States. Participants' ability to comprehend implied meaning was assessed by a computerized listening task comprising conventional and nonconventional expressions. The findings revealed that significant gains in accuracy scores were found only for conventional expressions. There were almost no gains in accurate comprehension of nonconventional expressions. Conventional expressions were also faster for language learners to process than nonconventional expressions.

Taguchi (2011) also investigated the effect of target language proficiency and study-abroad experience on pragmatic comprehension. Participants were three groups of Japanese learners of English at a college in Japan with different proficiency levels and study-abroad experiences. A computerized pragmatic listening test was used to examine language learners' ability to comprehend conventional and nonconventional expressions. The findings revealed that study-abroad experience affected comprehension of conventional expressions but not nonconventional expressions. As for comprehension speed, proficiency, not study-abroad experience, was the decisive factor and the pattern was the same for both types of expressions.

C. *Production of Conventional Expressions*

Studies on production of conventional expressions have been also both cross-sectional and developmental. These studies, conducted predominantly by Bardovi-Harlig, have either explored the effect of pragmatic instruction on the ability to produce target language conventional expressions (e.g. Bardovi-Harlig & Vellenga, 2012) or the influence of individual difference variables such as pragmatic awareness on the ability to produce target language conventional expressions (e.g. Bardovi-Harlig, 2009; Bardovi-Harlig, 2014).

In one study, Bardovi-Harlig (2009) explored the source of low production of conventional expressions by language learners. Participants consisted of 122 learners of English enrolled in the intensive English program of a university in the American Midwest. The instruments consisted of an audio recognition task, an audio-visual production task, and a background questionnaire. The results suggested that low production of conventional expressions by language learners has multiple sources including lack of familiarity with some expressions, overuse of familiar expressions, level of development, and sociopragmatic knowledge.

Bardovi-Harlig and Vellenga (2012) also investigated the effects of instruction on the oral production of conventional expressions. Participants consisted of 36 language learners in the intensive English program of a university in the American Midwest. An aural recognition task and an oral production task were used as pre-test and post-test. Intervention consisted of three sessions centered around contextualized input and guided metapragmatic noticing. The findings suggested that instruction promoted the use of some conventional expressions.

Most recently, Bardovi-Harlig (2014) investigated language learners' awareness of the meaning of target language conventional expressions and the effect of the associated meanings on the use of conventional expressions in social interactions. One hundred and fourteen language learners enrolled in the intensive English program of a university in the American Midwest participated in the study. To explore the meaning that language learners assigned to conventional expressions, the modified aural Vocabulary Knowledge Scale was used. The data suggested that language learners' awareness of the meaning of conventional expressions seems likely to play a role in whether language learners use an expression and which expression among related expressions they use to the exclusion of others.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

Participants in the study consisted of 60 learners of English in an intensive English program in Universiti Sains Malaysia. Their ages ranged from 22 to 42 with a mean age of 28.2. Among the participants, 26 were males and 34 were females. All of the participants were at the intermediate level. Therefore, they were considered to be at the same level of English proficiency. They came from various countries including Iran, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Korea, Japan, China, Finland, France, Germany, Thailand, Myanmar, and Indonesia.

B. *Instrument*

Three instruments were used as means of data collection for the current study: a pragmatic awareness test, a pragmatic comprehension test, and a pragmatic production test.

To assess language learners' pragmatic awareness, 8 grammatical but pragmatically inappropriate scenarios eliciting four speech acts of requests, apologies, suggestions, and refusals were adopted from the contextualized pragmatic judgment task developed by Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998). Each scenario was introduced by a short narration that set the scene. The sentence to be judged was the last sentence in the scenario which was indicated by an exclamation mark. Language learners were first asked to judge whether the targeted utterance was appropriate by marking the box labeled "yes" or "no". Then they were asked to rate the gravity of the problem on a six-part scale from "not bad at all" to "very bad" by placing an "X" along the scale.

To assess language learners' ability to comprehend conventional expressions, a pragmatic listening comprehension test measuring comprehension of indirect refusals including refusals of requests, invitations, suggestions, and offers developed by Taguchi (2007, 2008) was adopted. The test consisted of 24 items. Each item contained a short dialogue spoken by a male and a female native English speaker followed by a multiple choice question with four options. The reply that appeared at the end did not provide a straightforward answer to the speaker's question. The participants had to listen to each dialogue and decide which option expressed the speakers' intention.

To assess language learners' ability to produce conventional expressions, an oral discourse completion task eliciting a variety of speech acts including expressions of gratitude, apologies, warnings, leave-takings, requests, condolences, declining offers, acceptance of a request, acceptance of an invitation, invitation, declining an invitation, an agreement, deflecting thanks, and an introduction developed by Bardovi-Harlig (2009) was adopted. The discourse completion task consisted of 32 scenarios comprising both initiating and responding scenarios. The initiating scenarios (n=13) required respondents to initiate an interaction and the responding scenarios (n=19) required respondents to respond to an interlocutor's turn.

C. *Procedure*

During the second semester of the academic year 2013/2014, the three tests assessing pragmatic awareness, pragmatic comprehension, and pragmatic production ability were respectively administered to the language learners participating in the current study. Language learners were instructed on how to answer each test upon administration. They were not informed about the purpose of the tests, however. Following the completion of the tests, test slips were collected for data analysis.

E. Data Analysis

To measure language learners' level of pragmatic awareness, all "yes" responses to the question: "Is the target sentence appropriate?" were converted to 0 on the scale, thus obtaining error salience scales ranging from 0 to 6; as a result all participants had score on all of the items. To measure language learners' ability to comprehend conventional expressions, each correct answer on the test was assigned 1 mark while no mark was allocated to wrong answers. As there were 24 experimental items on the pragmatic comprehension test, each student could get a mark of between 0 and 24. To measure language learners' ability to produce conventional expressions, all responses were transcribed and checked by the researchers. The appropriateness of the responses was then assessed by two native speakers of English using a four-point rating scale ranging from zero (cannot evaluate) to three (almost perfect). Interrater reliability was $r = 0.92$. Table I displays the rating descriptions. As there were 32 scenarios, each participant could get a mark ranging from 0 to 96.

TABLE 1.
RATING BAND DESCRIPTIONS

3	Native-like	The utterance is almost perfectly appropriate. This is what a native speaker would usually say in the situation
2	Slightly off, but acceptable	The utterance is a little off from native-like due to minor grammatical and lexical errors but overall acceptable
1	Obviously off	The utterance is clearly non-native like because of strange, non-typical way of saying and/or major grammatical and lexical errors
0	Can't evaluate	The utterance is impossible to understand

Adopted from Taguchi (2013)

To measure the relationship between pragmatic awareness and pragmatic comprehension as well as the relationship between pragmatic awareness and pragmatic production, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used. Pearson correlation produces a value between -1 and +1. A value of +1 indicates a perfect positive relationship, a value of -1 indicates a perfect negative relationship, and a value of 0 indicates no relationship between the variables being assessed. According to Cohen (1988), values between 0.10 and 0.29 indicate a small correlation, values between 0.30 and 0.49 indicate a medium correlation, and values between 0.50 and 1.00 indicate a large correlation. The coefficient of determination was then computed to measure the proportion of variability in the level of pragmatic comprehension and production that can be determined from the relationship with the level of pragmatic awareness.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Findings

Table II presents the result of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for language learners' pragmatic awareness and pragmatic comprehension. According to this table, a Pearson correlation (r) of 0.80 was obtained which, according to the guidelines set by Cohen (1988), indicates a large positive relationship between language learners' level of pragmatic awareness and their level of pragmatic comprehension. In other words, as pragmatic awareness increases, pragmatic comprehension increases accordingly, that is, language learners who are more pragmatically aware can comprehend more conventional expressions appropriately.

TABLE 2.
PRAGMATIC AWARENESS AND PRAGMATIC COMPREHENSION

		Pragmatic Awareness	Pragmatic Comprehension
Pragmatic Awareness	Pearson Correlation	1	0.804
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	60	60
Pragmatic Comprehension	Pearson Correlation	0.804	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	60	60

To measure the proportion of variability in the level of pragmatic comprehension that can be determined from the relationship with the level of pragmatic awareness, the coefficient of determination was computed. The coefficient of determination, obtained through computing the squared correlation (r^2), is $r^2 = (0.80)^2 = 0.64$ which, when converted into percentage, shows that 64 percent of variability in pragmatic comprehension (i.e. comprehension of conventional expressions) can be determined from the relationship with pragmatic awareness.

Table III presents the result of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for language learners' pragmatic awareness and pragmatic production. According to this table, a Pearson correlation (r) of 0.75 was obtained which, according to the guidelines set by Cohen (1988), indicates a large positive relationship between language learners' level

of pragmatic awareness and their level of pragmatic production. In other words, as pragmatic awareness increases, pragmatic production increases accordingly, that is, language learners who are more pragmatically aware can produce more conventional expressions appropriately.

TABLE 3.
PRAGMATIC AWARENESS AND PRAGMATIC PRODUCTION

		Pragmatic Awareness	Pragmatic Production
Pragmatic Awareness	Pearson Correlation	1	0.754
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	60	60
Pragmatic Production	Pearson Correlation	0.754	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	60	60

To measure the proportion of variability in the level of pragmatic production that can be determined from the relationship with the level of pragmatic awareness, the coefficient of determination was computed. The coefficient of determination, obtained through computing the squared correlation (r^2), is $r^2 = (0.75)^2 = 0.56$ which, when converted into percentage, shows that 56 percent of variability in pragmatic production (i.e. production of conventional expressions) can be determined from the relationship with pragmatic awareness.

B. Discussion

The present study investigated the effect of awareness of target language pragmatic features on the appropriate comprehension and production of target language conventional expressions. The study found that there is a significant positive relationship between pragmatic awareness and both comprehension and production of conventional expressions. That is, a higher level of awareness of target language pragmatic features leads to a higher ability to appropriately comprehend and produce target language conventional expressions.

These findings can be explained through the noticing hypothesis proposed by Schmidt (1990, 2001) which states that “people learn about the things that they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to” (Schmidt, 2001, p. 30). Language learners who were aware of sociolinguistic and sociocultural (pragmatic) differences between their native language and the target language certainly paid more attention to the appropriate use of expressions which have been conventionalized in the target language. Consequently, knowledge of target language conventional expressions which they had gained enhanced their performance on the pragmatic comprehension and production tests. On the contrary, language learners who were not aware of sociolinguistic and sociocultural (pragmatic) differences between their native language and target language seemingly relied on the expressions conventionalized in their native language. Consequently, they had a poor performance on the pragmatic comprehension and production tests.

These findings reject the first null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between pragmatic awareness and comprehension of target language conventional expressions. These finding also reject the second null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between pragmatic awareness and production of target language conventional expressions.

The findings obtained through this study are consistent with the findings obtained through the study conducted by Taguchi (2011) who found that study-abroad experience affected comprehension of conventional expressions. The findings obtained through this study are also consistent with the findings obtained through the study conducted by Bardovi-Harlig (2014) who found that language learners’ awareness of the meaning of conventional expressions seems likely to play a role in whether language learners use an expression and which expression among related expressions they use to the exclusion of others.

V. CONCLUSION

The study found that awareness of target language pragmatic features leads to the more appropriate comprehension and production of target language conventional expressions. Language learners who were more aware of target language pragmatic features had a higher ability to appropriately comprehend and produce target language conventional expressions than language learners who were less aware of target language pragmatic features. Therefore, English language teachers in English as Foreign Language contexts are advised to develop awareness of target language pragmatic features in language learners (Rafieyan et al., 2014a, Rafieyan et al., 2014b).

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The Phasehood Analysis of Chinese Nominal Phrases and NP Ellipsis

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Abstract—Bošković, in his paper *Now I'm a phase, now I'm not a phase: On the variability of phases with extraction and ellipsis*, puts forward two hypotheses about phasehood and ellipsis from a contextual perspective: a. Only phases and complements of phase heads can undergo ellipsis. b. The highest projection in a TNP (Traditional Noun Phrase) is a phase. This paper tentatively tests whether these two hypotheses can be used in the analysis of structures and ellipsis of Chinese NPs. After analysis, the paper discovers that Bošković's hypotheses can explain the structure and ellipsis of Chinese simple NPs but they cannot account for Chinese complex NPs well. Based on this, the paper modifies Bošković's hypotheses slightly: a. Only phases and complements of phase heads can undergo ellipsis. b. Each functional projection over a NP in Chinese is a phase.

Index Terms—phasehood, ellipsis, Chinese simple NPs, Chinese complex NPs, NP structure

I. INTRODUCTION

Different from Chomsky's rigid approach to phasehood, Bošković (2014) argues for a particular contextual approach to phasehood where the highest projection in the extended projection of a major (i.e. lexical) category functions as a phase. His argument involves two domains: extraction and ellipsis. Based on these two domains, Bošković puts forward two hypotheses: a. Only phases and complements of phase heads can undergo ellipsis. b. The highest projection in a TNP (Traditional Noun Phrase) is a phase. These two hypotheses can be expressed as two approaches respectively: highest-phrase-as-a-phase approach and ellipsis-constrained-by-phase approach.

In this paper, the syntactic structure of Chinese NPs and ellipsis within Chinese NPs are approached from two broad categories: simple NPs and complex NPs. The purpose of doing this is to tentatively test whether Bošković's two hypotheses about phasehood and ellipsis can be used in the analysis of the structure of Chinese NPs with respect to ellipsis within NPs. Bošković's hypotheses are studied from two broad categories of Chinese NPs: Chinese simple NPs and Chinese complex NPs. Section 2 discusses the analysis of Chinese simple NPs. Chinese complex NPs are investigated in section 3. Finally in section 4, a brief conclusion about the application of Bošković's hypotheses in Chinese NPs is given.

II. CHINESE SIMPLE NPs AND THEIR ELLIPSIS

Bošković (2008, 2012) argues based on a number of syntactic and semantic crosslinguistic generalizations that languages without articles, like Chinese, lack DP. Chierchia (1998) makes the same claim for languages like Chinese based on very different considerations regarding the semantics of TNPs. In this paper, I will adopt Bošković and Chierchia's NP approach to article-less languages and explore the syntax structure and ellipsis of Chinese NPs in terms of Bošković's phasehood theory and ellipsis theory.

Considering the modifiers in front of nouns, Chinese simple NPs can be divided into four basic kinds: Numeral + Classifier + NP, Demonstrative + Classifier + NP, Possessor + *De* + NP and Adjective + *De* + NP. In this paper, these different kinds of NPs are discussed from the perspective of their syntactical structure and their ellipsis.

A. Chinese Simple NPs: Numeral + Classifier + NP

In Chinese, nouns can be modified by numerals to express singular or plural quantity. Different from numerals in English NPs, numerals in Chinese NPs have to be followed by classifiers which are determined by the semantic property of the nouns after them. 'In Chinese whenever there is a numeral, there has to be an overt classifier' (Y. R. Chao, 1968). For example:

- (1) a. yi ben shu
 one CL book (CL is the shorten form for classifier)
 b. wu ben shu
 five CL books

How can we analyze these Chinese numeral NPs? Do they share the same structure as English numeral NPs about which Ionin and Matushansky (2004a, b) argue that numerals act as nominal modifiers, taking NP complements? I assume that the structure of Chinese numeral NPs must be different from that of English numeral NPs since Chinese

numeral NPs have overt classifiers within them. So if we want to analyze the structure of Chinese NPs with numerals, the first thing we have to consider is the status of the overt classifiers.

About the function and syntactical position of classifiers in Chinese numeral and demonstrative NPs, many linguists have discussed and most tend to regard them as a functional head of a classifier projection.

Cheng and Sybesma (1999) suggest that the classifier in Chinese takes up the functions of D in article languages, including:

(a) The classifier has an individualising and singularising function. It links the description of the NP to a particular entity => the deictic function.

(b) Classifiers are like Ds in the sense that they type-shift predicates into arguments =>the 'subordinator' function (Szabolcsi 1994).

(c) The classifier head realises the iota operator (which is the equivalent of the definite article) (Partee 1987) => encoding of definiteness.

Based on this, Cheng and Sybesma (1999) claim that Chinese CLP (Classifier Phrase/Projection) may be equivalent to the DP and thus dominant the NP. They think that the classifier is an appropriate candidate to be a functional head to project a structure. Many other linguists also hold this opinion, such as, Tang (1990) argues that CLP is a superstructure of a Chinese NP. After settling down the structural role taken by the classifier, we will come to the syntactical position taken by the numeral prior to the classifier. In their analysis about Turkish NPs, Bošković and Sener notice that ellipsis inside bare objects with numerals is disallowed:

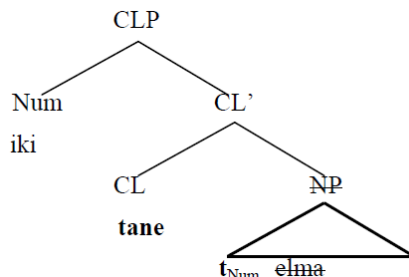
- (2) *Pelin her gün [beş elma] ye-r, Can-sa [iki elma] ye-r.
 P.-nom every day five apple eat-pres J.-nom-however two eat-aor
 Pelin eats five apples every day, while John eats two apples.

However in Turkish, NP/N' ellipsis is possible if Num (shorten form for Numeral) is accompanied by CL, in contrast to (2), where there is no CL and ellipsis is disallowed.

- (3) Pelin her gün [üçtane elma] ye-r, Can-sa [iki tane elma] ye-r.
 P.-nom every day three CL apple eat-aor J.-nom-however two CL eat-aor.
 Pelin eats three apples every day, whereas John eats two apples.

Bošković and Sener assume that Turkish numerals that are accompanied by a CL project larger structure than those without a CL provides us. Consider (4)

(4)

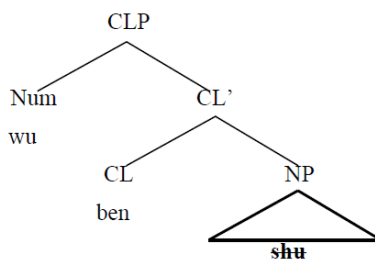


Bošković and Sener suggest that numerals are base-generated and Num moves to SpecCLP in the presence of overt classifiers.

Following Bošković and Sener's analysis of Turkish numerals accompanied by overt classifiers, we can assume that Chinese numeral NPs which require overt classifiers have the same structure with structure (4). That is: Num occupies the position of SpecCLP in Chinese numeral NPs. However because Turkish numerals can be followed by both covert classifiers and overt classifiers, Bošković and Sener suggest that numerals are base-generated and Num moves to SpecCLP in the presence of overt classifiers. But in Chinese, numerals have to be followed by overt classifiers. So no movement of numerals is required and numerals merge directly into SpecCLP.

Actually in his discussion of the necessity of an overt classifier in the Chinese numeral NPs, Au-Yeung (2001) mentions that there is a need to fill in the empty CL with a classifier item in Chinese. It is structurally ungrammatical when the SpecCLP is filled with a numeral and the head CL is left empty. This argument not only supposes that the classifier can project a phrase but also supposes that the numeral occupies the position of SpecCLP. The structure of example (1 b) can be analyzed in the following way:

(5)



In the introduction part, I have mentioned that a number of authors have argued that Chinese lacks DP and TNPs are typically NPs in Chinese. About the phasehood of NPs, (Bošković, 2014) argues that ‘It turns out that the phasehood status of NP depends on whether or not another phrase dominates it...’. Considering the structure of Chinese numeral NPs, such as (5), NPs are dominated by another structure projected by overt classifiers. In terms of Bošković’s highest-phrase-as-a-phase approach, NPs are not phases instead CLPs are phases because NPs are dominated by phrase CLPs.

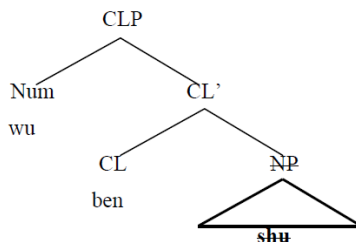
Similar to Turkish numeral NPs with overt classifiers, Chinese numeral NPs in which numerals must be followed by overt classifiers can also allow ellipsis (Saito, Lin & Murasugi, 2008). After the ellipsis, the numeral and the classifier are stranded.

Look at an example:

- (6) Suiran Zhangsan mai-le san ben shu, dan Lisi ma-le [wu ben ~~shu~~].
 though Zhangsan buy-Perf three CL book, but Lisi buy-Perf five CL book
 Zhangsan bought three books, but Lisi bought five. (Masao Ochi, 2012)

The structure of the numeral NP in the example (6) is the same as the structure (5), we can show here again with the ellipsis showing in structure (7).

(7)

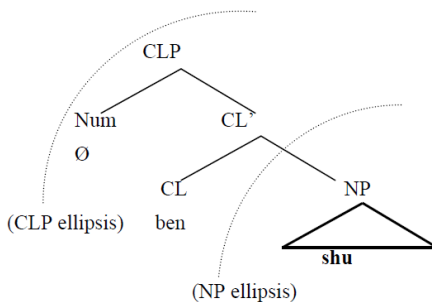


Bošković (2014) hypothesizes that ‘regarding ellipsis, it is argued that ellipsis is phase-constrained: only phases and complements of phasal heads can in principle undergo ellipsis.’ And recall that CLP is a phase in structure (7). So only two phrases can possibly undergo ellipsis in this structure: CLP which is a phase and NP which is the complement of the phase CLP. From the perspective of Bošković’s ellipsis-constrained-by-phase approach, the ellipsis of NP ‘shu’ involves the ellipsis of the complement of the head CL ‘ben’.

In Chinese numeral NPs, there is another interesting phenomenon needs our attention: Though numerals must be accompanied by overt classifiers, classifiers can be preceded by a covert or null numeral. When the numeral in front of the classifier is null, it can express a singular concept. Under this circumstance, both the NP and the CLP can undergo ellipsis. Consider example (8) and structure (9).

- (8) a. Zhangsan mai-le ben shu, Lisi ye mai-le [ben ~~shu~~].
 Zhangsan buy-Perf CL book, Lisi too buy-Perf CL book
 Zhangsan bought one book , Lisi bought one book too.

(9)



Similarly, CLP functions as a phase in structure (9). Sentence (8a) is the ellipsis of the NP ‘shu’ is the ellipsis of the complement of the phasal head. Sentence (8b) is the ellipsis of the phase itself.

A short summary of this section: In Chinese numeral NPs, the overt classifier functions as the head of the CLP and chooses NP as its complement. The numeral is in the position of SpecCLP. According to Bošković’s hypotheses about phasehood, CLP is a phase in Chinese numeral NPs. And Bošković argues that ellipsis in phase-governed: only phase itself and complement of phase head can undergo ellipsis. So in Chinese numeral NPs, both NP and CLP have the possibility of being elided. In this sense, we can say that Bošković’s hypotheses about phasehood and ellipsis can account for the analysis of Chinese NPs: Numeral + Classifier + NP.

B. Chinese Simple NPs: Demonstrative + Classifier + NP

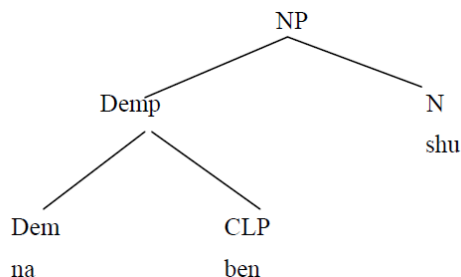
There is another kind of Chinese NPs which include overt classifiers. In this kind of NPs, demonstratives appear in front of classifiers. Here the demonstrative only limitedly refers to demonstrative pronouns ‘zhe’ (this) ‘na’ (that). Since overt classifiers appear both in Chinese numeral NPs (i.e. numeral + classifier + NP) and Chinese demonstrative NPs (i.e. demonstrative + classifier + NP), next we will try to analyze whether these two structures share similar structure.

In literature, opinions about the analysis of the structure of ‘Demonstrative + Classifier + NP’ vary dramatically. Given a simple example:

- (10) a. Wo xihua zhe ben shu, ta xihua [na ben shu.]
 b. Wo xihua zhe ben shu, ta xihua [na ben ~~shu~~.]
 I like this CL book, he like that CL book.
 I like this book, but he likes that book.

Gao (1994) assumes the demonstratives and the CLP together constitute the DemP and the DemP functions as the specifier of the head noun. (10a) can be analyzed as (11) b:

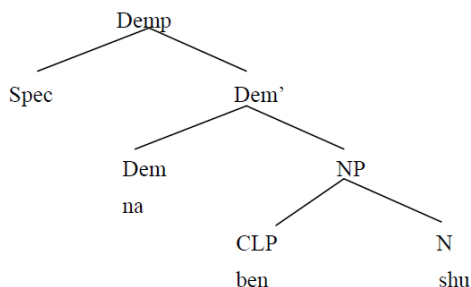
(11)



In Bošković’s highest-phrase-as-a-phase approach, in structure (11) NP is the phase and N is its head. And in terms of Bošković’s ellipsis theory, N ‘shu’ which functions as a phase head in this structure cannot be elided. However actually the noun ‘shu’ can be deleted and the grammaticality of the ellipsis of the noun ‘shu’ in (10b) helps us to discard Gao’s analysis.

Xue and McFetridge (1998) assume that Dem is the head of DemP and selects NP as its complement. And this NP consists of CLP and a noun.

(12)



Whether this analysis is reasonable can be accounted from two aspects.

Firstly, we can illustrate it with Bošković’s ellipsis hypothesis, which ‘privileges only two domains for ellipsis: the phase itself and the complement of a phase head. There is, e.g., no natural way of privileging the complement of a complement of a phase head.’ In Xue and McFetridge’s analysis, DemP is the highest phrase and so it is the phase. In this phase, Dem ‘na’ is the head and the NP is the complement of this head. The N ‘shu’ is the complement of the complement of the phase head. So in this analysis the N ‘shu’ cannot undergo ellipsis. This is contrary to the grammaticality of sentence (10b).

Secondly, Fukui (1995) argues that only functional categories project up to a certain XP level. This XP level closes the structure in such a manner that nothing that is interpretatively within the XP level can show up outside the

c-commanding domain of X, unless X has Case to assign to its specifier position. Under this assumption, he finds that Demonstratives in English are like functional heads in the sense that they close the nominal domain properly. No element can appear to the left of the demonstrative:

(13) a. this book

b. * John's this book

(14) a. that lecture

b. *yesterday's that lecture

While in Chinese, more than one modifier can appear to the left of the demonstrative. Consider the following Chinese examples:

(15) Wo de na ben shu

I K that CL book (K is used to refer to that 'de' is a functional particle)
that book of mine

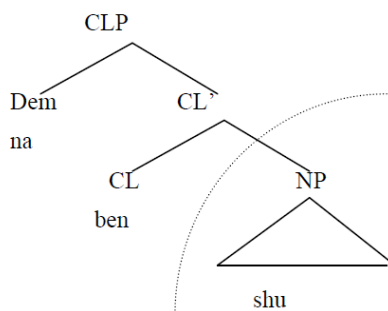
(16) Wo de hongse de na ben shu

I K red K that CL book
that red book of mine

Since the Chinese demonstrative does not close off the projection, this lends support to the claim that the demonstrative in Chinese cannot be a functional head which can project a structure.

From these two aspects, we can say that Xue and McFetridge's analysis is also not appropriate. Since both Gao's and Xue and McFetridge's analysis cannot ensure the production of the correct sentence, we have to choose an alternative analysis. We can follow Bošković and Sener's analysis of Turkish numeral NPs with overt classifiers, and analyze the structure of 'Demonstrative + Classifier + N' as a CLP with a CL head and the demonstrative occupy the position of SpecCLP.

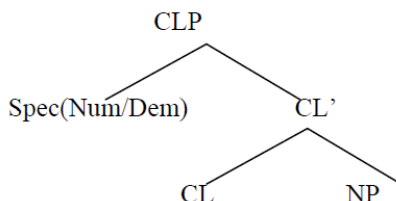
(17)



In this context, CLP is the phase (CLP is the highest phase in the TNP), hence NP, its complement, can be elided.

From the above analysis, we find that Chinese NP structures with a classifier (Numeral + Classifier + N/Demonstrative + Classifier + N) have a similar feature: There is a higher structure CLP (which is a phase) over the NP. This higher structure has a functional head – a classifier and this head chooses NP as its complement. Other modifying elements such as numerals or demonstratives occupy the position of SpecCLP. Thus we get the following unified structure about Chinese NPs with classifiers:

(18)



In addition, CLP is the highest phase in this unified structure and the NP ellipsis involves the ellipsis of a phasal complement or a phase itself. Under this situation, Bošković's two hypotheses about phases and ellipsis have the force of explanation for Chinese numeral and demonstrative NPs.

C. Chinese NPs: Possessor + De + NP

When considering Chinese NPs with possessors, Partee (2005) notes that while the English sentence (19) has the presupposition 'Zhangsan has exactly three sweaters,' the Chinese sentence (20) doesn't have that exhaustive presupposition:

(19) Zhangsan's three sweaters (Zhangsan has exactly three sweaters)

(20) Zhangsan de [san jian maoyi]

Zhangsan K three CL sweater

Zhangsan's three sweaters (Zhangsan has exactly three sweaters or Zhangsan has more than three sweaters)

Bošković (2012) shows that the exhaustive presupposition is not present in NP languages in this context. This directly shows that Chinese language is a NP language.

Another special feature about Chinese possessive NPs is that there is a marker element which is an attributive particle *de* following the possessor (No matter the possessor is a noun or a pronoun) in Chinese possessive NPs. Particles are functional parts of speech that can't stand alone by themselves. Chinese makes liberal use of these particles, as it lacks inflection and verbal expressive tones like the Western non-tonal languages. The particle we met up with most frequently thus far is *de*.

If we are to analyze the structure of Chinese possessive NPs, we should decide the status of possessors and particle '*de*' respectively.

First let's consider the status of possessors. As noted by Jackendoff (1971), NP ellipsis is possible in English possessive NPs. After the ellipsis, the possessor will be stranded.

(21) I have read Bill's book, but I haven't read [John's ~~book~~].

In his analysis, Jackendoff (1971) assumes that the possessor occupies the position of SpecDP. According to Bošković's phase theory and ellipsis theory, DP is the highest phrase and so it is the phase in this structure and the ellipsis of the NP is the ellipsis of the complement of DP.

Similarly when NP ellipsis occurs in Chinese possessive NPs, the possessor also strands. The stranding possessor shows that perhaps the possessor in Chinese possessive NPs share the same position with the English ones. Here I adopt this assumption, but how do we analyze the position of the stranding article *de* which is stranded together with the possessor after NP ellipsis?

When analyzing NP ellipsis in Japanese, Bošković observes that the topic article survives ellipsis and he argues that 'since the particle survives ellipsis it appears that we need to place it in a separate projection outside of the ellipsis site, which is the NP.' Takahashi (2011) holds the same argument that the topic particles in Japanese are located in the head position of KP which takes NP as its complement. The possessor is then adjoined to KP: [KP Possessor [K' [K[NP]]]]

Since the topic article can serve as the head of the KP in Japanese, it follows that the attributive particle after the possessor in Chinese NPs can similarly function as a head.

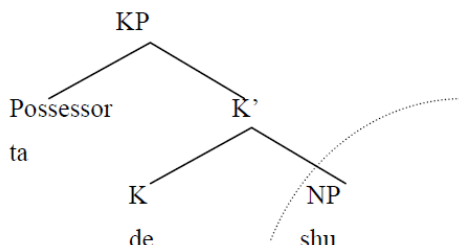
Here is an example:

(22) Zhe shi wo de shu, na shi [ta de ~~shu~~].

This is my K book, that is his K book.

This is my book and that is his book.

(23)



In structure (23), KP is the highest projection in the TNP hence it is a phase. According to Bošković's ellipsis theory, (23) involves ellipsis of the complement of a phase head. The analysis in (23) predicates the sentence in (22) to be well-formed.

To sum up, in this section I assume that the article *de* heads a KP and takes a NP complement in Chinese possessive NPs which have an attributive article *de*. Furthermore, the possessor occupies the position of SpecKP. NP ellipsis in this structure is about the deletion of the complement of the phase head K *de*, with both the possessor and the article *de* stranded. From this aspect, we can say that Bošković phase theory and ellipsis theory can explain the structure of Chinese possessive NPs.

D. Chinese Simple NPs: Adjective + *De* + NP

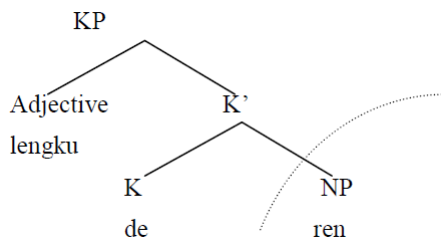
Adjectives can be used to modify the noun. However opinions about the structural position of adjectives are different. According to Abney (1987), pronominal adjectives should be taken as heads of noun phrases. However Pysz (2006) argues 'for adjectives in DPs, they may be adjuncts to the maximal projection of the nominal head, to its intermediate projection or to the nominal head itself.' Scholars like Crisma (1993), Cinque (1995), and Laenzlinger (2000) deem that attributive adjectives should be specifiers of noun phrases. In this paper I accept the assumption of adjective-as-a-specifier hypothesis.

Considering Chinese NPs with an attributive adjective, its structure is similar to that of English adjective NPs. But one difference exists: a particle *de* inserts between the adjective and the noun. We recall that in the analysis of Possessor + *De* + NP structure, *de* is taken as the functional head of KP and possessor occupies SpecKP. In the analysis of

Chinese adjective NP, I integrate the opinion of particle ‘*de*’ projecting a functional KP with the opinion of adjective-as-a-specifier hypothesis mentioned by many scholars mentioned above. Having this assumption, we can analyze the following example in this way:

- (24) Dajia xihua shangliang de ren, bu xihua [lengku de ren].
 Everybody like kind K people, not like cruel K people.
 Everybody likes kind people, and don’t like cruel people.

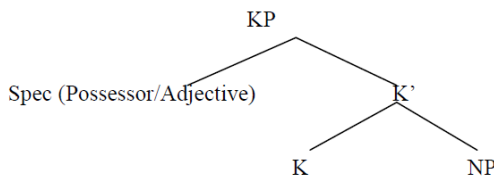
(25)



In terms of Bošković’s ellipsis theory, NP in adjective Chinese NPs can be deleted because it is the complement of the phase head (KP is the highest phrase and so it is a phase).

Though semantically different, Possessor + *De* + NP and Adjective + *De* + NP in Chinese share the same syntax structure: Particle *de* functions as a head of KP that is the highest phrase projected by the noun. The possessor and the adjective occupy the SpecKP position.

(26)

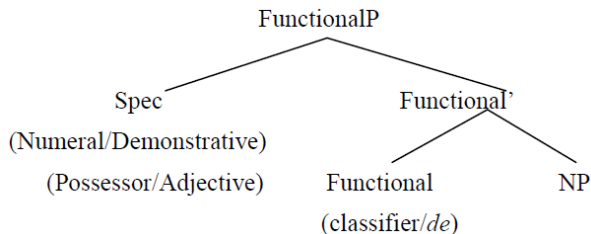


KP projected by the functional head *de* is the highest phase in this unified structure and the NP ellipsis involves the ellipsis of the complement of the functional head K. From this perspective, Bošković’s two hypotheses about phases and ellipsis account for the analysis of Chinese possessive and adjective NPs.

E. Conclusion

Up to now, we have discussed four basic kinds of Chinese NPS: Numeral+Classifier+NP, Demonstrative+Classifier+NP, Possessor+*De*+NP and Adjective+*De*+NP. From the analysis of them, we find that there is a similarity among these structures: There is a higher projection projected by a functional head (the functional head can be either a classifier or an attributive article *de*) over the NP. If we use a general term FunctionalP to stand for the higher phrases (CLP and KP) over NPs, we can get a unified structure:

(27)



According to Bošković, FunctionalP is the highest phrase hence it is a phase. Ellipsis of FunctionalP itself and complement of the phase head Functional is possible.

III. CHINESE COMPLEX NPS

The discussion in section 2 is about simple Chinese NPs. In the syntactic structure of this kind of NPs, there is only one FunctionalP above NP. In terms of Bošković’s phase theory, this FunctionalP is a phase. And in terms of his ellipsis theory, the NP functioning as the complement of the phase head can undergo ellipsis. From the above analysis, we discover that Bošković’s two hypotheses about phase and ellipsis can be applied to the explanation of Chinese simple NPs. However in Chinese, many complex NPs with more than one modifier in front of the noun exist. Can Bošković’s

two hypotheses have the similar force of explanation in the analysis of Chinese complex NPs? This will be the focus of this section.

Bošković (2009a, 2012) observes that word order within TNP is generally freer in NP than DP languages. The reason for this is that the richer structural configuration of DP languages imposes syntactic restriction on word order within TNP in DP languages that are not found in NP languages due to the lack of the syntactic structure that is responsible for these restrictions. This is true in Chinese NPs. Though the modifiers are normally put in front of the noun in Chinese, the word order of the modifiers is relatively free than that of some other DP language, say English.

Some examples can be easily found in Chinese. In principle, any order of numerals, demonstratives, possessives, and adjectives is allowed in Chinese. A few examples are listed:

- (28) a. Possessor + De>>Numeral +Classifier>>NP
 Zhangsan de san ben shu
 Zhangsan K threeCL book
 Zhangsan's three books
- b. Possessor+De>>Adjective+De>>NP
 Zhangsan de hongse de chenshan
 Zhangsan K red K shirt
 Zhangsan's red shirt
- c. Demonstrative+classifier>>Possessor+De>>NP
 Zhe bu Lian de dianying
 This CL Lian K movie
 this movie of Lian's
- d. Demonstrative+Classifier>>Adjective+De>>NP
 na bu hongse de paoche
 that CL red sport-car
- e. Possessors+ De>>demonstrative+ classifier>> adjective+De>> NP
 Zhangsan de na bu hongse che
 Zhangsan K that CL red car

Of course, more kinds of similar structures are permitted in Chinese NPs. However no matter what kind of structure is it, there is more than one functional projection over the nominal phrase. Then how can we analyze these kinds of complex NPs?

Take an example, where to allocate elements that appear to the left of the numeral and classifier (e.g. the demonstratives, possessors, etc.). At first blush, this does not seem to be a problem as one can have demonstratives and possessors adjoined to the Classifier Phrase. However, interestingly, the presence of modifiers to the left of the classifier may alter the referential properties of the noun phrase. Assuming that modifiers are adjoined to the Classifier Phrases cannot account for the change in referentiality. So this pushes us to think they are located in a higher projection superior to the projection of classifiers. Just like what we have analyzed, all the four basic structures of Chinese NPs sharing that same syntactic structure FunctionalP. So we can assume that in the complex NPs, every modifier belong to a functional phrase heading by a functional particle (the classifier and the attributive particle *de*). So in Chinese complex NPs, more than one functional phrase projected over the noun.

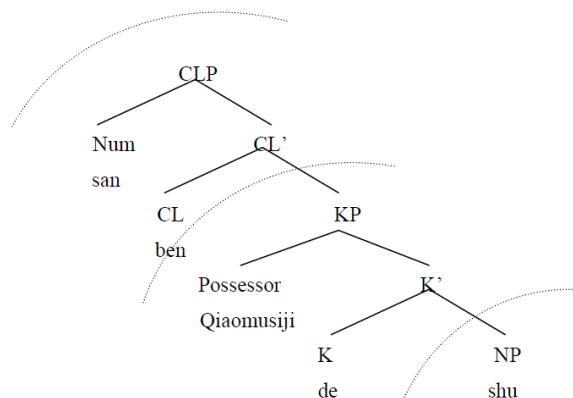
Next let's try to check whether Bošković's hypotheses work for the analysis of Chinese complex NPs with more than one functional phrase. Consider one example (in this example, some elements of the NPs in the later part of the sentence can be omitted):

- (29) Zhangsan mai-le san ben Qiaomusiji de shu,
 Zhangsan buy-Perf three CL Chomsky K book.
 a. Lisi ye mai-le [san ben Qiaomusiji de-shu].
 b. Lisi ye mai-le [san ben Qiaomusiji de-shu.]
 c. Lisi ye mai -le [san ben Qiaomusiji de-shu].
 Lisi also buy-Perf [three CL Chomsky K book]

Zhangsan bought three Chomsky's books and Lisi also bought three Chomsky's books.

Having the assumption that in Chinese complex NPs, every modifier belongs to a functional phrase heading by a functional particle, The structure of the later part of (29) can be analyzed in the following way:

(30)



Recall that highest phrase is a phase, so in structure (30) CLP is the phase. And the constraints about ellipsis are that only the phase itself and complement of the phase head can undergo ellipsis. So we can explain the grammaticality of (29 c) which is the ellipsis of the phase CLP. We can also account for the grammaticality of (29b) which is the ellipsis of KP since KP is the complement of the phase CLP. But how can we explain the grammaticality of (29a). If we assume that CLP is the phase and then NP becomes the complement of the complement of the phase head. This is not allowed in Bošković’s theory about ellipsis. Shall we say Bošković’s theory doesn’t work for the analysis of Chinese complex NPs. Not necessarily. Because Chinese NPs has a special feature, different from other language, that is, each projection over NP is headed by a functional head (a classifier or a particle *De*). Taking this into account, we need to modifier Bošković’s hypothesis a little:

- (31) a. Only phases and complements of phase heads can undergo ellipsis.
- b. Each functional projection over NP in Chinese is a phase.

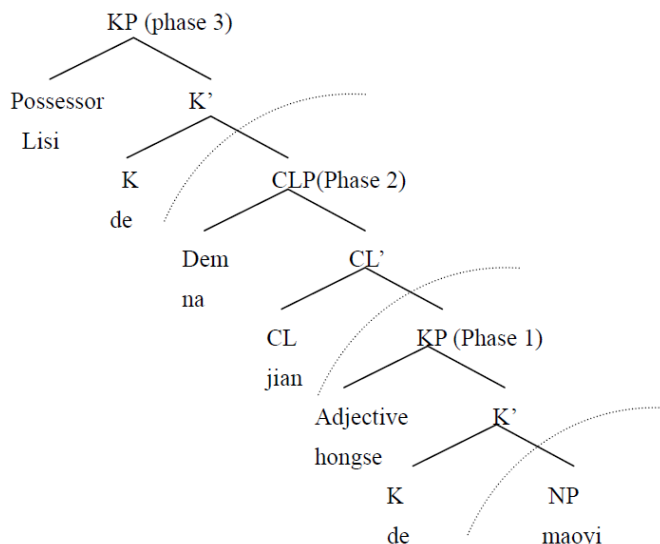
So according to this modified hypothesis, we can say that both CLP and KP are phases in (30). We can use the modified hypothesis in (30) to explain the grammaticality of (29a), (29b) and (29c). (29c) is the ellipsis of a higher phase CLP, (29b) is the ellipsis of a lower phase KP or the ellipsis of the complement of the head of a higher phase CLP and (29c) is the ellipsis of the complement of the head of a lower phase KP. We can also get another conclusion: There can exist more than one phase in Chinese complex NP and phases are hierarchical. Beyond the lower phase, one or more than one higher phase can exist.

Next we can use this modified theory to analyze another complex NP:

- (32) Wo xihuan Zhangsan de na jian hongse de maoyi,
- I like Zhangsan K that CL red K sweater,
- a. bu xihuan [Lisi de na jian hongse de maoyi].
- b. bu xihuan [Lisi de na jian hongse de maoyi].
- c. bu xihuan [Lisi de na jian hongse de maoyi].
- not like Lisi K that CL red K sweater.

I like that red sweater of Zhangsan’s, but I don’t like that red sweater of Lisi’s.

(33)



The grammaticality of (32a) (32b) and (32c) can be justified in the following way:

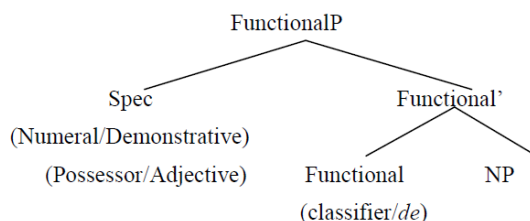
Form the highest layer of phases, (32a) is the ellipsis of the complement of the head of phase 1; (32b) is the ellipsis of phase 1 or the ellipsis of the complement of the head of phase 2; (32 c) is the ellipsis of phase 2 or the ellipsis of the complement of the head of phase 3.

To sum up, we can say that Bošković's highest-phase-as-a-phase approach and ellipsis-constrained-by-phase approach work well for the analysis of Chinese simple NPs, however there is a flaw to analyze the Chinese complex NPs. In order to make these two theories to have greater explanation force, we need to modifier it a little and this modified theory can also works well for the analysis of Chinese simple NPs. Because in Chinese simple NPs, there is only one functional phrase over NP, according to our modified hypotheses in (31), this functional phrase is a phase. Ellipsis of FunctionalP or Ellipsis of the complement of this FunctionalP that is NP is possible. After careful discussion, we find that Bošković's hypotheses can only explain Chinese simple NPs perfectly but they cannot explain Chinese complex NP well, however our modified hypotheses can account for not only Chinese complex NPs but also Chinese simple NPs. In this way, we can use the modified theory to account for the phasehood of Chinese NPs and the ellipsis of Chinese NPs:

- (31) a. Only phases and complements of phase heads can undergo ellipsis.
b. Each functional projection over NP in Chinese is a phase.

IV. SUMMARY

In this paper, we explore the syntactic structure of Chinese NPs and the ellipsis of Chinese NPs within two broad Chinese NPs: Chinese simple NPs and Chinese Complex NPs. We establish a unified structure for the four basic Chinese simple NPs, that is,



We also uncover that more than one functional phrase in Chinese complex NPs exist and this provides a hindrance for the explanation of Bošković's phase theory and ellipsis theory.

Bošković proposes that phase is the highest projection in the extended projection of a major category, and he also proposes that ellipsis is a phase-based operation. In this paper I demonstrate how these two proposals can account for Chinese simple and complex NPs and the ellipsis phenomena within Chinese NPs. By analysis of Chinese NPs, I find that Bošković's two theories can work well in the explanation of Chinese simple NPs. However when we come to Chinese complex NPs, we discover that these two theories become a little helpless. So according to the feature of Chinese NPs, we alter the two theories especially the ellipsis theory a little:

- a. Only phases and complements of phase heads can undergo ellipsis.
b. Each functional projection over NP in Chinese is a phase.

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A Comparative Study of English and Chinese Passives from the Perspective of Figure-ground Theory

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Abstract—This paper tries to explore differences between Chinese and English passives from the perspective of figure-ground theory in cognitive linguistics. Based on the prominent principles in figure-ground theory, it compares the English and Chinese passives from the angle of prototypical and non-prototypical types and aims to find out a better and stronger explanation for the deep mechanism for English and Chinese passives so that promote learners' ability of cross-language contrastive analysis.

Index Terms—passives, figure-ground theory, contrastive study

I. INTRODUCTION

Passive sentences, a common but extremely complicated linguistic phenomenon, have been a heated research topic at all times for researchers abroad and at home. The study on passives develops very fast and has achieved great success. What's more, the comparative study of English and Chinese Passives also arouses much interest of various scholars who delve in the study for years in different linguistic genres china. However, many linguistic genres, though, offer some explanations for English and Chinese's distinctions, they are lacking a systematic explanation and also fail to explain some specific phenomena. When cognitive linguistics becomes popular in China, scholars start to study English and Chinese Passives from the angle of cognitive linguistics and compare the two kinds in detail as well. Some theories in cognitive semantics have been brought to analyze English and Chinese Passives such as prototype theory (Xiong Xueliang & Wang Zhijun, 2001; Feng Fang, 2009), grammaticalization (Ni Wei & Shao Hongzhi, 2004) and construction grammar (Huang Xueqiang, 2011) and so on. This paper, whereas, tries to apply figure-ground theory to do a comparative study of English and Chinese passives.

On the basis of prominence principle, the notion figure-ground theory is first put forward by Danish psychologist Rubin. His well known face/vase illusion experiment proves that what lies behind our inability to see both the face and the vase is a phenomenon called figure and ground segregation, namely, people cannot see both the figure and ground simultaneously. (F. Ungerer & H.J. Schmid, 2008)

In cognitive linguistics, figure refers to the prominent part during our cognition process; ground refers to the part that is perceived as being less prominent than figure and serves as a soil to figure. Many cognitive linguists claim that the subject and the object can be used to distinguish the figure and the ground in sentences. (William Croft & D. Alan Cruse, 2004)

As is known to all, the subject sometimes is the prominent part, so we often regard subject as the figure, the object as the ground. For example:

- (a) *Tom equals me in strength.*
- (b) *I equal Tom in strength.*
- (c) *Susan resembles my sister.*
- (d) *My sister resembles Susan.* (Huang Guangping, 2011)

In these two group sentences, the different choices of subject reflect different perspectives which lead to various prominent part and so is the figure. When people read sentence (a) and sentence (c), they will consciously regard *Tom* in sentence (a) and *Susan* in sentence (c) as the figure and *my sister* is the figure and *me* and *my sister* in (a) and (c) is the ground. While in sentence (b) and (d), the situation is on the contrary that *I* and *My sister* is the figure and *Tom* and *Susan* is the ground. Therefore, it is observable that an entity can be prominent as the figure and ignorant as the ground.

In Chinese, for example: (a) 我家在峨眉山附近。(My home is near the E-mei Mountain; wo jia zai e mei shan fu jin.) (b) 峨眉山在我家附近。(E-mei Mountain is near my home; e mei shan zai wo jia fu jin.) (Kuang Fangtao & Wen Xu, 2003) In sentence a, the speaker takes "E-mei Mountain" as the ground to describe "my home" as the figure while in sentence b, the speaker put "E-mei Mountain" in the position of the figure and "my home" in the position of the ground.

All in all, the figure-ground theory in Cognitive Linguistics can be used to explain many linguistic phenomena in both Chinese and English in an effective way. Totally this paper is composed of two parts: (a) a contrastive analysis of English and Chinese prototypical passives (b) a contrastive analysis of English and Chinese non-prototypical passives.

Respectively this paper will discuss English and Chinese passives in detail first and reveal that there exists some similarities of them, which are helpful for English teaching and learning as well as second language acquisition.

II. ENGLISH AND CHINESE PROTOTYPICAL PASSIVES BASED ON FIGURE-GROUND THEORY

A. English Prototypical Passives

An English passive as one of the commonest sentence structures in English is widely used in daily life and its own characteristics which that English passives is usually used when there is no need to mention the agent, when the speaker is unwilling to mention the agent, when there is no way out to find out the agent, etc. As we know, English focus on nouns which lies in the beginning of a sentence is regarded as the subject. Generally speaking, the subject is the agent and the object is the patient, so this is the prototype structure in English which is usually called declarative sentence. However, the English passives also follow the principle with only the position exchange of the subject and object in declarative sentence. The prototypical English passives should be: Subject (patient) + BE+ V-en (verbal). And the prototypical passives are divided into two subcategories: the agentless passives and the agentful passives.

“The agent is implied in the context in the agentless passive, whereas the agent is overt in the agentful passive. In fact, they express the same proposition. The choice of agentless or agentful passive is determined by the semantic salience which conveys the speaker's perspective and focus. (Zhao Li, 2010)

1. English Agentless Passives and Figure-ground Theory

Agentless passives are passive sentences without agent and only with patient passives. Usually, in active sentences, the agent is the figure which needs to be prominent and the patient is the ground that is used to serve as a soil to the agent. For example: (a) The enemy was defeated. (b) The cap was blown away. (Xiong Xueliang & Wang Zhijun, 2002) In sentence (a) and sentence (b), it is easy to find that the subject in (a) is the object in (b) and the object in (a) is the subject in (b). When we put the figure-ground theory into consideration, the enemy and the cap in (a) and (b) as a patient is the prominent part that the writer or speaker wants to pay much attention for it follows the principle mentioned before that English focus on the subject and nouns which lies in the beginning of a sentence.

If we discuss these two sentences from the perspective of meaning, we may have a better understanding about why we connect the subject (patient) to the figure in prototypical passives. Once we alter the words' order and change those two sentences into declarative sentences, we may find there is the lack of an agent. The sentence will be organized as following: Who (anyone or any group) defeated the enemy (patient); what (the wind or a people) blew away the cup. In sentence (a), people only concern about whether the enemy was defeated or not and do not much care for who defeat them; as the similar situation in (a), the cup in sentence b is people's focus for they do not want to figure out what cause the cap being blown away and what they really concern about is the change of the cup's state. Therefore, in prototypical English passives, the original agent is omitted and turns to be the ground while the original patient as a prominent part is being put the position of the subject when it is transformed into a passive sentence.

2. English Agentful Passives and Figure-ground Theory

As a matter of fact, in English, the agentful passives are few. Xiong Xueliang and Wang Zhijun (2002) made a structure for the appearance of the agent in non-prototypical English passives as following: Subject+ BE+ V-en+ Prep.+ noun phrase. An usually English passive which has the agent is few and the preposition is often led by “by” which is put in the last of a sentence. Therefore, the way to analyze the non-agent English passives based on the figure-ground theory does not take effect. It is obvious that the agent in English passives with the appearance of the agent is more important than this in the non-agent English passives. For instance, *we are moved by the movie*. Here, although *we* as a patient have been put to the position of the subject, it does not mean that the figure is “we” and “the movie” should be the ground.

On the contrary, “the movie” will be paid much attention. When people are reading or the sentence, they would like to read till the end and find out what caused people to be moved. And their focus is on the “movie” for it is new information for them comparing to “we”. Comparing to sentence (a) *He was beaten* in category B in the prototypical English passive, we can find that in *He was beaten*, even though we want to know he was beaten by whom? But we still will concentrate more on a current state of “he” that is “was beaten”. The first thing come into mind must be “is it true?” and then maybe we will ask “who beat him?” While in *we are moved by the movie*, if the sentence is only with “we are moved”, we will feel kind of weird for we believe that there is something causing us bring moved. When “the movie” appears, we will have a feeling that this is a really complete sentence in meaning.

All in all, when some parts of a sentence is put to the position of beginning, it control the distribution of information and also influence people's understanding to a certain extent, which lead to the distribution of the importance. In English passives, patient is being put to the beginning of a sentence so the importance of the patient is prominent.

B. Chinese Prototypical Passives

Passives in Chinese are one of the most important and indispensable sentence structure. People in daily life often use passives to express something indirectly for the consideration others' feelings. Chinese passives also are composed of two types: Chinese Agentless Passives and Chinese Agentful Passives. Generally speaking, people tend to use agentless passive for their focus is basically on the subject as English.

1. Chinese Agentless Passives and Figure-ground Theory

In Chinese, the prototypical passive is expressed by the passive marker *bei*(被), which evolves from the meaning to sustain. The colloquial counterparts of *bei* include *jiao*(叫), *rang*(让), *gei*(给), etc. The agent often appears between the passive marker *bei* and the verb, and the verb is often followed by a complement to indicate the result caused by an action. The function of *bei* can be summarized as: (a) to designate the NP before it as a patient; (b) to designate the NP which is optional after it as an agent; (c) to designate a causality in the whole construction. (C.-T. James Huang, Y.-H. Audrey Li & Yafri Li, 2009)

Chinese prototypical passives are divided into agentless and agentful passives. In agentless passives as well, there is a paradigm as following: (personal patient) N+被+V, for example, (a) 他被打了。(He is beaten by someone; ta bei da le.) (b) 弟弟被打了耳光。My brother is slapped; di di bei da le er guang.)

The subjects are both personal patient which do not have the property of patient in human experience in nature, that is to say, we often regard personal subject as a doer rather than a patient so when the personal patient have to be placed in front of the passive sentence, we have to add a marked term *bei*(被) after the personal patient and before the verb. When we take the figure-ground theory into consideration, the sentences in sentence (a) and sentence (b) are all explainable in logic. “他”(he) in sentence (a) as a personal patient is against people’s experience so when it is put in front of the sentence, it becomes the focus and figure, and also the object(agent) is omitted for the focus of people is not on it.

2. Chinese Agentful Passives and Figure-ground Theory

However, sometimes we should take the agent into account, for example, 我被妈妈骂了一顿。(I was scolded by my mom; wo bei ma ma ma le yi dun.) In this sentence with the appearance of the agent, people on longer pay attention to “who was scolded” but “who scold me”. Therefore, when the agent appears in prototypical Chinese passives, the agent is the figure for people’s focus on it while the patient in the position of the subject is the ground.

Therefore, we can find that in both prototypical English and Chinese passives, people place their focus on the patient (subject) in agentless passives and on agent in agentful passives. In other words, the patient is expressed as the figure in agentless passives while as the ground in agentless passives.

III. ENGLISH AND CHINESE NON-PROTOTYPICAL PASSIVES BASED ON FIGURE-GROUND THEORY

A. English Non-prototypical Passives

English non-prototypical passives are also widely used in daily life. They are different from prototypical passives in many ways generally divided into four categories:

1. Stative Passives and Figure-ground Theory

Stative passives is expressed by construing a causative event as a stative event. The form of stative passives is almost same to the form of prototypical passives as NP+ *be*(copular)+ V-*en* except for V-*en* is the adjective. For example: *The book was lost*.

In this sentence, the stative passives indicate the final state of “the book” due to a change “was lost” In the surface structure, we can find that ‘lost’ is treated as an adjective but it implies the inherent property of an entity which indicate a change from “own” to “lost”. If we take figure-ground theory into consideration, we can find that this sentence is in the same situation to the English agentless prototypical passives that both the agent and patient appear, and the subject is the agent while the patient is omitted. If it is added an agent like *The book he bought was lost*, inversely, this explanation also take effect as English prototypical agentful passives that “he” becomes the figure while “the book” is the ground.

2. Get-passives and Figure-ground Theory

It is known to all that *Get*-passives is often used in oral communication as an auxiliary in English passives. As we have mentioned before, we have a form of English prototypical passives: NB+ *be*+ V-*en*. Here, “be” is stative as an auxiliary, In the prototype, “be” as an auxiliary is stative. *Get*-passive are mostly dynamic instead of being static. The dynamic nature of the *get*-passive means that the passive subject in *get*-passives is more or less responsible for the action or involves some control on the event. (Xu Fang, 2006) Therefore, we may draw a conclusion that in *get*-passives people may concentrate more on the subject(patient) for his action involves some control on the the event. We can call such state of control the salience and the figure, and the omitted agent ground, which is similar to the English prototypical passives.

For example: *We got fired*. In this sentence, “got” displays a dynamic scene which is quite different from “be” providing a static scene. But they all emphasize the state of the subject (patient) and regard it as the figure.

3. “it + is + Ven+ that” Passives and Figure-ground Theory

In some English passives, it is difficult to find the agent or it is inappropriate to mention the agent or it is in the need of rhetoric without agent so people tend to use some frequently-used passive sentence frames leading by “it” in sentence structure “it + is + Ven+ that” to express their ideas, such as “it is said that”, “it is acknowledged that”, “it is reported that” etc. (Zhang Furong, 2013)

However, why would some people like to use such sentence structure in some situations in daily life? Because people do not want to clearly speak out the agent under some situations for some reasons, e.g. the speaker does not want to leave listeners an expression that his attitude is so objective to believe or the speaker does not want to mention the real

speaker who expresses the attitude. For instance, *it is said that he is the greatest hero in the world*. It is obvious that the speaker or writer does not want to tell people “who said”, and he just wants to express an attitude of his own to a great extent. Thus, people will focus more on his attitude than the speaker who said the sentence, so we can say the sentence after “that” is the figure and the omitted speaker is the ground. However, if we use “somebody” to replace “it”, people will pay much more attention on “who said” than the following attitude. The speaker becomes prominent and is regarded as the figure while the following attitude as the ground.

4. Notional Passives and Figure-ground theory

In English, there is one sentence called notional passives that the structure form is active but the meaning is passive for example: *these TV sets don't sell well*. There is no passive marker like “be” or “get”, but we can clearly understand “TV” is the patient and it cannot “sell” itself but sold by somebody. If we change the sentence into a formal passive, it goes like this: *these TV sets has not been sold well*. The former one implies that the TV sells bad due to the problem of the TV such as quality and price while the latter one implies that the TV sells bad because of the problem of the salesman such as carelessness and bad temper. (Jiao Xiaoting & Kou Qin, 2002)

The stative passive is a topic-comment construction. Generally speaking, the Chinese sentence can be divided into two broad categories: subject-predicate and topic-comment. A subject-predicate sentence which signifies an event is usually used for narrative purposes; a topic-comment sentence, rather than narrating an action or event, usually provides a description or offers an opinion.

If we put figure-ground theory into explanation, we may find that the agent of these two passive sentences is omitted in that the speaker does not want to mention the agent and look it as the ground, and only emphasis the TV.

B. Chinese Non-prototypical Passives

Chinese non-prototypical passives is composed of stative passives and medio-passive: patient-NP+V(受/遭/得到, etc) (Zhao Li, 2010)

1. Stative Passive and Figure-ground Theory

Stative passives can be called notional passives as well, which is same to English notional passives that the structure form is active but the meaning is passive. Chinese native speaker are apt to focus on the subject so they prefer to the use of notional passives.

For example, (a)电视机买了。(The TV he wants has been bought; ni yao de ag u shu mai le.) (b)树砍了。(The tree is cut; shu kan le.)

Based on the analysis above, in sentence (a) and (b): “买(buy; mai)” and “砍(buy; kan)” can represent both an action and a result, but “买了(have/has been bought; mai le)” and “砍了(have/has been cut; kan le)” mean that the action has finished and now it is stative.

Besides, we can find that the subject must be inanimate objects or people's experience before. In (a), it is a thinking pattern of human beings that inanimate objects usually cannot do an action that should be done by humans on its own. Hence, on the basis of human experiences, there must be a man who is supposed to buy the TV. Although there is no marked term like 被(bei), it is still regarded as the passives. In (b), 树(the tree;shu) is often being looked as patient in experience when they will be cut. On the basis of these analyses, in sentences like the examples, the subject is regarded as the figure because people do not care about the agent who is put in a secondary position.

2. Medio-passive and Figure-ground Theory

It is so similar to one category of English non-prototypical passives: *Get*-passives. In Chinese prototypical passives, not only “被(bei)” can be the auxiliary, but “受(shou)”, “遭(zao)”, “得到(de dao)” and the like are also used to serve the function, which is called medio-passive: patient-NP+V(受/遭/得到, etc). For example:

(a) 听完他的讲述, 我的内心受到很大鼓舞。(After his narrating, I was inspired so much; ting wan ta de jiang su, wo de nei xin shou dao hen da gu wu.)

(b) 小明遭到公司的不公正对待。(Xiao Ming was treated unfairly by his company; xiao ming zao dao gong si de bu gong zheng dui dai.)

(c) 长久以来, 该理论不断得到丰富和发展。(For such a long time, the theory has been increasingly enriched and developed; Chang jiu yi lai, gai li lun bu duan de dao feng fu he fa zhan.)

As can be seen from above, the medio-passives do not contain any passive marker; their passive meaning is mainly realized through the verbs in their constructions. We can find that our focus is on“我的内心”, “小明”, and“该理论”, that is to say, we regard them as the figure to be prominent, and other things around them are degraded as the ground. We come to know the ground in that we want to know the figure better.

IV. SOME SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES AND SOME SUGGESTION ON ENGLISH LEARNING AND TEACHING

On the basis of figure-ground theory to comparatively study Chinese and English passives, we can analyze some similarities and differences between Chinese and English passives after the study above. Speaking of the similarity, the deep mechanism of English and Chinese passives is consistent. In prototypical passives, due to the similar structure “NP+ Be+Ven/N+被+V”, both in Chinese and English passives the subject(patient) is the figure while the object(agent) is the ground. The similarity also reveals that English people and Chinese ‘thoughts about the salience or prominence of

something in passives are nearly the same. When they do not want to mention the agent or it is difficult to figure out the agent, both English and Chinese are apt to omit the agent as the ground in the sentences; when they want to highlight the agent, they will recover the ground of the agent.

In non-prototypical passives, both English and Chinese have a category of stative passives. They are concentrated on non-prototypical passives. In Chinese notional passives, the subject is certain which means it has a related entity, and the verb is usually a transitive verb followed by adverbial or complementary or auxiliary. While nearly all English notional passives are led by an intransitive verb which is followed by some adverbials like well and easily. They two both share the same definition that the meaning is passive but the structure is active. Taking figure-ground theory into consideration, both English and Chinese passives keep the principle that because inanimate subject and the following verb are naturally passive relation so people focus on the patient and do not care about what the agent is.

Another category that both of them have is the medio-passives, and the only difference is that the signs are different but the meaning they transmits is the same. Their subject (patient) is the figure.

Speaking of the differences, we can find that the use of English passives is in a higher frequency than Chinese in that English and Chinese are distinct is that people from those two language backgrounds holds different perspectives. English native speakers tend to focus on the object while Chinese native speaker are apt to focus on the subject. That is to say, in English passives the object is often being promoted to be the figure and the subject is degraded as the ground. While Chinese often use the way of Stative Passives in daily life and prototypical passives are used in a lower frequency in that they get used to use active expressing way so that their principle of prominence is on subject as the figure.

No matter what kind of passive sentence structures in Chinese and English, both Chinese and English people have a similar institution about what to highlight, and their cognition of prominence in passives is almost the same. That's why we can correctly and accurately understand the English passives and grasp the focus in that they share the same cognitive pattern of focus in passives.

Therefore, in English learning and teaching, we should fully take advantage of those similarities and promote the positive transfer. When teaching English passives, teachers are supposed to do a comparative teaching based on figure-ground theory. In this way, students can have a better understanding of English passives from a cognitive way not simply study the grammatical knowledge.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper aims to discover some similarities and differences between English so that can reveal the deep mechanism of differences between Chinese and English passives from the angle of figure-ground theory in Cognitive linguistics. Figure-ground theory based on principle of prominence has a very powerful explanation force to English and Chinese passives. With a better understanding about how figure-ground theory is used to explain passives, teachers can guide students to learn passives in an effective way if he knows similarities and differences of principle of prominence in both English and Chinese; the ability of learners to use a language and cross-language contrastive analysis can be improved.

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The Contemporary Landscape of Arabic Translation: A Postcolonial Perspective

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Abstract—Arabic translation assumed an unrivaled identity and dignity from the mid 8th century up until the Mongol's conquest of Baghdad in 1258. This period is termed as the Golden Era of Arabic Translation¹ on the grounds of the superb achievements of Medieval Arabic translators and their Abbasid patrons. It is widely celebrated in the context of Arabic literary and intellectual tradition, and attracts more interest and notice than any other stage in the history of Arabic translation. One of the most prominent problems of contemporary Arabic translation is that present-day Arabic translators are viewed and assessed in contrastive relation to their venerable Medieval counterparts. Given the successive political upheavals that overwhelmed Arabic history following the fall of Baghdad in the eleventh century, and ending up with the violence escalating nowadays throughout several Arab countries, contemporary Arabic translation ought to be viewed and assessed in light of the historical facts and present-day challenges that might have impeded its anticipated development. In this essay, I intend to outline and map from various perspectives the landscape of contemporary Arabic translation primarily in terms of the achievements and challenges that face Arabic translators nowadays.

Index Terms—translation studies, Arabic translation, Medieval Arabic translators, state of translation, postcolonial translation

I. CURRENT QUESTIONABLE EVALUATIONS OF ARABIC TRANSLATION

There is a current a wide-spread sentiment as Clark (2000) puts it that “the Arab world contrasts a glorious mythical past with a frustratingly bitter present” (p. 23).² In most of the evaluations of the contemporary scene of Arabic translation, one observation seems to assert itself repeatedly, that is: there seems to be a sharp contrast between an organized institutionalized past, and a feeble chaotic state stigmatizing the theory and practising of contemporary Arabic translation. In other words, Arabic translation is often studied and presented through a distorting prism which takes into account only the glorious role of Medieval Arabic translators in transmitting Greek knowledge to Medieval Europe on a large scale.

Lichtblau (1991) notes that “in the 1950s the notion that the world could be changed for the better and that literature should contribute to this effort struck many [writers] as both persuasive and exciting.” Lichtblau explains that such writers who were taken by this notion had a strong passion for Jean Paul Sartre and “his thesis that the writer's commitment was to his own times and to the society in which he lived, that words were actions, and through writing a man might influence history” (Lichtblau, 1991, p. 1). In the Arab world, this feeling about the commitment and responsibility of writers and intellectuals struck many twentieth-century Arab writers as well when many Arab countries were either still in the grip of colonisation or in the aftermath of cultural colonisation. In his lecture, “Translation and Modern Arab Renaissance” (1992) Jabra Ibrahim Jabra, a twentieth-century Arab fiction writer, essayist and translator calls Arab translators and writers to acknowledge the significant role Arabic translation can play nowadays to promote the modern Arab renaissance and “bring the Arab nation back to its original notable position within the broad context of civilisations” (Jabra, 1992, p. 57). Jabra places Arabic translation within a purely cultural context viewing it only as a means of restoration or reconstruction of the glorious past. He calls upon Arab writers and translators to acknowledge that translation can play a significant role to boost the development of Arab nations in modern times, in the same way the superb translation movement had done during the days of Al-Ma'mun and Harun Al-Rashid³ (p. 58).

Said Faiq's study “Arabic Translation: a Glorious Past but a Meek Present” (2000) is another obvious case in point. Faiq depicts the contemporary Arabic translation scene as being in sharp contrast with the prestige, respect, and significance translation enjoyed in the Medieval Islamic world. “In the modern Arab world,” he says, translation is neglected. It “receives neither the same attention, nor the encouragement as its counterparts in Europe and America, nor does it enjoy the prestige bestowed upon its Medieval ancestor” (Faiq, 2000, p. 83).

¹ The Golden Era of Arabic translation actually “started during the reign of the Umayyads (661-750) and reached its zenith under the Abbasids (750-1280), particularly, during the time of [the Caliph] Al-Ma'mun (813-833)” (Baker, 2001, p. 318). For further reading see (Gutas, 1998, pp. 75-104).

² See also (Faiq, 2000, pp. 83-98), and (Shunnaq, 1996).

³ Al-Rashid was the fifth Abbasid caliph (786- 809). His reign was marked by scientific, cultural prosperity. He established the famous library and translation center *Bayt al-Hikma* (House of Wisdom) which flourished during al-Ma'mun's reign (813 - 833), another Abbasid caliph and patron of Arabic translation.

It is quite difficult and also unfair to assess the contemporary state of Arabic translation through the perspective of the past only. By so doing such assessments which always depict Arabic translation as chaotic and underdeveloped when compared with the superb achievements of Medieval Arabic translators, lay big pressure and responsibility on present-day Arabic translators to change the presumed state of underdevelopment in the Arab world. According to Lichtblau (1991), “we live in an age of smug skepticism about the power of literature as well as history” (p. 1), and presumably other fields of knowledge including translation. In the Arab world of today, the escalating political and social unrest sweeping over several countries of the Middle East is overwhelmingly frustrating. Amid the bloody rebellions and conflicts raging in these countries today, no one can hope that literature or translation will have a superb transforming power to change the big tides of events.

Moreover, the discipline of Translation Studies worldwide is recognized today as a relatively new field that is still in the making. Baker (2001) believes that its “potential is as yet unrealized” (p. xiii) even in Europe and the United States. According to Keeley (1980), the state of translation and translators in the United States is fairly grim, “though not quite as grim as they [translators] once were” (p. 14) because translation has been for a long time regarded as a subsection of Comparative Literature. Even today Translation Studies are housed within departments of Cultural Studies or Comparative Literature. Bassnett (1991) writes.

In 1978, in a brief Appendix to the collected papers of the 1976 Louvain Colloquium on Literature and Translation, Andre Lefevre proposed that the name *Translation Studies* should be adopted for the discipline that concerns itself with the ‘problems raised by the production and description of translations.’ (Bassnett, 1991, p. 1)

As a matter of fact, Anthony Pym (1999) maintains that translation is academically homeless *all over the world* and “the people doing Translation Studies are scattered all over kinds of Academic institutions.” Pym laments the issue that up until today, there is still “no firm institutional home” for Translation Studies with no exception to any translation tradition (p. 2). However, evaluations of contemporary Arabic translation often single out Arabic translation as chaotic and feeble with no institutional home in academia. Such distorting views of Arabic translation do nothing but enhance the wide-spread misconception which uses the prism of the past to view the current situation of Arabic translation. Faiq (2000) claims that Arabic translation enjoys no “independent identity, but rather it is assigned a secondary status within language departments” (p. 83).

In his introduction to *Rethinking Translation: Discourse, Subjectivity Ideology* (1992), Lawrence Venuti, a prominent scholar of contemporary translation theories, describes the status of translation in the Anglo-American world as being “an invisible practice” that is “rarely acknowledged” (Venuti, 1992, p. 1). Venuti maintains that the discrimination against translators in the Anglo-American world is very obvious, since the translator’s work is never highly appreciated, for instance, “many standard translation contracts at trade and university publishers assign the translator below-subsistence fees ‘per thousand words’” (p. 2). The fact that translators are mostly, paid by the word, as though translation is a pure mechanical work far from creativity and authenticity, shows that “the translator’s labor” is in “eclipse.” In spite of the considerably hard work, translators have a “shadowy existence” in their societies (p. 1). Venuti is a strong authority on the subject of the invisibility of translators in the Anglo-American tradition. Throughout his influential book, *The Translators’ Invisibility* (1995), Venuti points out that in the Anglo-American culture, translators are only successful when they make themselves “invisible” and “transparent” so that only the source text and the original author are seen through their arduous task. At the end of his book, Venuti calls the invisible translators “to action” to enforce “a change in contemporary thinking about translation” (Venuti, 1995, p. 312). Venuti and other contemporary translation theorists talk about a widespread dilemma encountering all translators not restrictively of a particular culture. His observations on the low status of translators and translation in the Anglo-American world are clearly in conflict with some contemporary evaluations of Arabic translation which depict Arabic translation as underdeveloped compared to the theoretical and practical activities of translation in other cultures. Such evaluations restrict translators’ low social standing and marginality exclusively to Arabic translators. However, Anthony Pym (1996) confirms that with no exception to any culture “everywhere I found Venuti’s resistant translators ‘banished to the fringes’ of not just Anglo-American culture but of whatever culture they were involved with” (p. 2).

II. CATASTROPHIC CHAPTERS IN THE HISTORY OF ARABIC TRANSLATION

There is a considerable body of research in the field of Translation Studies that highlights the vast instrumental contribution of Medieval Arabic translators to Western learning and thought as the greatest transmissions of knowledge in history. However, the historical conditions which gave rise to such significant periods of heightened translation activities in the Medieval Islamic and Arab world have changed considerably over the centuries. The evaluations of the contemporary scene of Arabic translation which look at the present through the eyes of the superb past only are obliged to look into historical facts also before formulating any judgment. Despite the fact that today we find more than fifty Muslim countries divided politically, linguistically and culturally, contemporary evaluations of Arabic translation treat these different fifty countries as one cultural whole. In such evaluations, it has to be noted that the Islamic empire began to split politically, linguistically and culturally as a result of successive invasions and offensives as early as the eleventh century. Al-Sayyad et al. (1971) maintains that during and following those invasions, the literary and cultural heritage suffered considerably. The caliphs, who acted as generous patrons sponsoring intellectuals, translators, and institutions of learning, had to give more time and finance now to wars and efforts of protection in the face of these invasions rather

than to sponsoring careers of writing and translation. Also, the new rulers who took power in the Islamic world were foreigners who knew no Arabic. As a consequence, the heightened activities of authorship and translation took a gradual slope. Gradually, Arab translators could no longer enjoy the patronage, encouragement and attention as used to happen through their major Abbasid patrons who would sustain them as they proceeded with their translations (Al-Sayyad et al., 1971, p. 188).

A. *The First Invasions*

The worst of these invasions, which resulted in the most intense loss of the cultural, historical, scientific, and literary heritage, took place when Baghdad fell to the Mongols. This is often referred to as the most culturally-disastrous incident in the history of Islam and the Arabs. Baghdad was the prosperous center of the Islamic world and remained so for over five-hundred years until it was destroyed by Hulegu and the Mongols in 1258. The destruction of Baghdad and the Abbasid Caliphate was on a large scale and left a profound impact on the respected medieval Arabic learning and translation. Morgan (2007) states, “the battle with the Mongols is pitiful [...] the caliph is strangled [...] the structures of the city are pillaged, battered, and burned, many reduced to rubble” (pp. 145-146). The Mongols destroyed the Abbasids’ prosperous learning centers and libraries including the House of Wisdom, the unrivaled medieval translation and research institute which had international fame to scientists, philosophers, translators, and linguists of the Muslim and non-Muslim world. Saunders (1965) points out that “the loss to culture in the fall of Baghdad alone is incalculable” (p. 195). The extent of knowledge lost during the devastation of Baghdad and its libraries was massive. Books were either burned or dumped into the Tigris River in large quantities. Lane (2006) maintains,

The accusation of book burning and in particular the charge of willfully destroying the literary heritage of Baghdad have long blackened the reputation of Hulegu Khan [...] Unfortunately, nothing remains today of the center of learning [...] in later accounts of the destruction of Baghdad, reference is made to the burning of books and to the Tigris running black with the ink from the desecrated tomes. (p. 88)

The destruction of Baghdad, the center of learning, is considered the most catastrophic chapter in Islamic cultural history as it put an end to more than five hundred years of cultural achievements and breakthroughs. Morgan (2007) writes, “the destruction of the city is so complete that, though some will try to rebuild it in coming centuries, it will never regain any prominence in world affairs until its oil-funded rebirth in the 20th century” (pp. 145-146). Unfortunately, most present-day evaluations of the contemporary scene of Arabic translation highlight the medieval golden achievements of Arabic translators during the days of Al Ma’mun and Al-Rashid, the devoted Abbasid patrons of translation without bringing to light in the same context the grave consequences of that catastrophic interruption in the development of Arabic translation and learning at the hands of that invasion.

B. *Modern European Invasions*

Another force that brought major change and interruption in the development of Islamic and Arabic culture was the penetration of European colonialism in all Muslim and Arab states during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Over a span of two hundred years or so, the arrival of European colonialism forced a completely different political, social and cultural pattern over the Arab and Islamic world. Nasr (1999) maintains that during and after the colonisation of the Muslim and Arab world “the territorial division of Muslim lands [...] went hand in hand with national confusion and the fracturing of the future national society” (p. 559). The European colonisation left profound impacts on the development of Arab societies and their cultures. The idea of the guiding unity that prevailed in the vast Islamic empire and gave rise to periods of prosperity in authorship, learning, and translation became more and more unworkable. In fact, the arrival of colonialism is a key factor in explaining the present-day political, ethnic, religious, linguistic, and cultural divergences in the states that emerged by the end of the colonial era. European colonisation changed the course of everything and everywhere in the Arab and Muslim world giving rise to politically, culturally and linguistically divided populations and nations. Also, the economics, ideology, and leadership of the states formed during and after the colonial era became completely detached from each other.

The appreciation and high esteem bestowed upon specific fields of knowledge and sciences especially translation in the Medieval Islamic world were affected by the detrimental impact of cultural colonisation and the gradual deterioration it extended to the present. Edward Said (1994) argues that, even though imperialism was over by the end of World War II, its consequences are continuous and had enduring impact on the cultures of the colonised countries, “the era of high or classical imperialism [...] formally ended with the dismantling of the great colonial structures after World War Two, [but] has in one way or another continued to exert considerable cultural influence in the present” (p. 6). Even years after gaining their independence from France, the Arab countries of Algeria, Tunisia, and Morocco are still toiling to bring back standard Arabic as their official language. Fanon (1963) believes that the cultural colonisation of a nation is more threatening and destructive than all forms of colonialism. “Colonialism is not satisfied merely with holding people in its grip and emptying the native’s brain of all form and content, by a kind of perverted logic, it turns to the past of the oppressed people, and distorts, disfigures and destroys it” (Fanon, 1963, p. 210). The Arab countries of Algeria, Tunisia, and Morocco remained in the grip of French colonisation for almost a century. Tarwater (2005) believes, “despite almost 50 years of independence, they have been unable to reposition themselves to be stable, self-sufficient nations. Instead, Algeria, Morocco, and Tunisia waver behind, struggling to define the gaps in their culture that resulted from the colonialist era” (Tarwater, 2005). European colonialism remade the whole Arab world. de

Larramendi (2008) argues that after gaining their independence from the French colonisation, the Arab Maghrebi countries of Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Mauritania, Libya have exerted extended efforts over many years to establish a united Maghrebi union of these countries on the grounds of “historic, religious, cultural and economic reasons.” However, the “political differences, distrust over security issues [...] have brought the Maghrebi unification process to a standstill. Obstructions to unification have undermined the region’s ability to negotiate as a bloc, resulting in economic isolation and political marginalisation” (p. 179). Dirks (1992) believes that colonialism is “itself a cultural project of control,” culture suffers “in certain important ways, culture was what colonialism was all about” (p. 3). European colonialism never believed in the power of any native civilisation or culture of the Arab world. If these cultures were not abolished or broken into pieces, their old ways, their old ideas, and their old laws were Europeanised. Through the enduring cultural colonisation, “cultural forms in newly classified ways “traditional” societies were restructured and transformed” (Dirks, 1992, p. 3). Perhaps most important nowadays are the rebellions and conflicts escalating in Tunisia, Libya, Yemen, Iraq, Egypt and Syria. These conflicts are starting to be seen by political analysts and peoples of these countries not as part of an historical turn of events for these nations or a new start of a bright future as thought at the outbreak of these conflicts. In an article titled, “a Century of Violence: What World War I Did to the Middle East,” Zand (2014) maintains that the ongoing conflicts are actually not a beginning but “the most recent chapter in an almost uninterrupted regional conflict that began 100 years ago and has never really come to an end.”

III. MORE CURRENT UNREASONABLE JUDGMENTS

Unfortunately, most of the modern-day evaluations that often talk of bitterness overwhelming the contemporary state of Arabic translation and culture leave out the catastrophic effects of cultural colonisation on the development of nations from their calculations and therefore should not be passed as reasonable judgments. It is necessary to rethink these unfair generalised views. Before casting any judgment on the current state of Arabic translation, critics need to throw light on any controlling historical changes, old and new, and their effects on the Arabic culture over time. Equally important to looking closely and rightly into the past of Arabic translation, critics need to map the reality of present-day landscape of Arabic translation also closely and rightly taking into account the contemporary valuable achievements and the big challenges that control the development of Arabic translation nowadays.

In the often taken-for-granted evaluations of the contemporary scene of Arabic translation, another indicator of the poor status of Arabic translation appears to be the percentages of Arabic translations published annually nowadays. Arabic translation percentages are more often than not judged low and poor when compared with the number of translations published in other languages and cultures, or even worse when compared to the always higher ratio of books during the time of the caliph, Al-Ma'mun. Al-Jaber (2014) points out that the eminent British Orientalist and Historian of Islamic arts, Thomas Arnold, describes the achievements of Medieval Arab scientists and translators as being “at the height of their greatness, lighting up as the moon shines, and dissipating the depths of darkness, which wrapped Europe in the Middle Ages.” Jaber’s reaction to the special praise Arnold gives to the Golden Islamic Era is as such: Arnold’s “words are like tales from Arabian Nights” that he likes to listen to whenever he wants “to escape the reality” of a bitter present “to a world of romantic fantasy, dreams and visions.” One of the indicators of the deterioration of Arabic advancement in arts and sciences used in present-day evaluations is the poor percentage of books translated in the Arab world nowadays compared with the books translated into Hebrew for example. Al-Jaber writes “Israel translates 15,000 books into Hebrew, once described as a dead language, every year compared with the Arab world which does not translate more than 330 books into Arabic every year” (Al-Jaber, 2004).

In a similar argument, Faiq (2000) comments on the number of books that had been translated into Arabic between the years (1960-1970) as being “meager” when compared with the number of books translated during the time of Al-Ma'mun. “The 2840 books⁴ translated over a decade for a total population exceeding 130 million is meager indeed, and indicates the poor esteem in which translation is held [...] This rate of translation is a far cry from what Al-Ma'mun managed as a ruler of one nation [...] 114 philosophy books, 123 mathematics books, and 149 medical books” (p. 88). Faiq continues to view and present contemporary Arabic translation through the lenses of the past framing it in sharp contrast with the status of Arabic translation at the days of Al-Ma'mun:

If Al-Ma'mun managed to create a culture of translation that led to the translation of hundreds of books when acquiring these books and producing the translations were laborious and time-consuming activities, one might wonder why sixteen modern Arab nations managed only 2840 translations between them despite all the modern technologies at their disposal. (Faiq, 2000, pp. 88-89)

However, while discussing the insufficiency or rather serious shortage of contemporary practical Arabic translation activities, the author himself conceded in the same article that “there is very little documentation in terms of training and books translated” (Faiq, 2000, p. 88).

In his study of the activities of Palestinian translators from the renaissance to the end of the twentieth century, Al-Khatib (1995) uses Al-Khouri’s statistical study of the Arabic translations up until 1988. Al-Khatib maintains that the numbers appearing in Al-Khouri’s study are actually not quite accurate. For instance, Al-Khouri does not take into

⁴ Faiq quoted this number from a statistical study of 1988, by Shehada Al-Khouri, the former General Director of the Arab Organisation for Culture, Education, and Sciences. See (Al-Khouri, 1988).

account all the books translated by Palestinian translators between the years (1970-1980). As a matter of fact, Al-Khoury only lists those books that were published officially by the former Palestinian Liberation Organisation (Al-Khatib, 1995, pp. 108-109).

Such comparisons might seem convincing especially if one takes into consideration the vast modern technological tools and facilities now available and accessible to Arab translators and were not available to their counterpart ancestors during the Golden Era of Arabic translation. In point of fact, such studies suggest that generally speaking, the Arabic language culture is devoid of translations nowadays. As noted earlier in this paper, before formulating any evaluations, such studies have to take into consideration the historical and cultural transformations in the Islamic and Arab world beginning with the end of the Islamic Golden Era at the hands of the Mongols in the eleventh century and ending with the nineteenth and twentieth centuries' political and cultural subjugation of the Arab and Islamic world by the European empires of Britain, France, Italy, Holland, and Russia. The Islamic empire once stretching "from present-day Pakistan to Spain" (Baker, 2001, p. 316) with one shared ideology and leadership does no longer exist. It was split up, broken into pieces and its historical achievements were dispersed in many countries. The most significant problem in these studies is that they tend to disregard historical changes and treat fifty-two linguistically and culturally diverse Arab and Islamic countries as one cultural whole. After the termination of colonisation, the unified Arab world fell apart, and twenty-two Arab nation states rose to existence. It can't be denied that in the past, the shared existing political system that successfully ruled over the far-stretching parts of Islamic empire from Baghdad was behind the flourishing of all fields of knowledge especially Arabic translation. As early as the eleventh century, the colonial powers that subjugated the Islamic and Arab world had destabilised and wreaked the unity that surely nourished and sustained its prosperity in the Middle Ages. Of the devastating effects of colonialism, which can be traced up to this day are the political borders imposed on Arab and Muslim states in the twentieth century after the division of the Islamic and Arab world amongst the colonial powers. Today these borders became roots and fruits of conflicts amongst Arab and or Muslim states generating long-term political and ethnic tensions such as the Iraqi-Iranian war which lasted over ten years and the Gulf War of 1990 ensued because of Iraq's claim to Kuwaiti territories. Nasr (1999) points out that the "ethnic and territorial definitions became the boundaries for national identity formation; they grew roots and developed as a secular and dominant form of political identity in lieu of memories of united Islamic world in history" (p. 558). If one takes the enduring impact of colonisation including the political divisions and cultural divergences it brought to the present into account, it becomes quite fair not to expect a balance in the ratio of literary production or translations in these linguistically and culturally diverse countries to those produced in the united Islamic world as an entirety in the Medieval past.

IV. CONTEMPORARY ACHIEVEMENTS

As noted earlier in this paper, most of the assessments of the contemporary landscape Arabic translation tend too readily to make harsh judgments through the lenses of the Medieval past in spite of all the radical changes that overwhelmed and transformed the course of everything in Arab world. It is regrettable how various persistent accomplishments of present-day Arab translators are often left out of consideration and disregarded because the glorious past acts as the only perspective critics use to view and talk about present-day Arabic translation and culture. This obviously restricted view does not allow critics of the contemporary scene of Arabic translation to value many contemporary bright achievements of Arabic translators which range from individual successful translations to the contributions of journals and big non-profit projects of translation including the Franklin Project for the Translation of Arabic, one of the largest English-Arabic translation projects of the twentieth century⁵, PROTA and the recent *Kalima*.

The big Project of Translation from Arabic, PROTA, is one of those contributing projects whose potential was overlooked and not at all realized in modern-day assessments. Allen (1994) confirms that "in a space of a single decade," PROTA "has initiated and supervised the publication of a body of translated works, and more recently of studies, that constitute a significant addition for [...] the repertoire of sources in English for the Arab World, and in particular, its literature" (p. 168). PROTA started "to take shape towards the end of the 1970s, as an anthology project for Columbia University Press" under the direction of Salma Khadra al-Jayyusi, the Palestinian literary critic and poet. PROTA's main objective was "the dissemination of Arabic culture and literature abroad." Through the efforts of a vast number of translators "in the US, Britain and the Arab world," it managed successfully the publication of two vast volumes of Arabic poetry and narratives (Allen, 1994, p. 166). PROTA's first successful publication was followed by another series of flourishing translations of Arabic books, anthologies and individual works principally not for commercial use.⁶

⁵ See (Al-Khatib, 1995, p. 38).

⁶ Among anthologies, *The Literature of Modern Arabia* (Salma Khadra Jayyusi, ed. London, 1988; Austin, 1990) and an *Anthology of Modern Palestinian Literature* (Salma Khadra Jayyusi, ed. New York, 1992). An *Anthology of modern Arabic drama*. Smaller anthologies contain collections of poems by the Tunisian Abu al-Qasim Al-Shabbi (Tunis, 1987) and Syrian Mohammad al-Maghut (Washington, 1991) and also short stories and novellas by Ghassan Kanafani (Austin, 1990) and Liyanah Badr (New York, 1993). The Project has also published individual novels by Emily Habiby (New York, 1982), Sahar Khalifah (London, 1986), Yusuf al-Qa'id (London 1986), Hamza Bogary (Austin, 1991), Ibrahim Nasrallah (New York, 1993), and Zayd Dammaji (New York, 1994). For detailed information on the titles of books translated and published by PROTA, see (Allen, 1994, pp. 165-168).

Another well-designed project of Arabic translation which should be brought to light in present-day evaluations of Arabic translation is the non-profit translation project of *Kalima* initiated by the Abu Dhabi Authority for Culture and Heritage. Every year, the *Kalima* project for Arabic translation publishes one-hundred translations of high quality works of literature, arts and sciences from several languages into Arabic. *Kalima*'s principal goals are to sponsor the translation, publication and distribution of quality works from all genres and languages into Arabic. The project also supports and promotes the Arabic book production on the international stage. Moreover, *Kalima* helps improve the sociology of Arabic translation by reinforcing translation as a dignified profession through encouraging translators to be part of their promising and prospering endeavor. In addition to publishing translations in significant numbers, *Kalima* offers a variety of useful programs and services to translators, interpreters and theoreticians, including international book fairs and the annual Abu Dhabi International Conference for Translation which aims at examining and developing the current state of translation around the Arab world. The outcome of such translation initiatives deserves to be much commended in modern-day evaluations of Arabic translation because of their big potential and merits. In literature, a considerable body of translations from and into Arabic made distinctive contributions to the catalogues of World Literature. Moreover, the increasing numbers of translations into and from Arabic opened up newer areas of scholarly research and generated the academic study of Arabic literature in translation in and outside the Arabic milieu. This in turn has contributed to the development of newer academic programs of Arabic cultural studies and Arabic translation research at several universities around the world.

In his study of the Palestinian translation movement, Husam Al-Khatib (1995) documents the achievements of Palestinian translators from the renaissance up until the end of the twentieth century. According to Al-Khatib, "translation flourished very early as a result of the widespread existence of the foreign schools and missionaries in the Holy Land as early as the second half of the nineteenth century" (p. 15). There were many Russian missionary schools in Palestine towards the end of the nineteenth century. "The Palestinian-Russian Association was established in 1882 along with a series of Russian schools." Many Arab students who were granted scholarships to study in Russia became committed distinguished translators, such as Khalil Baidas who in 1908 initiated "*Al-Nafae's Magazine*," one of the most important Arabic publications dedicated to translation at the beginning of the twentieth century (pp. 16-17). According to Al-Khatib, Palestinian translators contributed to Arabic translation more than any others, essentially, as a result of the political situation that involuntarily forced many of them to live in diaspora. They have translated from a wide variety of subjects in English, French, Greek, Russian, Turkish, and Hebrew among many other languages (Al-Khatib, 1995, pp. 47-61).

Translation in the Arab world is not perhaps widely recognized as a firmly- established discipline in its own right. However, the field of Arabic translation is in the moving and has witnessed significant developments in theory as well as in practising. As far as the theoretical development of Arabic translation is concerned, a substantial number of books, dissertations, and theses get published constantly. Moreover, in addition to the large number of journals that publish Arabic translations regularly, there are now academic journals entirely devoted to theoretical studies of translation in general and to Arabic translation in particular including the *Journal of Translation Studies*, *Turjuman* [The Translator] published by The King Fahd School of Translation, and the publication of the Jordanian Translators' Association *Studies in Translation*. Moreover, taken by the rapid growth and expansion of the discipline of Translation Studies in the world, there are now more than any other time in the history of Arabic translation, more researchers, theoreticians, publishers, editors, practitioners of translation and interpreting and students working in the field of Arabic translation in every country throughout the Arab world. Furthermore, well-organized conferences and forums on Arabic translation are held throughout the year and on a regular basis by Academies and schools of translation and interpreting to help promote the development of professional translators and researchers through panel discussions, expert presentations, training workshops, and scholarly papers. Moreover, the academicisation of the training of translators and interpreters has flourished with the development of the discipline of Translation Studies around the world. There is now a reasonable number of schools, academies or university-level institutions that offer academic training and/or well-developed undergraduate as well as graduate degree programs in translation and interpreting including the recent Translation and Interpreting Institute, at Hamad bin Khalifa University, the Graduate program in English-Arabic translation at Yarmouk University in Jordan and its counterpart at the University of Jordan. The King Fahd School of Translation in Tangier, Morocco is also a very well-known translator academy throughout the world. According to Faiq (2000), it "has endeavored to create a translation culture within Morocco in particular, and the rest of the Arab world in general" (p. 89). Surprisingly enough, such successful academies are either overlooked or often seen by some as exceptions from the chronic, chaotic and underdeveloped contemporary state of Arabic translation.

There is yet another bright spot that is to be commended in the contemporary efforts to endorse and promote Arabic translation and translators. Translation awards and grants of different kinds are given each year to literary and nonliterary translators into and from Arabic around the world including (1) the King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz's International Award for Translation, (2) the International Award of Translation given by the Kuwait Foundation for the Advancement of Sciences, (3) the Translation Award given by Sheikh Zayed Book Award, (4) and the annual *Banipal Prize* for Arabic Literary Translation. Most of the awarding organisations are governmental and initiated these grants and awards on the basis of their belief that translators deserve to be given credit for their labors and art.

As far as Arabic literary translation is concerned, achievements in the field include the publication of *Banipal: a Magazine of Modern Arab Literature* introduced in 1998, to come three times a year as Clark (2000) maintains for the sake of bringing “contemporary Arab literature into mainstream” mostly through English translations. In addition to publishing the magazine of modern Arabic literature in English translations, *Banipal* also supports the publication of two books of poetry or fiction a year, publishing a wide range of authors from all parts of the Arab world and its diaspora in a variety of genres and styles. “Its marketing strategy is to get across to the British [and international] literary public and the indications are that it is achieving some degree of success” (Clark, 2000, p. 14). Roger Allen, a specialist in Arabic literature and Arabic language pedagogy in the United States comments on the excellent availability of Arabic literature in English translation saying:

In 1993 I taught an NEH summer seminar for high school teachers on the Arabic novel in translation. As I went through the listing of translated novels that are available in 1990s and also made a choice from translations of other genres as back-up material, I became newly aware of the wealth of materials that we now have available [...] there are now sufficient published novels and anthologies of poetry, drama and short stories to devote entire courses or at least significant segments of them to individual genres and themes. (Allen, 1994, p. 165)

In his article “Arabic Translation A Glorious Past but a meek Present” (2000), Faiq maintains that the main reason behind the low status of Arabic translation in the Arab world “is the fact that it is restricted to the university sphere where it is then further hindered by the low priority attached to it” (p. 91). Faiq means by “the low priority attached” to Arabic translation that in the Arab world, translation is still housed within language and literature departments. Translation Studies as a discipline is still not widely academically institutionalized even at distinguished European and American universities. Unfortunately, to this day, Translation Studies are mostly housed within departments of Linguistics, Comparative Literature or departments of Cultural Studies. In the whole North America, for instance, there are only few fully-fledged ph.D programs in Translation Studies. To cope with the rapid growth in the field of translation studies, some Arab universities, such as the Yarmouk University in Jordan nowadays have departments of translation established to offer a complete program of study in translation at the B.A and the M.A. levels. The department of translation at Yarmouk is planning to offer a ph. D program in Arabic-English translation in the near future.

Translation in the Arab world has developed a great deal as a result of the collective or collaborative efforts of individual translators, publishers as well governmental and nongovernmental translation houses and associations as Professor Al-Shunnaq, an expert of Arabic translation studies maintains:

From the beginning of the 19th century up to the mid 20th century, the translation movement in the Arab world was represented by efforts exerted by individuals as well as publishing houses and distributors. However, in the 1950s, official organizations were established by some Arab countries to sponsor translation affairs. Ministries of Culture, Information, Education, Higher Education, universities and academies of Arabic language, among others have shouldered the responsibilities of translating, publishing and distributing for almost the last five decades. The activities of private publishing houses and individuals have gone on side by side with these governmental bodies. (Shunnaq, 1996, p. 12)

The Arab world witnessed a general state of cultural renaissance and awakening over the years (1970s-1980s) (Al-Khatib, 1995, p. 48), which in turn brought the materialisation of an organised translation tradition as a result of the appearance of Arab associations for translators in the mid 1980s (p. 49). Generally speaking, Arab translation associations are non-profit bodies, which work on, among many other objectives, establishing internal links between Arab translators in one country as well as establishing links with other translators in Arab and international organisations of translators. The Syrian Translators’ Society, The Jordanian Translators’ Association, The Iraqi Translators’ Association, King Fahd School of Translation and the Arab Translators Federation (A.T.F.) are the most known examples of such organisations in the Arab world.

V. PRESENT-DAY CHALLENGES

The development of Translation Studies as a discipline is a success story of the 1980s only. (Bassnett and Lefevere, 1990, p. ix). In the Arab world, the subject has developed in terms of theory and practising and is clearly to continue developing well into the twenty-first century. The Arab world is constantly living in a time of rapid and radical political, social and economical changes that surely and inevitably affect the nature and development of academic disciplines and fields of knowledge. The development in Arabic translation studies nowadays owes part of its success to the prestigious past of Arabic translation as well as to the developments in the field of Translation Studies as a whole. Translation in the Arab world is deeply steeped in the history of Arabs and Islam. There is no doubt that the relative prestige and power of Arabic translation have fluctuated over time following many historical changes. One big reason for the low ranking of contemporary Arabic translation is the restricted comparisons of Arabic translation to its glorious Medieval counterpart. Apparently, there are many more individual and collective efforts still needed to develop an awareness of translation as a discipline and respected profession. Also, nowadays, Arabic translators work hard, but their biggest challenge and fear would be when they work in isolation with no one documenting their achievements. Systematic

documentation is required and can help change the course of contemporary Arabic translation and literature⁷. Most needed in this respect perhaps is a project similar to *the International Directory and Guide for Translation and Translators* compiled by Stephan Congrat-Butlar. This directory can be a regular compilation of whatever information needed about the discipline and profession of Arabic translation for students, researchers and everybody interested in the field of Arabic translation. This may include information about practitioners, translators and interpreters, educationalists and their achievements, as well as the work of institutional enterprises and projects. It may include also a bibliography of all publications in the field of Arabic translation to be used and consulted by researchers and students. Information about organisations, societies, and institutes, prizes, awards, fellowships, translation workshops, seminars, conferences and programs leading to undergraduate as well as graduate degrees or certificate may also be added. Such compilation is really indispensable and can paint a bright picture about the contemporary activities and achievements of Arabic translation.

There is no doubt that Arabic translation is developing in quite new ways. However, this paper is a call for more systematic projects that may brighten up the fairly grim picture mistakenly drawn about Arabic translation. The endeavors to develop Arabic translation may have to include also regular attempts to publish professional serious conversations and interviews with contemporary accomplished literary and nonliterary Arab translators and educationalists of Arabic translation including Mohammed Shahin, Issa Boullata, Abdil Wahid Lu'lu'a, and Salih Ilmani to reveal the contemporary achievements of Arabic translators, bring them to international contexts and more importantly to enable Arabic translation to assume a visible identity.

Another challenge that faces Arabic translators nowadays is expressed by Edward Said in his article, "the Embargoed Literature." Said comments on the non-popularity of Arabic literature in the West saying that "the unavailability of Arabic Literature in translation is no longer an excuse" (Said, 1995, p. 99). Said connects the semi-anonymity of Arabic literature or what he calls "the cultural abyss that exists between the Arabs and the West" to various reasons that range from "political and military polarization" to "the responsibility of Arab writers themselves as well as their publishing houses, ministries of culture, embassies in Western capitals who have done hardly nothing to promote their works" (p. 102). What needs to be done is finding ways of circulating the translated works into broader contexts and also making the translations more functional in the target languages.

A further challenge for Arab translators and Arab translation organisations nowadays seems to be the problem that "the complete hegemony of English and French in the Arab world has hindered contact with other languages and cultures" (Faiq, 2000, p. 92).⁸ Arabic translation has to open up to other cultures, ideologies and languages. This is easy to accomplish particularly if we take into consideration that quite relevant to the bitter profiling of contemporary Arabic translation is the fact that in the Arab world, translation has always been perceived essentially as a cultural activity or a means of restoration, revival and reconstruction of the glorious past. In other words, translation is often seen not as a linguistic creative task, art or science but as a means of cultural exchange more specifically for the sake of development, growth and reformation.⁹ This might put great pressure and limitations on the nature of works that get translated and published into and from Arabic.

VI. FINAL THOUGHTS

The landscape of contemporary Arabic translation is tremendously broad. To cover it in just few pages is a huge responsibility. Unfortunately, there has been no comprehensive adequate study of the scene of the contemporary translation tradition in the Arab world. In the present essay, I have attempted to offer an overview of the most prominent features, challenges of the state of contemporary Arabic translation, and to highlight the most prominent profile and framing, which dominate the discussions of the state of Arabic translation. The pattern of the theoretical and practical development of Arabic translation has not always been consistent and the relative power of Arabic translation has fluctuated throughout Arabic history following periods of colonisation which inevitably affected and interrupted its course of development. In this paper, I have attempted to show that the present state of Arabic translation is not as it is often portrayed: not too all positive or inspiring. Contemporary studies and assessments of Arabic translation tend too often unjustly and too readily to contrast the superb past of Arabic translation with the developing present. Typically, that has resulted in undermining and underestimating the contemporary achievements of translators. Many of these assessments which look at translation as a cultural transfer or a form of reconstruction are perceived only through the prism of the past away from present-day challenges. This is not to say that the past of Arabic translation is irrelevant to studying the present. It has to be employed in really motivating new ways for Arabic translators. The best policy to try to change the grim picture would be to stop lamenting the glorious past and to establish carefully reasoned evaluations of the contemporary achievements in light of the present-day challenges and historical facts. Perhaps in this way only we can establish respectability for contemporary Arabic translation.

⁷ Critics maintain that Jabra Ibrahim Jabra's translation of Sir James Frazer "The Golden Bough" from English into Arabic was behind the appearance of what is called the *Tammuzi* Movement in contemporary Arabic poetry. See (Abu-Shamsieh, 1987, p. 40; pp. 52-55).

⁸ "By the early part of the 20th century, most of the Arab world was under occupation, with the British in Egypt, Palestine, Sudan and Iraq, the French in North Africa and Syria [and Lebanon]" (Baker, 2001, p. 324).

⁹ Mohammed Ali's vast translation project in Egypt at the beginning of the nineteenth century, which lasted about twenty years, was carried out for the sake of reformation, see (Baker, 2001, pp. 322-324) and also (Al-Shayyal, 1951, pp. 1-10)

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Effect of Task-induced Online Learning Behavior on Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition by Chinese Learners—Revisiting Involvement Load Hypothesis

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Abstract—In the present study, Laufer & Hulstijn's Involvement Load Hypothesis was tested by a different methodology from that adopted by the previous similar studies. That is, instead of focusing only on the product of learning, the present study also attended to the details of learners' task-induced online learning behavior via a specially designed computer program. Eighty-one participants were randomly assigned to one of the four tasks with different amount of involvement load. Once completing the task, the participants were unexpectedly tested on the retention of the target words that appeared in the texts. Two weeks later they were given two delayed posttests. The data were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The results suggested that different tasks did elicit different patterns of on-line learning behavior in terms of frequency of look-ups and amount of time spent on target words. It was also found that tasks assumed with higher involvement load hypothesis did not necessarily lead to higher retention scores. It was concluded that the criteria that Laufer & Hulstijn have proposed for grading the task effectiveness may be too simplified and idealized, failing to reveal the sophisticated nature of the cognitive processes that the different task induces.

Index Terms—Involvement Load Hypothesis, online learning behavior, task type, incidental vocabulary acquisition, computer program

I. INTRODUCTION

A. The Rationale of the Study

Research on vocabulary acquisition in general, and on incidental vocabulary acquisition in particular, has increased considerably over the past few years. Aspects which form the focus of research include the resources and procedures applied in meaning inference (Haastrup 1991; Van Parreren & Shouten-van Parrenen 1981), the effect of dictionary use or glossing support (Cho & Krashen 1994; Hulstijn et al. 1996; Knight 1994; Luppescu & Day 1993; Wantanabe, 1997), the influence of different reading tasks and the effects of vocabulary learning (Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996; Hulstijn & Trompetter, 1998; Wesche & Paribakht, 2000; Newton, 2001).

In explaining the superior effect of one approach or task over another, most researchers suggest that the superior tasks, that is, tasks that lead to better retention rate in incidental vocabulary acquisition, required a deeper level of processing of the new words than other tasks. Psychologists and language acquisition scholars working within the framework of cognitive psychology agree that the more a learner pays attention to a word's morphophonological, orthographic, prosodic, semantic, and pragmatic features and to intraword and interword relations, the more likely it is that the new lexical information will be retained (Hulstijn, 2001). Such close attention to word features, which is often associated with performing a vocabulary task, has also been referred to as deep processing, elaboration, and cognitive effort. Yet in a normal language learning situation, it is hard to decide whether one instructional task requires deeper processing than another. Hence research on task effectiveness would require the identification of criteria which could be observed, manipulated, and measured. The Involvement Load Hypothesis (ILH) proposed by Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) is deemed as the first attempt to operationalize traditional general labels such as noticing, attention, elaboration into task-specific components. Thus tasks may be graded for the processing depth they demand.

Revealing as the Involvement Load Hypothesis is, the empirical evidence for this hypothesis has been rare. Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) conducted two parallel experiments testing whether retention of vocabulary acquired incidentally is contingent on amount of task-induced involvement. They compared three learning tasks with varying involvement loads: reading comprehension with marginal glosses (index=1), reading comprehension plus fill-in (index=2), writing composition and using the target words (index=3). It turned out that the results of the Hebrew-English experiment fully support the hypothesis; the results of Dutch-English experiment, however, only partially support the Hypothesis.

As an attempt to test the Involvement Load Hypothesis in the foreign language classroom setting in China, Huang (2003) set out to investigate the effect of task types on L2 incidental vocabulary learning. On the basis of the hypothesis, it was predicted that tasks with higher involvement load should produce higher retention rate than those with lower

involvement load. However the results turned out to be very unexpected and mixed. Statistically significant difference of scores between the tasks was found only in the Immediate Posttest, and only between Task 6 and the other tasks; there was no significant difference between the other five tasks.

Keating (2008) also used three tasks with different involvement loads to assess the predictive nature of the hypothesis. Based on ILH, it was predicted that Task 3 (writing original sentences using target words) would outperform Task 2 (reading comprehension plus fill-in), which in turn would do better than Task 1 (reading passage with marginal glosses). The results strongly supported the hypothesis that the involvement load hypothesis can be generalized to low-proficiency learners, though no significant difference was found between the groups on Task 3 and Task 2 about their passive knowledge of the target words. Kim (2008) also provided empirical evidence for the hypothesis. The results of immediate post-test partially supported the hypothesis while those of delayed post-test fully supported this hypothesis. He also investigated whether tasks with equal involvement load would lead to equivalent initial and later retention of words by adult ESL learners at two different levels of proficiency. In line with other studies, the results showed that a higher involvement index leads to more effective initial and delayed vocabulary learning.

To recapitulate, the Involvement Load Hypothesis was basically verified in previous studies (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Keating 2008; Kim 2008), but it was only marginally supported in Huang (2003). The reasons for inconclusive and contradictory findings appear to lie in the following two interrelated major weaknesses of the above-mentioned studies. First, in all of the previous studies, the researchers assumed that the participants would do what the tasks required them to do without observing what the learners were actually doing. In other words, they only examined the learning products without giving any consideration to how they were related to the learning process. Secondly, since no observation was made of the learners' behavior when performing language tasks, it is very difficult to tell whether it is the task-induced involvement that leads to better retention of the target words or it is the time-on-target words that leads to better learning. This is because an important question related to task effectiveness is whether it is the nature of the task that induces effective learning, or the time learners spend on it (Hill & Laufer, 2003). Apparently the major drawback of the previous studies is their failure to observe the extent to which learners' behaviors were in accordance with the amount of cognitive load inherent in task as specified by the Involvement Load Hypothesis.

In recent years considerable attention has been given to vocabulary learning in Computer-assisted language learning. Some L2 reading specialists suggest adopting user-behavior tracking technology, because a tracking feature allows the researchers to explore learners' look-up behaviors and simultaneously examine the process and final product involved in learning vocabulary. (e.g., Collentine, 2000; Hulstijn, 2000). To overcome the limit of the previous studies special computer programs can be designed whereby not only the final learning products but the process involved in incidental vocabulary learning as well can be examined. More specifically, such computer programs would enable the recording of every action by learners when interacting with the available glossed entries.

The solution to the above problem is of great significance for foreign language vocabulary teaching. Theoretically, it makes an empirical contribution to the long-contested issue of task efficiency with respect to incidental vocabulary learning. Pedagogically, it is hoped that the findings of the present study may assist the teachers and learners alike in developing tasks that foster vocabulary learning in an incidental setting.

B. Theoretical Framework: Involvement Load Hypothesis

Laufer & Hulstijn (2001) put forward the Involvement Load Hypothesis, in which they proposed a motivational-cognitive construct of involvement, consisting of three basic components: need, search, and evaluation.

The *need* component is concerned with the need to achieve. Need is moderate when it is imposed by an external agent, e.g., the need to use a word in a sentence which the teacher has asked the learner to produce. Need is strong when imposed on the learner by him or herself. *Search* is the attempt to find the meaning of a word by consulting a dictionary or another authority. *Evaluation* entails a comparison of a given word with other words, a specific meaning of a word with its other meanings, or combing the word with other words in order to assess whether a word does or does not fit its context. If the evaluation entails recognizing differences between words, or differences between several senses of a word in a given context, we will refer to this kind of evaluation as "moderate". If, on the other hand, evaluation requires making a decision about additional words which will combine with the new word in an original sentence or text, we will refer to it as "strong" evaluation.

Vocabulary learning tasks are therefore described in terms of "involvement load" rather than as being input or output type tasks. Greater involvement occurs when there is a high degree of need, a search for answers, and evaluation of the word and context. In any given task, these factors can be present or absent (+/-), moderate (+), or strong (++). The basic contention of the involvement load hypothesis is that retention of unfamiliar words is claimed to be conditional upon the amount of involvement while processing these words. Words which are processed with higher involvement load will be retained better than words which are processed with lower involvement load.

C. Key Research Questions

The problem that the present study attempts to solve is concerned with the effect of task-induced online learning behavior on incidental vocabulary acquisition. A further scrutiny of this problem reveals that its solution is dependent on the answers to the following three related key questions:

- (1) Do different task types induce different online learning behavior?

(2) Do different online learning behaviors lead to different learning results in terms of retention rates of newly learned target words?

(3) To what extent can the observed online learning behavior and learning results be accounted for within theoretical framework of Involvement Load Hypothesis?

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Participants

The participants were 81 adult Chinese EFL second-year non-English majors from Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. To make sure that these participants were similar in English proficiency level, English Language Proficiency Assessment (Hever, 2001, downloaded from internet¹) was given. The means of the four groups ranged between 47.19 and 51.22, indicating that the participants had an average vocabulary size of around 3000 words. One-way ANOVA was performed on the means and no significant difference was found between the groups: $F(4, 81) = 0.453$ ($p = 0.716$). To verify the participants' unfamiliarity to the selected target words, a pretest in the form of a checklist was developed. Learners received a list of 50 lexical items (9 target words and 41 distracters) and were instructed to attempt a translation of each of the words and skip those items that they had never encountered before. The results suggested that the mean score of the four groups ranged between 0.667- 0.773, which means that on average the participants knew less than one target word. One-way ANOVA was then conducted on the means of the four groups and it was found there was no significant difference between them. $F(3, 81) = 0.085$ ($p = 0.968$).

Of the original cohort, the data from 14 subjects were excluded for two reasons: (1) exhibiting knowledge of more than two target words, and (2) being absent either in the immediate posttest or in the delayed posttest. The final sample size was eighty-one.

B. Instrumentation

Tasks

Four tasks were designed on the basis of the notion of task-induced involvement.

Task 1: Read and answer irrelevant comprehension questions. In this task, the participants were required to read a passage on the computer screen, and then answer the comprehension questions (true/false questions). The questions were designed in such a way that they could be answered without reference to the highlighted target words. This task, according to Involvement Load Hypothesis had a total involvement load of zero.

Task 2: Read and answer relevant comprehension questions. This task involved reading the same passage on the computer screen, but the true/false questions were designed in a way that they could not possibly be answered correctly without referring to the target words. This task had a total involvement load of 2 (+ n, + s, - v).

Task 3: Read and fill in missing words (cloze). The participants read the same passages as those in Task 2, but the target words to be learned were deliberately left out from the text. They were then required to fill in the missing words by making correct choices from a list of 14 words, five of which served as distracters. After that they also had to answer the same true/false comprehension questions as those in Task 2. The task had an involvement load of 3 (+ n, + s, + v).

Task 4: Read and make sentences. The participants read the same passages as those in the other three tasks. They are required to write original English sentences using the target words whose meaning had been used in the reading passages. The involvement index in this task was 4 (+ need, + search, ++ evaluation).

The involvement loads of the four tasks were summarized in Table I below.

TABLE I.
INVOLVEMENT LOADS OF THE TASKS USED IN THE PRESENT STUDY

Task	Components of Involvement			Amount Index
	need	search	evaluation	
Reading & irrelevant questions	-	-	-	0
Reading & relevant questions	+	+	-	2
Reading & cloze	+	+	+	3
Reading & sentences making	+	+	++	4

Material

Two reading passages were taken from a collection of College English Test of Band 4 (CET-4) examination papers (Liuxiang, January, 1998). The passages were of an appropriate level of difficulty with a lexical density that would allow general comprehension. Hu and Nation (2000) suggested that in intensive reading of short passages, less than 95% coverage may be suitable for developing language and the use of reading strategies. The passages in the study therefore included 94% of words (which were later verified) that were familiar to the participants. The text was so modified that the number of occurrence for each target word to be learned would appear only once.

¹ The net address is www.educ.goteborg.se/usam/pforum/elpa/ar00.1.html

The selection of the target words to be learned from the reading texts was based on the following criteria. (1) Each target word was supposed to have more than three different senses so that we can investigate whether the participants evaluate the different meanings against the context when performing the assigned tasks. (2) No synonyms or explicit definitions of the target words appeared in the reading passages, and the context of the reading passage should not provide sufficient clues for learners to infer the words' meanings. (3) It was unlikely that the participants had learned these target words. Nine words and expressions were selected for investigation. They were: prodigy, distinct, nurture, discipline, significant, shrinking, sophisticated, lag behind, and provincial.

C. Data Collection and Investigative Procedure

The collection of data was conducted over a period of 4 weeks.

(1) In Week 1, administer the vocabulary size test to make sure that the participants were similar in proficiency level. In addition, a vocabulary checklist test was administered to make sure that the target words were unfamiliar to all participants. Participants were also told not to use dictionaries or any other reference books in the test. Nor were they allowed to write down the words in their notebook. This session lasted about 40 minutes.

(2) In the second week participants were randomly assigned to different tasks designed on the principles of Involvement Load Hypothesis, and their on-line performance of the tasks were recorded by using specially designed computer program. Once the task was completed, the participants were asked to do the immediate posttest in paper-and-pencil form. In the immediate test there were 18 words altogether, among which 9 words were target words and 9 words served as distracters. The participants were supposed to write the Chinese meaning of each target word. This session took about 45 minutes.

(3) In the fourth week, delayed posttest test 1 and delayed posttest test 2 were administered to the same participants during the regular class hours without any previous notice. Dictionary use was not allowed. It took about 10 minutes. The delayed posttest 1 and the immediate test took the same format. The delayed posttest 2 differed from the other two tests in that the target words appeared in sentences instead of being isolated. Participants were required to write the Chinese meaning of each underlined word.

D. The Computer Program

The computer program was so designed that once the participants logged in by name, they would be randomly assigned to one of the four tasks. Whatever task the participants are assigned, the screen would display the text in which the target words are underlined and highlighted in white (the text itself was in blue). Unfamiliar words can be looked up by clicking on them with the mouse. The participants can return to any word any time while reading the text for further information. However, the instructions for the participants varied with the nature of the task they are assigned to. Specifically, for the participants who are assigned to Task 1 and Task 2, the following instruction appears on the screen:

reading the text reading the question — The participants can click either of them according to their own reading habits.

return to reading passages — The participants can click this column and go back to the passages if they are not sure about their answer to the comprehension questions.

done — The participants click on this column when they finish the comprehension questions of the first reading passage.

go on — Click on this column to go on reading the second passage.

exit — The participants click on this when they finish the task

For the participants who are assigned to Task 3, the following instructions are available. On the top of the screen, seven words are available for the participants to choose from and fill in the blanks. These words are all underlined and the meanings of these words can be looked up by simply clicking on them. On the left side of the screen, a reading passage was presented, and on the right side of the screen are the following types of information:

- | item | |
|----------------------------|--|
| 1. <u>*choosing answer</u> | <u>answering questions</u> |
| 2. <u>*choosing answer</u> | |
| 3. <u>*choosing answer</u> | <u>back to cloze</u> — while answering the |
| 4. <u>*choosing answer</u> | questions, the participants can go back |
| 5. <u>*choosing answer</u> | to the reading passage or go on doing |
| | the cloze task. |

Notice: done — The participants could not click this item — unless they have finished both cloze and reading comprehension questions.

In Task 4, the participants were asked to make sentences with the underlined target words. When the participants finished reading the passage, they click on the column writing original sentences, the target words in the text would pop up on another screen. The participants can make sentences by using all the target words. If they are not sure about the meaning of some of the words in the passage, they can click on the column go on reading to return to the passage. When they finish reading the first passage, they can click go on reading the second passage

Whenever a participant selects a component of task by clicking on it, the log registers the click. The online behavior of the participants during the task performance that are recorded by the program are as follows: the words that have been chosen to view, the amount of time spent on each target word, the amount of time spent on each task, and the number of times that the target word has been selected. When the task is completed participants clicked on the label *Done*. All the collected data would then appear on the results screen. Table II below illustrates what the logs look like at the end of a task. We will take Task 1 for example.

The participants' task-induced need, search and evaluation can be inferred from the number of clicks on the target words and the time-on-target words. For Tasks 1 and 2, the focus of observation would mainly be on whether the tasks induced need and search, and for Tasks 3 and 4, the focus would be on all of the three components.

TABLE II.
COMPUTER'S RECORDING OF PARTICIPANTS' ON-LINE LEARNING BEHAVIOR

I. Name	II. Task1	III. Log files
Yanna Lu	Passage 2	StartTime:15:55:58#ReadPassage:15:56:21#ReadQuestion:15:57:11#ReadPassage:15:57:18#agging:15:57:27#ReadQuestion:15:57:31#stopItem:15:57:33#provincial:15:57:48#ReadPassage:15:57:52#ReadQuestion:15:58:50#ReadPassage:15:59:13#ReadQuestion:16:00:05#ReadPassage:16:00:27#ReadQuestion:16:01:31#end:16:01:43#

E. Scoring

The same scoring system was used for the pretest, immediate posttest and the two delayed posttests. Specifically, only when the participants were able to remember or use the target words in the same meanings as those used in the reading passages were their answers regarded as correct, and awarded one point. The incorrect answers were scored no points. The scoring was implemented by two independent raters. Whenever there was difference in the scores given, they resolved the problem through discussion.

III. THE RESULTS

A. Effect of Different Task on Online Learning Behavior

The first key research question is: Do different tasks induce different online learning behavior as revealed in the number of times the target words selected and the amount of time spent on target words? The results for this question will be presented in two parts: one from a quantitative perspective, and the other from a qualitative perspective.

Quantitative Results

As can be seen from Table III, the participants who performed Task 1 and 2 on average clicked the nine target words 4.28 and 5.27 times respectively. This suggested that in Task 1 and Task 2 each target word was looked up less than once (i.e., 0.47 and 0.59 respectively). By contrast, in Task 3 and 4, each target word was looked up more than once (i.e., 2.10 and 1.63). It can therefore be inferred that Task 1 and Task 2 induced neither need nor search, while Task 3 and Task 4 induced both need and search. We compared the four tasks on dictionary activity by ANOVA and found the difference between them was significant ($F=29.38$). A *post hoc* test (Scheffé) was run to find out where the differences lie. Table IV showed that the mean numbers of target word selection in Task 1 was significantly different from those in Task 3 and 4, and it was also true of Task 2 when it was compared with Task 3 and 4. However, there was no significant difference between Task 1 and Task 2, nor was there any significant difference between Task 3 and Task 4.

We also compared the time on target words across the four tasks by ANOVA and found that the differences are significant ($F=27.27$). It is likely that the participants evaluated the meanings of target words only in Task 3 and 4, as on average they spent about half a minute on each target word. By contrast, in Task 1 and 2, the time spent on each target word was only 1 to 2 seconds. Therefore, it can be inferred that Task 3 and Task 4 induced "evaluation", while Task 1 and Task 2 did not.

TABLE III.
MEAN NUMBER OF CLICKS; MEAN TIME AND STANDARD DERIVATIONS ON TARGET WORDS

Task	Clicks on Target Words		Time on Target Words	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	4.28	3.03	17.56	11.72
2	5.27	3.39	25.73	15.47
3	18.90	7.36	243.67	85.79
4	14.70	8.09	248.95	157.22

TABLE IV.
SCHEFFÉ TEST ON DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEAN NUMBERS OF SELECTION ON 9 TARGET WORDS ACROSS 4 TASKS

	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4
Task 1	-0.99	-14.63**	-10.42**
Task 2		-13.63**	-9.43**
Task 3	13.63**		4.20

Qualitative Results

According to Rieder (2002), one of the shortcomings of the current research on incidental vocabulary acquisition is that the selective and quantitative attitude of most studies tends to lead to results that do not grasp the qualitative nature of the acquisition process. To further scrutinize the details of how different tasks induced different learning behavior, the number of clicks on each target word and the amount of time on each target word by each participant under each task condition were re-examined. A summary of online behavior when learning the target word *prodigy* is given below.

As can be seen from Table V, in Task 1 and Task 2, almost all learners (94.4% and 90.9%) clicked the target word only once. In Task 3, the clicks ranged from once to three times, and the participants who clicked the words twice accounted for 71.4% of the group. In Task 4, the clicks on the words ranged between 1 and 5 times, and 25% of the participants who performed this task clicked the target words four or five times. As for the time on the target words, Table VI indicated that in Task 1 and Task 2, the time that most learners spent on target-words ranged between 4- 7 seconds; 3-13 seconds respectively, while in Task 3 and Task 4 the range becomes 5-102 seconds;18-175 seconds respectively. Therefore, the number of clicks on target words and the time on target words rose correspondingly as the tasks became more difficult and demanding.

TABLE V.
NUMBER OF CLICKS ON PRODIGY BY PARTICIPANTS ACROSS TASKS

Task 1	No. of clicks	0	1	2	3	4	5
	participants	1	17	0	0	0	0
	% within Task	5.6	94.4	0	0	0	0
Task 2	No. of clicks	0	1	2	3	4	5
	participants	2	22	0	0	0	0
	% within Task	9.1	90.9	0	0	0	0
Task 3	No. of clicks	0	1	2	3	4	5
	participants	0	3	15	3	0	0
	% within Task	0	14.3	71.4	14.3	0	0
Task 4	No. of clicks	0	1	2	3	4	5
	participants	3	4	5	3	3	2
	% within Task	15	20	25	15	15	10

TABLE VI.
AMOUNT OF TIME(SECOND) ON PRODIGY BY PARTICIPANTS ACROSS TASKS

Task 1	Amount of time	0-3	4-7	9	9-175
	participants	1	16	1	0
	% within Task	5.6	88.8	5.6	0
Task 2	Amount of time	0-3	4-13	17	17-175
	participants	3	18	1	0
	% within Task	13.7	81.8	4.5	0
Task 3	Amount of time	0-7	10-52	84	102
	participants	4	16	1	1
	% within Task	18.2	72.2	4.8	4.8
Task 4	Amount of time	0-17	18-52	77-99	175
	participants	3	13	3	1
	% within Task	15	65	15	5

Although different tasks did induce different incidental vocabulary learning behavior, yet the patterns of behavior for the tasks were not exactly what the Involvement Load Hypothesis predicted them to be. As was clear from Table VII, only Task 1 and Task 3 induced the predicted pattern of behavior, while Task 2 and Task 4 did not.

TABLE VII.
A COMPARISON OF PREDICTED AND OBSERVED TASK-INDUCED PATTERN OF INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING BEHAVIOR

Task	Components of involvement							
	Need		Search		Evaluation		Index	
	P	O	P	O	P	O	P	O
1	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0
2	+	-	+	-	-	-	2	0
3	+	+	+	+	+	+	3	3
4	+	+	+	+	++	+	4	3

Legend: P: predicted task-induced behavior and total involvement index
O: observed task-induced behavior and total involvement index

B. Effect of Different Task-induced Online Learning Behavior on Vocabulary Acquisition

The second research question is: Do different task-induced online learning behavior lead to different learning results in terms of retention rates of newly learned target words? This question is also approached from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives.

Quantitative Results

Table VIII summarized the group means of the four tests across 4 tasks. It showed a sharp increase in the mean from the pretest to the immediate posttest for all tasks, suggesting that a uniform effect of task on the incidental vocabulary learning. That is to say, whatever the involvement load of the task, the learners universally benefited from the task performance. It should be noted, however, the retention rates of target words differ significantly among the tasks in the immediate posttest ($F=3.58$), with the participants performing Task 3 gaining the highest score (Mean = 6.24), followed by those performing Task 4 (Mean = 5.40), Task 2 (Mean = 4.82), and Task 1 (Mean = 4.11) respectively. Also noteworthy is the delayed effect on the four tasks. The differential gains obtained in the 4 tasks disappeared in delayed posttest 1, as shown by the non-significant difference among the group means of the 4 tasks ($F=0.12$), but were preserved to a certain degree in delayed posttest 2 ($F=3.78$), though in a different pattern. Thus, it appears that the tasks assumed to induce different involvement load did not lead to the expected learning results, especially when the delayed effect of learning is taken into consideration.

TABLE VIII.
GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FOUR TESTS FOR 4 TASKS

	Pretest		Immediate Posttest		Delayed Posttest 1		Delayed Posttest 2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Task 1	0.67	0.69	4.11	1.78	3.22	1.96	4.72	1.74
Task 2	0.77	0.81	4.82	2.42	3.27	1.28	5.00	1.35
Task 3	0.71	0.64	6.24	1.92	3.43	1.60	6.05	1.63
Task 4	0.75	0.64	5.40	2.21	3.15	1.35	4.60	1.43

Qualitative Results

To further explore the relationship between online learning behavior and learning results in terms of qualitative analysis, a comparison is made of the participants' look-up behavior about each target word and the correct responses on each target word, as shown in Table IX. It was revealed that words that were looked up most did not necessarily lead to better retention rate. For example, although the number of clicks on the words *distinct*, *discipline*, and *provincial* was greater than those on *lag behind* in Task 2, the retention scores of former three words turned out to be lower than that of the latter.

TABLE IX.
A COMPARISON BETWEEN NUMBER OF CLICKS ON EACH TARGET WORD AND NUMBER OF CORRECT RESPONSES IN FOUR TASKS IN THE IMMEDIATE POSTTEST

Target Words	Task 1(n=18)		Task 2(n=22)		Task 3(n=21)		Task 4(n=20)	
	Clicks	CR	Clicks	CR	Clicks	CR	Clicks	CR
prodigy	17	15	20	17	42	15	45	13
distinct	10	7	15	8	41	14	46	9
nurture	7	8	16	14	49	20	37	13
discipline	8	2	12	6	49	12	34	6
provincial	10	4	12	3	47	11	27	6
significant	3	6	7	14	48	15	31	14
lag behind	9	18	9	16	49	16	20	18
shrink	5	6	15	13	32	13	30	15
sophisticated	7	8	10	15	38	15	23	14

Legend: CR = number of correct responses

IV. THE RESULTS

A. Involvement Load Hypothesis Revisited

The first research question aimed to investigate whether different tasks induced different online learning behavior. The results indicated that tasks assumed to have different involvement load did elicit different online learning behavior as reflected in the number of clicks on target words and time-on-target words. However, the patterns of behavior are not quite what the tasks were supposed to generate. Specifically, the involvement index in Task 2 (read, and then answer relevant questions) and Task 4 (read and then make sentence) were hypothesized to be 2 and 4 respectively. However, the observed task-induced involvement index for the two tasks was 0 and 3 respectively. Only Task 1 and Task 3 induced the predicted pattern of behavior; while Task 2 and Task 4 did not. This partly explains why the learning results were often not the same as predicted by the conditions in which the learners performed the task, a phenomenon that was also observed in other similar studies (e.g., Huang, 2003; Laufer & Hulstijn 2001). The discrepancies between the learning behavior predicted by the Involvement Load Hypothesis and the actual observation of the online learning indicated that it is difficult, if not impossible, to operationalize the concepts of need, search, and evaluation.

Secondly, the investigation of effect of task-induced on-line learning behavior on incidental vocabulary learning results showed that the participants performing the tasks with higher involvement load achieved significantly higher scores than those performing the tasks supposed to have lower involvement load in the immediate posttest, but the order of task effectiveness is not quite what the Hypothesis predicted. According to the Hypothesis, the order of task effectiveness are expected to have a pattern of Task 4>Task 3>Task 2>Task 1. However, the pattern of the observed

task effectiveness turned out to be Task 3>Task 4>Task 2>Task 1. Therefore, the Involvement load hypothesis was only partially verified. In addition, the advantage gained in the immediate posttest disappeared in delayed posttest 1 and was preserved to a lesser degree in delayed posttest 2, and the hypothesis was not verified in the delayed posttests.

Finally, in the present study, it was found the time learners spent on target words across the four tasks were significantly different. Therefore it might not be the nature of the task that induced effective learning, the time learners spend on target words also played a role in better vocabulary learning results.

B. Task-induced Dictionary Behavior and Incidental Vocabulary Learning

It was found that the mean number of clicks of the four tasks was significantly different from each other, with Task 3 inducing the most clicks (18.9), followed by Task 4 (14.7), Task 2 (5.27), and Task 1 (4.28) respectively. In the immediate posttest the retention rates of target words were of the same order as their dictionary activity, with the participants performing Task 3 gaining the highest score, followed by those performing Task 4, Task 2, and Task 1 respectively.

How do our results compare with previous studies of dictionary behavior in incidental vocabulary acquisition? Monica Hill & Batia Laufer (2003) asked 96 Chinese EFL learners to read a text containing twelve unfamiliar target words and performed one of the three tasks: a form-oriented production task, a form-oriented comprehension task, and a meaning-oriented production task. The results showed that the two form-oriented tasks were more effective for vocabulary learning than the meaning-oriented task. The tasks were different in the amount of dictionary activity they provoked. The order in effectiveness (Task 1–the worst, Task 3–the best) was the same as the order in the dictionary activity. Task 1 provoked the lowest activity and Task 3 the highest. They conclude, therefore, that an important factor determining task effectiveness for vocabulary learning is the amount of word-related activity that the task induces. In Monica Hill & Batia Laufer's (2000) study, they investigated the learners' dictionary look-up patterns and their retention of these words. It was found that the correlation between the number of selection and retention is weak and insignificant in the case of both Israeli learners and Hong Kong learners.

Compared with findings of the previous studies, our study supported that of Monica Hill & Batia Laufer (2003), for it was found that different tasks induced significantly different amount of dictionary activity, which, in turn, lead to different retention rates. The order of task effectiveness was of the same order with the amount of dictionary activity.

Why did different tasks induce different dictionary behavior, which in turn led to different learning results? We might explain the learning results from the perspective of Rider's "combined model of incidental vocabulary acquisition." According to Rieder (2002), the conditions for the incidental acquisition of an unknown word which a learner encounters in a text appear to be the result of two complementary determinants: the availability of the resources required for specifying the contextual meaning successfully, and the necessity for focusing on this particular word.

The observed online learning behaviors and learning results in the present study can be accounted for from the perspective of "necessity of focus on word". When performing Task 1 and Task 2, the learners' primary purpose would be the text comprehension. Therefore, they would simply stay on the textual level while trying to figure out the meaning of the unknown words. Even if the learners invest effort in inferring the meaning of the new word, they would still be operating on the textual level. In Task 3 and Task 4, the learners were asked to do the cloze exercise or produce their own sentences by using these target words. These two tasks are word-focused production tasks. Therefore, the learners felt obliged to invest greater efforts on target words by clicking them on computer. At this moment their focus would shift from the text level to the word level, and they would use all resources available, including background knowledge, dictionary information, to achieve the specification of word meaning. Therefore, Task 3 and Task 4 induced significantly more dictionary look-ups than Task 1 and Task 2 did. In addition, the learners' active shift from the text level to the word level would provide a better chance for the acquisition to take place.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In the present study, Laufer & Hulstijn's Involvement Load Hypothesis was tested by a different methodology from that adopted by the previous similar studies. That is, instead of focusing only on the product of learning, the present study also attended to the details of learners' online learning behavior via a specially designed computer program. This improvement in the research methodology enables a direct observation of how three major components of the model, i.e., need, search, and evaluation manifest themselves under different task conditions, which, in turn, provides the empirical basis for establishing the link between learning behavior and learning results in L2 incidental vocabulary acquisition. Although the Involvement Load Hypothesis was only partially verified in the present study, we gained deeper understanding of the nature of the three task-specific components (need, search, evaluation) specified in the Hypothesis. By observing learners' task-induced online learning behavior, it was found that the criteria that Laufer and Hulstijn have proposed for grading the task effectiveness may be too simplified for the sophisticated nature of the cognitive processes that the different task induce. The Involvement Load Hypothesis might be regarded only as an idealized conceptualization of how the traditional general labels such as noticing, attention, and elaboration can be operationalized into task-specific components.

The study shows that reading supplemented with word-focused activities, such as reading and filling in the text, plays a crucial role in building the learners' lexical knowledge. Teachers should be encouraged to design such tasks to foster

vocabulary learning. In addition, some reinforcement activities should be provided in teaching to consolidate the learners' knowledge of the words. Last but not least, students should be encouraged to use the multimedia program to assist vocabulary learning. The computer program kept a log of learners' learning behavior. Learners can be invited to see the results screen and feedback would be offered to them immediately after reading.

The present study is liable to the following weaknesses. First of all, the participants were not trained in different tasks they were going to perform. Some learners might click wrong button due to their unfamiliarity with the on-line learning. Future computer program should include a warm-up session before participants received the treatment. Secondly, the study is limited in the choice of target words. In the study some students had already known one sense of some target words before the study began. This might influence their learning processes and learning results. The target words chosen for the investigation are expected to be totally unfamiliar to learners in future studies.

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On the Translation of Subtitles from the Perspective of Cultural Dimensions

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Abstract—Culture is an extensive concept to people in every country. We can hardly define it exactly or accurately. Though many scholars have been discussed about western culture, Kluckhohn-Strodbeck's cultural-dimension is one of the commonly used theories when people analyze western culture. In this paper, the author will try to analyze it based on the case study of *Desperate Housewives*, an American television comedy-drama series with eight seasons and portrayed every aspects of life under the western culture. This paper will choose some typical clips of it to analyze and try to be helpful for communications with western people.

Index Terms—western culture, cultural-dimensions

I. INTRODUCTION

As cross-cultural communication between China and other countries becomes frequent and goes deeper, more and more foreign movies and TV series have flooded into China. Among them, American movies and TV series are particularly popular. With the popularity of the English language, many young Chinese people prefer to watch the original show with translated subtitles, which they consider as a fashion and a good way of learning English. Consequently, translated subtitles, functioning as a bridge between the original show and the target receptors, become increasingly important. Subtitling, one of the main types of audiovisual translation, has become a hot subject in translation studies attracting more and more attention. However, compared with traditional translation researches, subtitle translation theory is far from mature and systematic.

In order to thoroughly understand western culture, I hope to analyze the clips in *Desperate Housewives*, an American television comedy-drama series, in this paper. It portrayed every aspects of life under the western culture. Since its premiere, the show enjoys great popularity both at home and abroad. It is the winner of multiple Emmy, Golden Globe and Screen Actors Guild award and a representative series to show western culture. Culture tends to be an extensive concept to people in every country. We can hardly define it exactly or accurately. The reason why people always compare it to an iceberg is that only a small part of culture is visible and the hidden part like foreign culture that beneath the surface is invisible but large. In this paper the author uses Kluckhohn and Strodbeck's theory—Dimensions of Culture to analyze *Desperate Housewives*. Dimensions of Culture is a theory that has six dimensions, the nature of people, duty towards others, the relationship with nature, mode of activity, temporal orientation, and privacy of space. It is one of the most influential theories about culture. (Kluckhohn, 1951)

The play has plenty of typical western culture, traditional western thinking, language and action patterns, and so on. For example in *Desperate Housewives*, there are many kinds of parties, talks about the value of independence, even the discrimination against black people. In this paper the author puts the theory into *Desperate Housewives* under the help of Kluckhohn and Strodbeck's value orientations, and try to achieve the final target that find reasons why the western people have a different culture with us and how to treat it in our real life. This paper focuses on analyzing the western culture based on the clips of *Desperate Housewives* with the help of value orientation method. Under the value orientation method, we can make some prediction of the responds of western people and adjust our behavior before unnecessary conflicts. Finally the author sums up with the theory of Kluckhohn and Strodbeck's Dimensions of Culture and draw my own conclusions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many famous people have attempted to define the term culture. In other words, language is a component of culture and plays a very important role in culture. Language and culture rely on each other. Without language, culture would be impossible. Language is the base of entire culture, and that it is only in language that culture can be well presented and handed down from generation to generation. On the other hand, language is influenced and shaped by culture; it reflects culture. Language reflects characteristics of culture and predicts the developing orientation of culture. In the broadest sense, language is the symbolic representation of a people. The development of language often embodies the change of culture. Having the backgrounds of history and culture, it compromises the method both to life, living and thinking. So it is quite reasonable to say that learning a language is, in a way, learning the culture and habit of the country where the language is spoken.

The foundations for VOM were developed in the 1940s and 1950s by anthropologists with the Harvard Values Project. They believed that it is possible to distinguish culture. Another commonly used dimension is Geert Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions. And also, Geert Hofstede's major research is in organizations and cross-cultural groups and this made him the famous pioneer. He founded the systematic framework because he founded and differentiated the cultures in national and organizational aspects. In 1965, Geert founded the personnel research department of IBM Europe. In 1967 he made a large survey study dealing the national values differences across the world in the subsidiaries of the international company. During the survey, he compared many employees of the IBM Company in different countries. Firstly, he did his research in big countries and later he did the same experiments in other 50 countries and three regions, which made it the biggest data base for cross-samples at that time. He then had six dimensions of value, namely, power, collective, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, temporal orientation and indulgence. (Baker, 1998)

Edward T. Hall, the famous anthropologist presented the terms of high context culture, which means that in the daily communication there a tendency to use the high context messages over the lower ones. This kind of option of communication styles can be seen in a culture which will provide for in-groups that share the same experiences and expectations. Many things are not said in high context cultures because the culture can explain them. For higher context, the choice of words and phrases is very important because there are many effective words and phrases to in-group, in contrast, what the people in lower context culture need to do is to use the simpler and more explicit words and phrases. (Nida, 2000)

Dr. Harry C. Triandis is the key pioneers of the field of Cross-Cultural Psychology and he established a clear subject in psychology. His main study concentrates on the relationship between the backgrounds of culture and the human behavior, and the different behaviors between the individuals and groups. The differences include the prejudices and intercultural training for communication in other cultures. (Venuti, 1995)

Triandis noted that the most important cultural dimension in social behavior is individualism vs. collectivism. He points out that cultural and individual level individualism and collectivism are interrelated, even though this relation might not result in a simple one-to-one correspondence. An individual can show both individualistic and collectivistic traits at the same time. At the individual level these concepts are treated as separate dimensions. Different terms are used to describe individual level dimensions. The collectivist side included conformity and security and other collectivist values, which are especially high in East Asian countries, in traditional societies, and in the former communist countries. The collectivist values such as the security and conformity are on the collective side. According to his concept, we can identify the culture into four types: horizontal, vertical, horizontal collectivism and vertical collectivism. (Baker, 1998)

III. KLUCKHOHN AND STRODTBECK'S PRIVACY OF SPACE

In the society, how can we deal with the space? Who owns the privacy of space and why do people have right to occupy the privacy of space? As we know, the privacy of space is very important, as meetings are only held in closed areas. On the contrary, the alternative aspect will allow people to go the place which is open to all. Kluckhohn uses three orientations: individual, linear and collateral. The American culture characterizes the individual model, in which the family relationship is limited both in intensity and in scope. Rather, the family bond is more intense in the collateral model than the individual one. Compared with the nuclear family in American culture, the immediate family is the main feature in the latter model, which include uncles, grandparents and cousins etc. compared with the above two patterns, the linear pattern is very similar to the collateral, however, it extends wider to the distant relatives. To be more specific, all the people who are related to the family by blood are included, even the ancestors are regarded as the important ones. Of course, all the important decisions cannot be made without consulting the ancestors.

a. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's Mode of Activity

Kluckhohn made the valued personality types the fourth value orientation. In the organization and societies, we may wonder, what is the primary pattern? Being is more important in some societies, during which what you do is less important. While, in other societies, the social status is from the actions rather than the ascribed status---the action-oriented society.

b. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's the Nature of People

Kluckhohn insisted that a society will first tell the nature of a man: good, evil or mixed. But she warns that this kind of predictions may not true or mutable. Because human nature plays a very important role in our world view, it is quite impossible for use to judge another person without referring to our own nature---- judge other cultures with our own as the norm.

IV. CASE STUDY---ANALYSES OF DESPERATE HOUSEWIVES BY WESTERN CULTURE

a. Western Culture of Desperate Housewives

Desperate Housewives, American television comedy-drama series, tell us about four housewives work through their daily lives, secrets, family troubles and so on. It portrayed people in middle class of America, and since its premiere, the show has been well received by viewers at home and abroad.

In this series we can see some extend of feminist of western culture. In the plot, we can discuss the feminist and individualism in popular western culture. For example, the housewives want the equal opportunity or responsibility to have a job, or build a successful career, take care of the children as well. This series show us the current generation of women in western so we can discuss the feminist based on it.

To study the western culture based on the clips of *Desperate Housewives*, not only can help me to understand the speaker's way of thinking, but also can make me understand the western culture more deeply and then realize how to get along with westerners. I can gain a lot of language knowledge through analyze the clips of *Desperate Housewives* and then learn the theories on cultural difference, especially Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's value orientations, and finally achieve the final target that put the theory into them, and find reasons why the western people have a different culture with us and proficiency in the use of those theories to analyze text.

For analysis the western culture, we have many of theories to do this. For example, Geert Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions is a theory to analyze the western culture and measure cultural differences. The six dimensions of values he proposed are – power, collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, temporal orientation, and indulgence. Use those six dimensions of values to analyze the western culture in desperate housewives I will show the clips about the relationship between four housewives to prove the collectivism (versus individualism), and the relation between husband and wives to discuss power (equality versus inequality) and masculinity (versus femininity), and the way that mother handle the children stuff to talk about indulgence (versus restraint).

High context culture and the contrasting "low context culture" are terms presented by the anthropologist Edward T. Hall. It is also a famous theory of dealing with culture. If I analyze the western culture in desperate housewives with it, I will compare the western culture with our Chinese culture and discuss which is more like low context culture and which is more like the high context culture and what is the reason caused the consequence. In addition, Dr. Harry C. Triandis is one of the key pioneers of the field of Cross-Cultural Psychology, which was established as a distinct discipline within psychology. . And he noted that the most important cultural dimension in social behavior is individualism vs. collectivism. So this is the point to analyze the western culture if I use this theory. The western people are different from us with many aspects. Individualism vs. collectivism may be one of distinct part of them. So I can show the clips of housewives about how to deal with the secrets or troubles whether they are individualism or collectivism. More importantly, in this paper, I will use Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's value orientations theory to analyze the western culture in desperate housewives, especially the three of them—Privacy of Space, Mode of Activity and the Nature of People. (Baker, 1998)

i. Analysis of Privacy of Space in Desperate Housewives

In the opinion of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's value orientations, people in western culture consider that it is important to have their own space.

For example, in *Desperate Housewives* Season 8 Episode 10, when Bree wanted to end her life in the hotel, she wanted to die with elegance and grace as always. Bree had everything she needed for an elegant death, except privacy. Because her neighbor Renee broken into her room. And she lost the privacy for some more time since Renee found she wanted to end her life.

"Hello, sunshine. How you feelin' this mornin'?...You will drive me absolutely crazy."

From the conversation, we can see that Bree told Renee that she wants a privacy space even she felt sad about her life. We can see the right of each citizen to have a place they can call their own is important to western people. However, typically in Chinese culture, we will not do that like Bree. Chinese people tend to tell people what a hard time they are having and in Chinese we say "compare bitterness". In addition, Chinese people will not ask for a private room so directly like Bree, we hold the view that it is impolite to ask people out of our room. So if we company with a foreigner with bad mood, we should give him a private room and if he ask for it directly we should accept it and do not have to worry that why he treat me so rudely.

All cultures have unwritten rules on the distance members maintain from one another. In the U.S. we tend to feel that people want to protect their privacy, and they will tell others directly. So if we have the opportunity to communicate with western people. We should care about the privacy space of them. We should understand the need that western people care about it and obey the norm of it. And try to watch ourselves even we are not talking to the western people directly, because they may notice that and have the bad impression on us. And since space is required by western people, we should be sensitive to this and give it to enough to them if necessary.

With the new multi-method and multi trait approach, this study adopted multiple measures to analyze the value orientations of collectivism and individualism among teenagers under different cultural settings. The study attempted to achieve some progress in both theoretical constructs and research methodology on value orientation. The results showed that 1) subjects of different age groups and from different regions had significantly different value orientations of collectivism and individualism; 2)there were significant different correlations among the four methods (measures), indicating the feasibility of multi-method multi-trait analysis; 3) the comparison between the Chinese and overseas' results of value orientations of collectivism and individualism revealed different patterns. The present study provides useful evidence and theoretical/methodological implications for further research.

ii. Analysis of Mode of Activity in Desperate Housewives

What is the important pattern in the society varies in differ societies. The Nature of People can be understood through

this way—what is the best mode of activity? There are three ways we can see in different culture—being, doing and becoming. In western culture people pay more attention to the last one. “You told me to shake things up, so I decided to make work a place I want to be. Hope this helps. And remember, you can be anything you wanna be. Nothing is out of reach. Honey, this is how you shake things up? By giving away all the company money? Oh, actually, I was afraid that Patrick would put a stop payment so I decided to start using our personal account. You can be honest with me. Have you been drinking again? people's misery without thinking for one minute how they're suffering. What's crazy is thinking you can find happiness in a paycheck or behind the wheel of a sports car. What's crazy is thinking that you're doing something important with your life just because you're wearing a tie.” In this part we can see that after a friend died for others, Carlos began to know that what the nature of people is. American people believed that what a person accomplishes is a measure of his or her worth. So the behave of Carlos was considered to be like a crazy person. He does not want to earn money and accomplish some success in career ant more but to help people in need.

But in the next episode, Gaby told Carlos that “I was wrong. If being a counselor's gonna make you happy, then that's what you should do.” We can also draw a conclusion from it that people are hoping to change this culture in America.

iii. Analysis of Nature of People in Desperate Housewives

How can people judge others' nature and beliefs can be explained as good, bad or combined. Here 'good' is in the traditional sense that most people are basically pretty good at heart; they are born good. And bad means most people can't be trusted. People are basically bad and need to be controlled.

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck believe in western culture that neither evil nor good can reflect the basic nature of people because they are have some combination—mixed.

In Desperate Housewives Season 8 Episode 1, Carlos was killed a person to try to protect her wife. And other housewives found that and hope to help Carlos avoid going to prison. One of them go move the car off the trail. You gonna be okay? Another said are we really doing this? ...We drive carpool. This is a very bad man. He attacked our friend, and her husband protected her, and now we are gonna protect them.”

From this conversation we can see the complication of nature of people. Desperate housewives help each other to get rid of the punishment of law but at the same time they are protect the one they loved. In desperate housewives we can see many times that people go see the priests and confess to them. In Desperate Housewives Season 8 Episode 1, Carlos was very short-tempered lately because he killed a guy. Gaby hoped him to move on with his life. From the above part we can obviously found that western people believe in God and they hope to be a good person through their effort. And people in western culture believe that they can be changed with the right guidance and wanted to be helped with priests. Evil and perfectible was how Kluckhohn described the American view of human nature that had grown out of the Puritan heritage. That heritage dictated that "constant control and discipline as essential if any real goodness is to be achieved and maintained," and that "the danger of regression is always present". From the conversation between Gaby and Carlos, we can obviously found that they believe human should be self-control and discipline and if they did something evil, they should confess to a priest and look for a change. Different from western culture, Chinese people do not have priests to confess, because the Religious doctrines are not commonly accepted by them.

After the final eighth season, Desperate Housewives came to an end on May 15, 2012, and I have watched every single episode of it and get to know some aspects of western culture. A number of parties, different values towards life, emphasis on independence, and the way of education are all different from our Chinese culture to some extent. I hold the idea that if we are trying to understand it and master the knowledge about the value orientation method, the western culture is not difficult to understand.

TABLE:
KLUCKHOHN'S VALUE-ORIENTATION MODEL
VALUE ORIENTATION

DIMENSION	VALUE ORIENTATION		
1. Innate Predisposition	Good (mutable or immutable)	Neither good nor bad (mutable or immutable)	Evil (mutable or immutable)
2. Man's Relations to Nature	Mastery (man over nature)	Harmony (man in nature)	Subjugation (man under nature)
3. Time Dimension	Future-oriented	Present-oriented	Past-oriented
4. Valued Personality Type	Activity	Being-in-Becoming	Being
5. Modality of Relationship	Individual	Collateral	Linear

The above table is made by Kluckhohn, and we can see the six dimensions from different value orientations directly. With the combination of clips in desperate housewives, we can see that the western culture have some rules and we can predict to some extent and avoid unnecessary conflict. For example, from the daily life of housewives I know that women hope to have the same opportunity to work like men and they believe that they can be successful like men. So when we stay with western people, we should get rid of the traditional thinking of woman Chinese culture and show the respect of them. Also, we can see that the nature of people is complicated. We cannot simply say whether we are evil or good. When they decide to do something they consider it from different aspect and finally decide what to do.

In addition, we can see that most people still have American dream, they want the opportunity for prosperity and success and believe that a person accomplishes is a measure of his or her worth. If one denies this conception, people will consider him as a crazy person. We can predict this phenomenon from the value orientation method, because

American people think highly of action, they hold the view that people should keep working and make the change in business. Also in value orientation method, we should especially pay attention to the privacy they need, if we have business with western people.

V. CONCLUSION

Along with the globalization, we have more opportunities to communicate or cooperate with western people, so it is important for us to not only master the basic language of English but also get to know the western culture and try to understand it. The author holds the idea that if we hope to communicate with people in western cultures and avoid unnecessary conflicts, we should master the value orientation method because it can predict some responds of western people. If we adopt this method in our daily communication with western people, it may guide us how to behave properly.

Through the analysis, my understanding of western culture was improved through the guidance of theories and the author has found proper way to do deal with western people. The first thing we should do is to learn western culture but this is not the point. His purpose is that we should try to understand western culture through their history or other theories such us the value orientation method, and make some predictions of their responds and change the improper behaviors in front of western people and to be harmony in communication. After adopting the value orientation method, we may found that it is not difficult to understand the western culture.

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Active and Passive Voice Constructions by Indonesian Student Writers

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Abstract—Author stance, which echoes authors' attitudes, personal thought, and feeling within the text, can be revealed through preference of voice construction. This study aims at examining the quantitative data of active and passive voice construction used in the English Department of State University of Malang students' theses, as well as exploring the implication arising from the issue. The data in this descriptive qualitative study is taken from a corpus of English Department undergraduate theses written in 2011 to 2013. The corpus data and the frequency of both voice constructions of selected Biber's (2004) stance verbs are calculated using Ant.Conc 3.2.4 corpus software. Findings show that the frequency of active voice construction is higher than that of the passive, as much as 64.8% out of 3901 tokens of the stance verb *suggest, expect, show, predict, report, believe, hope, allow* are in active voice. The most frequent stance verb in active voice constructions is the verb *show*, while that in passive voice is the verb *expect* and the least frequent in both voice constructions is the verb *predict*. This study suggests that the frequent active voice construction found in Indonesian undergraduate theses resembles English native author's writing style. This fact may indicate Indonesian student author's determination to be acknowledged internationally.

Index Terms—voice construction, corpus study, stance, academic writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Active and passive voice constructions are interchangeably used in academic and non-academic writing for different purposes, for example passive voice constructions is used to execute special discourse functions due to its marked voice (Biber et al., 2003) such as creating distance between writer and the text mostly found in scientific paper (Baratta, 2009). However, numerous studies on passive have been conducted from various spectrums to obtain thorough understanding on both passive and active voice constructions.

Passive voice construction is mainly used in method section to get rid of personal whims and fancies, and thus obtain impersonality and universality of the research (Ahmad, 2012). Ahmad found that 70% of passive was implemented in method of Medical and Natural Science articles; however, the use of active voice construction was higher in other sections. It can be assumed that the style of English native writer is to deploy more passive, while the examination of written discourse production of non-native speaker showed that non-native English writer displayed complications and tendency of avoiding passive voice, though they have undertaken many years of L2 learning and use (Hinkel, 2004; Espinoza, 1997).

On the other spectrum, Baratta (2009) investigated the stance derived from the passive voice as it was an advantageous tool to indicate the writer's feeling, which underlined the speaker as the subject focus, not as the rear-object. Passive voice to indicate author's stance is supported by the semantic class of words, that each word conveys different meaning and purpose. Biber (2004) gave new sight on how stance verbs vary from different kinds of genre, including academic writing. He indicated that there was a general shift in cultural norms that speakers and writers were more willing to express stance in recent periods than in earlier historical periods.

Different perspectives of passive voice and marking stance evoke new research focusing on the usage of active voice and passive voice in academic writing to show the author stance. This research is interested in scrutinizing active and passive voice construction used in the English Department of State University of Malang students' theses. The core proposals are to find what makes it different to express ideas in active or passive construction, and the implications of using the two constructions for academic writing. In researching such phenomena, corpus-based study is conducted to enable the researcher to create generalization and convincing conclusions upon the phenomena (Baker, 2006). Corpus

based study allows data restriction on the selected data only and the patterns and trends will be shown thoroughly. The result also contributes to the improvement of the teaching of writing, and it can be regarded as a new encouragement for students to express their ideas in active or passive interchangeably.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Stance Verb and Semantic Classification*

Referring to Biber (2004), it is important to consider the grammatical system to analyze the authorial stance: (semi)modals, adverbials, and complement clause construction. Those specific grammatical devices are distinguished and specified into semantic domains. However, due to the focus of the present study on active and passive voice construction, the verb element control is the most appropriate, followed by that-complement clause and to-complement clause. Table 2.1 shows the verb stance of each semantic class by Biber (2004):

TABLE 2.1
STANCE VERB (BIBER, 2004)

That- Complement Clause	Non-factive/communication	Imply, report, suggest, etc
	Attitudinal	Anticipate, expect, prefer, etc
	Factive	Demonstrate, realize, show, etc
	Likelihood	Appear, Hypothesize, Predict, etc
To- Complement Clause	Speech act	Urge, Advise, Convince, etc
	Mental/cognition	Believe, Learn, Pretend, etc
	Desire/intent/decision	Aim, Hope, Decide, etc
	Modality/cause/effort	Allow, Leaver, Order, etc
	Likelihood	Happen, Seem, Appear, etc

B. *Voice Construction and Academic Writing*

Passive voice construction can be useful to write descriptive passages as well as give instructions. In contrast to passive construction, using active voice will background the process or the description, the focus of stage is lost and the emphasis shifts to the agent (Swales & Feak, 2008). Nevertheless, Beason and Lester (2003) argue that passive voice can lead to a dull style because it does not stress action and hides the agent doing an action. Tendency to show politeness through employing passive construction may occur, yet providing reason might be necessary. However, when the doer of the action is unimportant or unknown, the passive voice is appropriate.

In general, instructional detail of using specific voice is not properly addressed in certain degree. This may become the result of the traditional separation of teaching grammar and teaching writing (Hinkel, 2004). The teaching of grammar covers the use of tenses and voices without relating those to the academic writing, while, in writing instruction, the use of voice varies depending on the purpose of the author stance.

It is important to note recent change in English native speaker's academic writing style, in which writers are encouraged to use more active voice rather than passive. Regardless the debate over improper use of active voice, we can underline the change in the teaching of writing (i.e Hartley, 2008; Smith, 2008; and Norris, 2013)..

C. *Voice Construction and Authorial Voice*

Academic writing is regarded as a tool to communicate authors' critical thinking and projecting the content. Moreover, it becomes a useful tool to gain credibility by showing an identity invested with individual authority, displaying confidence in the judgment to their ideas (Hyland, 2002b). One of the ways writers can embody themselves in readers' consciousness is through pointing out the use of I to show the author's credibility, commitment to the words presented, and as well as to engage with the readers (Hyland, 2002a).

Taking into account of the authorial voice construction, it can be drawn that employing author pronoun means conveying active voice construction within the sentence. In other words, the debate over authorial voice, whether or not to project the author in the text and engage with readers, will be in the same light as choosing active or passive construction. The choice is seen as a depiction on how authors take stance.

D. *Types of Passive Voice Construction*

Active construction is the most common, while passive is less common and used for special discourse functions; the passive reduces the importance of the agent of the action and fulfill other discourse function (Biber, et al., 2003). There are several forms of passive, mostly are constructed in form of the auxiliary be and an *-ed* participle. However, passive can also be formed with auxiliary get, which is called the get-passive.

Passive construction occurs either as short passive or long passive. Long passive contain a by-phrase which specifies the agent of the action, however there are also exception to the use of *by* to govern the agentive phrase, i.e *the room was permeated with gas* and *he is known to me* (Coetzee, 1980). In principle, the long passive can be replaced by an active clause with the same meaning, yet it will be less appropriate than the passive voice (Biber et al., 2003). Biber et al.'s (2003) principals for choosing long passives in writing include: (1) the information-flow, in which preference for presenting new information at the end of a clause; (2) end-weight, in this case the agent does not hold up the processing

of the rest of the clause; and (3) the long passive place initial emphasis on an element of the clause, which is the topic or theme. In other words, long passive construction allows the object agent to have less attention from the readers and somehow lack of responsibility.

Meanwhile, short passive is when the agent is not specified. According to Biber, et al. (2003), the short passive is a useful device in academic writing because it gives the status of topic to the direct object of the corresponding active clause. The sense of objective detachment also appears by employing the non-agentive passive. However, the short passive should not be applied when the agent is actually present, as Coetzee (1980) believed that short passive should not be thought of as derived from the long; short passive should be treated as agentless sentences. What is interesting about this agent device, according to Coetzee, was that it operated as though the derivation of the short passive were via agent deletion from the long passive. It creates such understanding that this kind of process allows the readers, as well as the author, to hide and rediscover the hidden agent. Hence, this agentless passive particularly occurs more frequently in serious scientific writing than in any other genre (Coetzee, 1980).

E. Language Typology and Culture

Passive in the context of language typology will be the distinction between topic-prominent language and subject prominent language (Li & Thompson, 1976). The basic organization of topic-prominent language is the terms of topic and comment; while that of subject-prominent language is the subject and predicate. East Asian language belongs to topic-prominent language and Indo-European language belongs to subject-prominent language. In relation to passive voice construction, it is common to find passive construction in subject-prominent language; while, in topic-prominent language, the passive construction only serve small portion or even not at all. Li and Thompson (1976) argue that this is because topic- prominent language allows the noun phrase as the topic sentence without changing the form of verb. In other words, the sentence sounds passive while the verb construction does not show change of passive, as in subject-prominent language the verb undergo a change in format.

These separate typologies contribute to the different rhetoric style of both languages, because topic-prominent language focuses on the topic, while subject- prominent language focuses on the relationship between subject and the predicate. The difference and the impact it arises were analyzed by Basthomi (2006). The study investigated introductory section of research articles written by Indonesian authors, and the study suggested that Indonesian authors have weak bargaining power due to their failure to accomplish several expectations of international editors or reviewers. Considerably, the L1 of the international editors are English, which is subject-prominent; hence, problematic issues variously occur.

Cultural expectation around academic discourse, different rhetoric, and approach to authority which non-native English speaker do not possess, then becomes the main concern (Starfield, 2007). Basthomi (2006) also mentioned that Indonesian writers of English had no problem with mastering linguistic code in English like phonological, morphological, lexical, and syntactic features of level; yet, acquisition of cultural properties, including rhetorical conventions are still hard to attain.

III. THE CORPUS: C-SMILE

C-SMILE (Corpus of State University of Malang Indonesian Learners' English) is a collection of 124 undergraduate theses from English Department (and the number is accumulating along the submission of the theses) totaling around 1,587,059 words. It epitomizes academic writing of theses from English pedagogy, English linguistics, and English literature across years starting from 2011 to 2013. C-SMILE encapsulates various methods of research like qualitative research, quantitative research, classroom action research, research and development, and mixed research methods. However, the distribution of each method is not equal in every year and discipline. Moreover, each thesis may comprise different number of chapters; while one thesis can consist of five or six chapters, others can contain only four chapters. These various distributions provide us with access to the desired area of the corpus and thus help us to be more focused.

The corpus data were collected from the library of the Faculty of Letters, State University of Malang, Indonesia, in view of the criteria set as follows. First, the data should be in the form of undergraduate theses. Second, the data are written in English. Third, the data are produced by Indonesian writers. The data satisfying the criteria were accessed in the form of soft files of *pdf* and/or *doc*. files. For the purpose of analysis, we relied on AntConc 3.2.4w (Windows) 2011 version as a tool to work on the concordance properties.

As a corpus-based project, the present study, by nature, is inductive which is aligned to qualitative design (Litosselitti, 2010). However, the present research also implements a quantitative method, like frequency information on the occurrences of particular linguistic phenomena. As such, as a corpus study, this study amalgamates both quantitative and qualitative methods.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Findings

Concerning the first proposal to decode the different use of active and passive voice construction, the distribution of frequency of active and passive voice are presented in Table 4.1 below.

TABLE 4.1
FREQUENCY OF ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

No	Active			Passive		
	Semantic Class	Verb	frequency	Semantic class	Verb	frequency
1	factual/certainty	show	1600	attitudinal	Expect	555
2	non-factive/ communication	suggest	302	factual/certainty	Show	439
3	Cognition	believe	255	non-factive/ communication	Suggest	207
4	modality/cause/effort	allow	137	modality/cause/effort	Allow	55
5	attitudinal	expect	90	cognition	Believe	49
6	desire/intention/decision	hope	60	communication/ speech act	Report	35
7	communication/ speech act	report	45	desire/intention/decision	Hope	22
8	likelihood	predict	37	likelihood	Predict	13
TOTAL			2526	TOTAL		1375
			64.8%			35.2%

Active voice constructions occur more frequent than passive voice construction, as it appears 64.8% and 35.2%, respectively. The total word tokens of the eight stance verbs: *show*, *suggest*, *believe*, *allow*, *expect*, *hope*, *report*, *predict*, in both constructions are 3901 tokens comprising 2526 tokens of active voice construction and 1375 tokens of passive voice construction.

Show

The verb *show*, semantic class of factive or certainty, hints 2039 times from the total 3901 tokens in active and passive voice construction. Active voice construction of *show* is applied in the form of present tense, past tense, and present perfect. Excerpt (1) below illustrate examples of active voice construction of *show*.

Excerpt (1)

(a) rs analysis from the second re-administration shows that 38% of the multiple-choice items have inadeq he role-play cards. (AE-2013- edu.txt)

(b) Then, the researcher tried to show the idea and design of the role-play cards. She a (BN-2013-edu.txt)

(c) changed the material. Figure 3.7 in the left side shows the artificial bills before the validation which (EM-2013-edu.txt)

(d) (ing a Recount Paragraph. The result of the study showed that the use of Mr. Bean videos through writing (K-2011-edu.txt)

(e) In the first meeting of cycle 1, it was showed that the class was still in poor situation (SIC) (HM-2011-edu.txt)

Data number (1a) and (1b) are the type of occurrence that dominates in data corpus. Data number (1c) gives impression that the word *show* functions as lexical to point out or give explanation about something. In this example, it functions to point out that *Figure 3.7* (data 1c) has artificial bills before the validation. Data number (1d) is written in the past tense form which is mostly found in Data Findings because the form is generally used to report event that has been conducted by the researcher. Sentence in data number (1e) is an example of grammatical error in which meaning is understood as active voice construction. The first error is that in passive voice construction, the verb must be written in perfect form, which is *shown*; instead of *showed*. The second error is that the meaning of the sentence will be correct when it is written in active voice construction by eliminating the modality was. Hence, this data is put into occurrence of active voice construction.

In this study the verb *show* always dominates the lexical choice, particularly in findings and discussion sections. Appearing in as many as 1600 active voice occurrences from 3901 tokens, the verb *show* frequently functions as lexical item to explain or prove fact and information, defining the truth and existence of something. As its main function is to explain and prove facts, the subject and object focus is considerably prominent. The active voice construction allows the revealing of the subject to the reader, hence it helps the reader absorb the explanation on particular subject's action of informing some findings, directly to the main idea. Maintaining stance verb *show* in active voice construction creates directness impression to the reader and it help the reader to follow the author's thought.

Meanwhile, the use of passive voice construction of verb stance *show* is mainly maintained to aid in textual cohesion (Baratta, 2009). As it is purposely aid in textual cohesion, the subject being explained is located backward, for instance excerpt number (2a): "... from the observation, it was shown that the students could actively..." This sentence can be rephrased into direct and concise explanation by constructing it into active voice: "... the observation shows that the students could actively...". By constructing active voice, the readers do not spend more time to decode the impersonal subject it, which refer to the previous statement; thus the key idea is easily captured. What is written in the first order or what becomes a subject is deemed important than that in the object position. The flow of information focuses first to the subject position, and it is a fruitful method to maintain the directness attitude.

Excerpt (2)

(a) because, from the observation checklist, it was shown that the students could actively participate in t (NP-2013-edu.txt)

(b) When the play fails, the displeasure is clearly shown in their expressions, whereas in the book they on (FA-2012-lit.txt)

(c) ng the quality maxim in English baby milk slogans shown on Indonesian TV advertisements. Then, the resear (SC-2013-lit.txt)

(d) help students in creating some conversations, as shown in Picture 3.1 Picture 3.1 Example of Writing Act (AW-2013-edu.txt)

(e) a dictionary. Second, the expressions which are showed in movies, are various and easy to understand. S (SIC) (AS-2013-edu.txt)

Predict

It hints only 50 times from the total 3901 tokens, both in active and passive voice construction. The verb *predict* is the last dominating verb in that complement clause classification; appear for 50 times from 3243 tokens. It is the last dominating verb from over all active and passive voice constructions.

Excerpt (3)

(a) e the questionnaire and interview. The researcher predicted that collecting data would take 2 weeks. Yet, ti (CS-2013-edu.txt)

(b) difficult word, he does not stop reading. He only predicts the meaning through the context given. He does no (AS-2013-edu.txt)

Data number (3a) show the author standpoint, while in data number (3b) verb *predict* is applied in the context of describing or explaining a particular event in the study.

Passive voice construction of *predict* is applied in the form of present tense and past tense. It covers only 13 occurrences out of the total number of 50 *predict* occurrences. Excerpt (4) below shows examples of passive voice construction of *expect*:

Excerpt (4)

(a) ted in the activity of pair or group work. It is predicted that when the students share their opinion or id (AD-2013-edu.txt)

(b) diction. Dependent variable is the variable being predicted (Sprinthall, 1994 : 25). In th (RS-2012-edu.txt)

Data number (4a) shows that the predication is stated by the author, while data number (4b) is stated by an expert, indicating a quotation done by the author.

The other unique finding is the verb stance *predict*, which occur the least for both active and passive voice construction. The active voice construction hints 37 times and the passive voice construction hints 13 times. The stance verb *predict* characterizes semantic features of like-hood. For academic research, showing like-hood is not appropriate even though some predictions are possibly to take place in particular section of the paper. In C-SMILE corpus, stance verb *predict* stated by the author is low. It usually appears in the description of the research process, statement, or as part of discussion without being necessarily stated by the author.

Expect

Passive voice construction of *expect* is applied in the form of present tense and past tense. It covers 555 hints out of the total number of 645 *expect* tokens, or as high as 86% of data corpus of *expect*. Examples of passive voice construction of *expect* are given below:

Excerpt (5)

(a) 1.4 Significance of the Study This study was expected to have beneficial contribution for the English (AI-2012-Education.txt)

(b) he inclusion program of elementary schools. It is expected that the product can be used as one of the altern (AR-2012-Edu.txt)

(c) iency. By knowing the result of this study, it is expected that the book publisher and writer would receive (DNR-2012-Edu.txt)

(d) along. Through this media, the learners were expected to master the reading skill. Acquiring descry (GL-2013-edu.txt)

Looking at the high gap between the active and passive voice construction; it is clear that verb *expect* is mostly applied in passive form. The dominance of the occurrences also portray the author's standpoint toward the result of the study, students, teacher, including the material. Data number (5a), (5b), (5c), and (5d), shows the expectation toward the study, which is always found in the chapter of significance of the study, toward the material, result of the study, and the students respectively.

The active voice construction only occurs 99 times, while the passive voice construction occurs 555 times. The authors' preferences to express expectation in passive voice construction is then the authorial stance. The passive voice construction of verb stance *expect* is frequently non-agentive passive. Whereas, the subject doer of such expectation, varies from teacher, advisor, students, research object, and the author themselves. The deletion of subject doer creates irresponsible hopes; consequently it allows the author to take blame on unnamed agent and the readers do not obtain thorough understanding. Even if the object-focus is deemed necessary for many authors, yet agentless passive is incapable of revealing people's expectations toward the study. Despite the demand for upholding research objectivity, giving credits to the people involved in the research does not diminish its objectivity. Furthermore, the use of passive voice construction of *expect* is typical of Indonesian writing.

The frequent occurrence of active voice construction has similarity with Ahmad (2012) that in several parts of Medical and Natural Science research articles cover high frequency of active voice construction. Introduction and discussion section of Medical and Natural Science research articles have higher active voice construction; while in

method and result have higher passive voice construction. However, the difference is that in this corpus based study the total of active voice construction (64.8%) is higher than that of passive voice construction, while the active voice in Ahmad's study covers only 30%, less than the passive voice construction. The field of study possibly caused the difference of this occurrence. Method and result sections of Medical and Natural Science research articles contribute significant and crucial information about scientific processes. The core of the articles is the method in which section must be impersonalized, so different doers still produce the same result and conclusion. Moreover, the language of scientific research does not accumulate implications (Ahmad, 2012).

However, Ahmad's study also showed that active voice construction appeared high in the sections other than method and result sections. It indicates that to deliver idea, in which focus is not the process, active voice is frequently used. In academic text like thesis writing, the focus of the study is not only on the method and result, but also discussion, introduction, and literature review. Hence, the language use is also different from scientific language, which allows interpretations, emotional association (Ahmad, 2012), and more strategies to engage with the readers (Hyland, 2005).

Despite the low frequency of passive voice construction in this study, the passive voice is fruitful in maintaining explanation about process, giving instruction and description. The focus of the stage becomes the emphasis rather than the doer, and the process or the description will be foreground (Swales & Feak, 2008). This is supported by great number of passive voice construction in research method and findings section in this study. However, it is not in the same light as Swales and Feak (2008) when the author comes to expressing ideas and projecting judgments. Active voice construction is more appropriate because the emphasis is not a process, but rather the action. Passive voice construction can hide or delete the doer of the action and the focus is not the action anymore; thus, it can lead to a dull style of writing (Beason & Lester, 2003). The use of passive voice construction should not be over generalized and applied in almost all sections, though objectivity is deemed to be important. The dominating number of active voice construction becomes the evidence in this study, and also the study by Ahmad (2012).

B. Discussion

The high frequency of active voice construction found in undergraduate students' theses implies that the style of EFL students, to some extent, have resembled that of English native writer, mainly in academic writing, as they apply more active voice construction (see Ahmad, 2012). Interpretative reasons for EFL students show resemblance of English native writer include: 1) whether EFL students are simply following what they have been taught by teachers both in Indonesian and English settings, be it preference for active or passive voice construction; or 2) EFL students prefer the easiest way to express their idea and engage the reader with arguments, thus the authors, the EFL students, become knowledgeable.

The first interpretation is that EFL students are simply following what they have been taught, although there is a mixture between knowledge EFL students have been taught by teachers, particularly in Indonesian setting, and exposures of English academic writing by teachers and lecturers, particularly from international journals. The fusion of the background knowledge and the exposure is best represented by the high number of passive stance verb *expect*, which actually is rather typical of Indonesian rhetoric style.

The L1 of the students is Indonesian, a language which falls under topic-prominent language category. Its construction of grammar relation focuses on the topic-comment rather than on the subject-predicate relation (Li & Thompson, 1976). Due to the free positioning of noun phrase as topic sentence without changing the form of the verb, in topic-prominent language (Coetzee, 1980), the confusion of constructing passive then may occur as EFL students must construct passive voice in language which typology is subject-prominent.

On the other hand, EFL students are exposed to language that focuses on subject-predicate grammar relation. Thus with such topic-prominent language typology, it becomes problematic when students produce sentences expressing information, ideas, and knowledge. Consequently, the mixing Indonesian rhetoric style in English setting occurs as a high number of passive verb stance *expect* dominates the passive voice construction. In a wider context, Indonesian authors subconsciously write English prose seasoned with Indonesian language flavor. It is then supporting the Basthomi (2006) findings, in which he claimed that Indonesian research article still hold the Indonesian flavor of rhetoric. With the implementation of widely range of agentless passive voice, it is apparent that Indonesian style of rhetoric is rather indirect (Basthomi, 2006).

Another effect of this problematic decision making in expressing ideas, is that some passive voice constructions mainly function as tools to maintain cohesion rather than showing stance. Baratta (2009) suggests that passive voice can also aid in textual cohesion, and projecting author stance. In his study, however, the data was taken from three essays written by three undergraduate students that compromise aspect of their language and literacy learning. Their essays successfully reflected the author's stance through the passive voice construction. It was due to the emphasis of author background information by placing the object into subject position. Again, this is topicalization which emphasizes the author's information, and thus, very effective to reveal the author stance. What becomes the concern now is that this topicalization is somehow effective depending on the text type, though it may be the same academic writing topic. Therefore, the passive stance is quite erratic in this study; and consequently, the use of passive voice construction is mainly successful to maintain cohesion of the text.

The second interpretation is that students prefer the easiest way to express their idea and engage the reader with their arguments that enable the author to be acknowledged. Implementing active voice construction to assert claim and take a

definite position seems approachable because it does not require regular or irregular verb form. Acquiring irregular verb comes in later stage in acquisition order, and also performing regular verb is the most difficult for L2 learners (Ellis, 1997). The use of active voice construction ranges variously from introduction section, literature review, and discussion section. Furthermore, these sections become the primary section where students dominantly express their idea, show judgment, and lead the readers into interpretation. In regards to this purpose, active voice construction is more preferable than passive voice construction. The study by Hinkel (2004) and Espinoza (1997) also suggest that passive voice construction for non-native speaker of English is rather difficult to master even after so many years of learning L2. Advanced non-native speaker students might have difficulty with conventionalized passive voice. They simply chose to avoid using such complex verb phrase construction like passive voice. Moreover, non-native speaker students had difficulty to use passive voice correctly and construct it in appropriate contexts.

The high number of active voice construction found in undergraduate students' theses that to some extent have resembled that of English native writer, creates such a thought that Indonesian authors possess a desire to gain 'position' in international community. It means that Indonesian authors are mainly in determination to maintain desirably writing style to elevate their contribution in academic writing, exclusively in international domain. Gaining position internationally, presumably, can help Indonesian contribute their culture in wider context. One method to gain position, and thus become acknowledgeable by international community is through subscribing to the rhetorical expectations of the representatives of international discourse community (Basthomi, 2006). According to Basthomi (2006), journal editors and reviewer hold the power to judge and choose whose work is worth publishing; hence, submission to the rhetoric of English academic writing comes to be essential.

However, the process of acquiring rhetoric style of English native writer is always the key problem for non-native English writer, particularly Indonesian. The findings suggest that Indonesian authors are found hard to diminish their rhetorical style while working the English academic text. As a result of maintaining cohesion between sentences with the same ideas, the length of sentence composition, then, indicates how Indonesian authors tend to prolong the deliberation; not striking the key point directly. Thus, it affects readers' engagement toward the text that, later on, also affect the value of author's stance. Nevertheless, Indonesian author, particularly EFL students, shows determination of upholding the expectation of international academic discourse community. This determination also manifests in the teaching of writing for EFL learners particularly.

The teaching of writing for EFL learners can promote an activity of sensitizing the rhetoric style of English writer and integrate the teaching of grammar with writing to yield a better writing product that enables Indonesian authors, particularly EFL learners, to gain a better position internationally. Surprisingly, writing guidelines for Indonesian have been projecting Anglo-centric textbook style (Basthomi, 2006). Nevertheless, the recent study and Basthomi (2006) suggest that Indonesian authors are still facing problems in building a rhetorical competence allowing them to get their writings easily published internationally.

The order of the high frequency of stance verb *show*, *suggest*, *expect*, and the last order of the least frequent stance verb *predict* indicate the semantic features of general academic writing, particularly English thesis writing. Stance verb *show* is resemblance of certainty and factual statement, stance verb *suggest* is that of communication strategy or non-factive, stance verb *expect* is that of attitudinal of the author, and stance verb *predict* is that of like-hood or prediction. The frequency representation of stance verbs applied in the texts explains how the authors project their idea, attitude, and feeling; hence, stance and identity are portrayed. Writer's lexical, syntactic, and semantic choice within the writing helps construct identity (Ivanic 1994, 1995, 1998 as cited in Baratta, 2009).

The number of verb stance occurring in this study, both in active and passive voice construction, is surprisingly a showcase for the changing trend across registers, particularly in academic prose; while according to Biber (2004) academic prose infrequently uses stance devices. The finding of this study can be a new resource to confirm that academic prose, particularly in education, linguistics, and literature, in recent years has increasingly applied various stance devices. However, a thorough comparison could not be conducted on Biber's comparison on four registers periodically since 1650 until 1990, as well as to the findings of the study on academic prose, particularly in medical prose. Hence, this study aids only on verifying the increasing use of stance device in academic prose and it indicates that in recent periods authors are more willingly to express stance.

This also implicates that authors today are more open to the reader, in the sense that author engages the readers more persuasively into his/her study. The engagement of author-reader is a result of the author's effort to project his/her stance, and thus, influence the reader. The engagement is a fruitful tool for authors to make their studies, shared knowledge, as well as influences becomes acknowledgeable and present in the readers' mind. It is possible due to the struggle of the authors to pull the readers into arguments, force their attention, and guide them into interpretations (Hyland, 2005). Interpretation is a crucial point in academic writing in which circumstance of variation in interpretation among readers, as well as between readers and authors, is possible to occur. Interpretation links with decoding meaning of non-agentive passive voice construction, because intuitions and context comprehension of the readers determine the success of how the idea of the author should be understood. Non-agentive passive voice construction appearing to say nothing, but it hints a great deal as such construction suggest indirect claim to deleted agent (Coetzee, 1980). Thus, it is apparent that the engagement vis-à-vis the author's work expressing stance is essential to build the mutual understanding.

The high and low frequency of stance verbs which are represented by the stance verb *show*, *expect*, and *predict* in academic writing, especially thesis writing of English pedagogy, linguistics, and literature showcase several features of: projecting facts, author's attitude, and less predictive. Projecting facts reflects the author's confidence in conveying more factual data and statement; thus evoke the reader's trust towards the study. Projecting author's attitude, which is represented by passive stance verb *expect*, reflects the indirectness and quite "irresponsible" for providing unclear information. This is due to the majority of the non-agentive passive found in *expect* occurrences. Deemphasizing and deleting important agent becomes less appropriate attitude since acknowledging people for their expectation, reaction, and opinion toward the study are deemed important. Moreover, it is typical of Indonesian writing since producing passive voice construction in correct context is relatively problematic for non-native English writer. Academic writing specifically thesis writing should not project any prediction that resembles uncertainty of the author, for it controverts the feature of presenting factuality. Future activities are rarely employed by the author to create diplomatic, defensive, and cautious stance (Swales, 1990).

V. CONCLUSION

The higher frequency of active voice construction (64.8%) than the passive voice construction (35.2%) shows that in a determination to explain, prove facts or information, define the truth and existence of something, active voice construction becomes a fruitful device. Active voice construction creates directness impression to the reader, and it helps the reader to follow the author's thought. While passive voice construction is fruitful to project process, methods, and giving instructions, both constructions become productive devices in academic writing, as long as they are not overgeneralized in every section of the academic writing. The dominant usage of active voice construction becomes an indicator that Indonesian authors' writing style has become more English native writer alike. Therefore, it shows that Indonesian authors are determined to improve their position in international discourse community. Several weaknesses of Indonesian author may still exist; however, this should be encouragement for instructors to guide EFL students to become better authors. Hence, it supports the improvement of Indonesian author's position internationally.

The order of the eight stance verbs in active and passive voice constructions indicate the features of academic writing by their different semantic classes. It appears that the order of the stance verb *show* and *suggest* dominates the active and passive voice construction. The passive stance verb is dominated by stance verb *expect*, and the least frequent stance verb is *predict*. Therefore, the frequent order of the stance verbs shows that the objectives of academic writing, especially thesis writing, are projecting facts, showing author's communication strategy, and projecting the attitude of the author, as well as other people's, toward his/her study in general.

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Web-based Autonomous Learning in the Chinese EFL Setting

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Abstract—The Chinese Ministry of Education promulgated College English Curriculum Requirements in 2007, according to which we should not only cultivate the college students' comprehensive qualities but also develop their autonomous learning ability. In the meantime, a Computer- and Classroom-Based College English Teaching Model, which was supposed to be an effective way of developing autonomous learning ability, was also put forward. For this reason, the present article explored whether a web-based autonomous learning setting could improve the college students' overall English performance more effectively than the traditional English teaching setting. After two school years' experiment, a t-test was made to compare the scores of Band 4 College English Test between the control group and the experimental group. Questionnaires were also conducted to investigate the experimental group's attitude toward web-based autonomous learning and the expected roles of an English teacher in such a learning setting. The t-test result indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the Band 4 College English Test. Questionnaires showed that more than three fourths of the participants in the experimental group were satisfied with the web-based autonomous learning setting. As for the roles of an English teacher, they were expected to be counselors, facilitators and motivators first and foremost.

Index Terms—web-based autonomous learning, the expected roles, the Chinese EFL setting

I. INTRODUCTION

With the rapid development of information technology, computer and networks have been extensively used in English language teaching programs. At the same time, many countries have been reforming English language teaching models according to web-based teaching theory and practice. For this reason, the Chinese Ministry of Education promulgated College English Curriculum Requirements in 2007, according to which we should not only cultivate the college students' comprehensive qualities but also develop their autonomous learning ability. In the meantime, a Computer- and Classroom-Based College English Teaching Model, which was supposed to be an effective way of developing autonomous learning ability, was also put forward. Since then, college English teaching reforms have been carrying out in full swing in the Chinese colleges and universities.

Aiming at improving the students' comprehensive English abilities, college English teaching reforms in China have always been trying to replace the traditional teacher-centered teaching model with the student-centered teaching model because the latter focuses on imparting language knowledge and skills as well as cultivating the students' language usage ability and autonomous learning ability. With the support of computer and networks, this new teaching model tries to integrate web-based autonomous learning into English teaching classrooms, by way of which the concepts of personalized learning and learner autonomy can be well embodied. However, for the Chinese undergraduates who have got accustomed to traditional English teaching models, web-based autonomous learning can be both an opportunity and a challenge.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The web-based English teaching model was established under the background of constructivism learning theory which came into existence in the 1960s. According to this theory, people construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world through experiencing things and reflecting on those experiences. By making use of the necessary resources, a learner in a certain social cultural environment obtains knowledge through meaning building with the help of other people. Therefore, a constructivism learning situation consists of the following elements: environment creation, conversation negotiation and information provision.

The constructivism learning theory regulates that the role of instructors has to be adapted to be facilitators instead of teachers (Bauersfeld, 1995). Teachers usually give didactic lectures which cover the subject matter while facilitators aid the learners to achieve their own understanding of the content. In the former scenario the learners play a passive role and in the latter scenario the learners play an active role in the learning process. The emphasis thus turns away from the instructor and the content, and towards the learner (Gamoran, Secada, & Marrett, 2000). This dramatic change of role implies that facilitators need to display a totally different set of skills than teachers (Brownstein 2001). Teachers give answers according to a set curriculum, facilitators provide guidelines and create the environment for the learners to arrive at their own conclusions; teachers mostly give a monologue, facilitators are in continuous dialogue with the

learners (Rhodes and Bellamy, 1999). Facilitators should also be able to adapt the learning experience ‘in mid-air’ by taking the initiative to steer the learning experience to where the learners want to create value. The learning environment should also be designed to support and challenge the learners’ thinking (Di Vesta, 1987). The ultimate goal is to help the learners become effective thinkers. This can be achieved by assuming multiple roles, such as consultant and coach.

Autonomous Learning has been a buzz word in foreign language education since the past decades, especially in relation to lifelong learning skills. Holec (1981) defined autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” while Little (1991) took it as a matter of the learner’s psychological relation to the process and content of learning. Benson (1996) explained autonomy as the recognition of the rights of learners within educational systems. Breen & Mann (1997) added that autonomous learners must want to learn and develop a meta-cognitive capacity that allows them to handle change, negotiate with others, and make strategic use of the learning environment. This entails assessing wants, needs, and interests and choosing the best way to obtain these. This can best be attained in an environment in which teachers help students to discover and use effective learning strategies. From the perspective of foreign language education in China, Shu Dingfang (2004) pointed out that autonomous learning consisted of such three elements as attitude, capacity and environment. Based on the above definitions, we can define autonomous learning in foreign language education as an active and constructive process during which a learner decides on learning contents, learning plans, learning methods, learning schedule and learning environment according to his own specific needs, motives and objectives.

Many studies have been carried out to test the effectiveness of web-based autonomous learning. An empirical study by Li Chuan (2005) confirmed that a web-based evaluation model could improve the college students’ self-management, self-reflection and teamwork rapidly. By utilizing listening tests, interviews and questionnaires, Lin Lilan (2006) found that college students improved their listening ability more markedly in a web-based autonomous learning environment. They also found that a web-based learning environment could stimulate the students to use more learning strategies. A comparative study by Bagheri and Aeen (2011) showed that the Iranian secondary school students in the experimental group who had been taught by the autonomous learning approach outperformed the control group in the traditional teaching classrooms in terms of English writing ability. Unfortunately, few studies have been conducted to test the effect of web-based autonomous learning on the college students’ overall achievements in English study in the Chinese EFL setting.

Until the end of the 19th century, English teachers had always been dominating the classrooms as knowledge providers. However, the 20th century saw the emergence of various new teaching methods such as the audio-lingual method, the audio-visual method and the communicative method. The roles of a teacher have changed accordingly. They are not only knowledge providers but also controllers, evaluators, organizers, prompters and participants. With the computers integrating into foreign language education, Voller (1997) outlined the roles of a teacher as facilitator, counselor and resource-provider. As for the roles of a teacher in an autonomous learning setting, many studies have been carried out. For example, in a survey about the college students’ views toward the roles of an English teacher in an autonomous learning classroom, Pan Jixian(2004) found that the traditional role as knowledge provider no longer suited the modern college English classrooms. In order to chase down the expected roles of an English teacher in a web-based autonomous learning setting in China, we will do some empirical research.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Study Questions

The two questions addressed in the study were:

- 1) Does a web-based autonomous learning setting improve the college students’ overall English achievements more effectively than the traditional English teaching setting?
- 2) What are the expected roles of an English teacher in a web-based Chinese EFL setting?

B. Participants

Eighty eight students from 2 classes in Jiangxi Normal University took part in the study. Class One Grade 2010 of the Mathematics department was the experimental group and Class Two Grade 2010 of the same department acted as the control group. Each group was made up of 44 students. Strictly speaking, the study was just a quasi-experiment because two intact classes were used as subjects. The experiment lasted two school years.

TABLE 1
A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS’ COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION ENGLISH SCORES

Group	Average Score	Highest Score	Lowest Score	SD	Independent Samples T-test Sig. (2-tailed)
Experimental Group	94.09	115	65	9.79	.679
Control Group	95.26	126	61	15.29	

Table 1 indicated that there was no marked difference between the two groups’ English proficiency when they started their college study.

C. Instruments

The same teaching materials published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press were used for both the experimental group and the control group. Both groups had 4 English classes each week and each class lasted 50 minutes. In a week, the experimental group went about 2 classes of autonomous learning in a well-equipped classroom and the teaching material they used was the *Web Teaching System of New Concept College English (new edition)*. They carried on listening and speaking activities autonomously through this web teaching system. They also did some preview and review work for *New College English Integrated Course (new edition)* which was intended for reading and writing. During the other 2 English classes in the same week, it was the teacher that carried out classroom teaching and tutoring in a multimedia classroom. However, for the control group, 2 English classes were used for the Integrated Course to teach reading and writing. The traditional teacher-centered teaching method was in the dominant position. As for the two listening and speaking classes, classroom activities were organized according to the routine practices, that is to say, the teacher decided on the listening activities and the students practiced speaking under the guidance of the teacher. What's more, different assessment systems were utilized to measure the two groups' performance. For the experimental group, formative assessment was mainly used, i.e. the students' grades in each semester consisted of day-to-day class work (60%) and final test scores (40%). As for the control group, it was finality assessment that played a part. The students' performance in each semester was made up of day-to-day class work (30%) and final test scores (70%).

After two school years' experiment, a comparison was made between the two groups' scores of Band 4 College English Test. Questionnaires were also conducted to investigate the experimental group's attitude toward web-based autonomous learning and the expected roles of a teacher in such a learning setting.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL PROCESS

As autonomous learning is a long and dynamic process, the present study lasted two school years, that is, from the September of 2010 to the September of 2012, which covered the whole process of the participants' English classes at college. It is only in this way that we could explore the students' autonomous learning ability development thoroughly and objectively in a web-based setting. What's more, a two-year experimental process made it possible for us to fully analyze the various problems arising from a web-based setting. The details of the experiment went as follows:

Firstly, the participants in the experimental group received learning strategy training regularly, with emphasis varying from one semester to another. According to Macintyre & Noels (1997), learning strategies help learners better comprehend and grasp learning activities as well as reduce their confusion and anxiety, which will keep them motivated and enthusiastic in the learning process. As a matter of fact, autonomous learning ability belongs to a kind of self-controlling ability. Skillful language learners, who are generally equipped with good self-controlling abilities, should have mastered the skills and strategies needed for carrying out various kinds of learning activities and solving different types of learning difficulties. They are also able to choose an appropriate learning approach according to a certain learning task. Therefore, learning strategy training and discussions about specific learning methods and skills were held regularly to help the participants in the experimental group to integrate learning strategies into their actual learning process. At the beginning of their English study, the participants in the experimental group were trained how to use meta-cognitive strategies to set long-term goals and short-term goals respectively, which included the goals of each semester and the goals of each week. They were encouraged to do a lot of reading after class to enlarge their English vocabulary. They were also required to practice their English pronunciation and intonation in a standard way. Subsequently, some cognitive strategies were explained to show them how to carry out listening, speaking, reading and writing activities effectively. Affective and social strategies were taught to help them to control and adjust their emotions, attitudes and motivations etc. Secondly, the participants in the experimental group were required to do the unit tests in the teaching system after finishing each unit. The unit test scores counted as an important part of their day-to-day class work. Thirdly, they could carry out autonomous learning activities for free after class at the College English Autonomous Learning Centre. They could also use their own computers to access the Web Teaching System whenever they were willing to. Fourthly, workshops were held at regular intervals to introduce and discuss the cultural differences between the Chinese culture and the English-speaking culture. Lastly, the assessment process was included as an organic part of the whole teaching process, according to which the performance of the participants' activities in the autonomous learning process was evaluated comprehensively. The composition of the day-to-day class work could be seen in table 2.

TABLE 2
THE COMPOSITION OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP'S DAY-TO-DAY CLASS WORK

Exercises	Autonomous Learning After Class	Class Performance	Attendance	Speaking English	Unit Test Scores	Self-Evaluation
15%	15%	10%	10%	20%	20%	10%

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Questionnaire

At the end of the experiment, a questionnaire was conducted among the experimental group to find out their attitudes toward web-based autonomous learning. All the members were present and they completed the questionnaires as requested. The result of the questionnaire was presented in table 3.

TABLE 3
A QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT WEB-BASED AUTONOMOUS LEARNING

Questions	A %	B %	C %	D %	E %
1. What do you think of web-based autonomous learning?	20.6	59	15.9	4.5	0
2. What do you think of its role in mobilizing enthusiasm in learning English?	25	52.3	18.2	4.5	0
3. What do you think of its role in enhancing autonomous learning ability?	22.7	56.9	18.2	2.2	0
4. What do you think of its role in allowing for the freedom to select learning tasks?	25	56.8	16	2.2	0
5. What do you think of its role in helping choose an appropriate learning strategy?	29.5	40.9	20.6	4.5	4.5
6. What do you think of its role in improving comprehensive English proficiency?	36.4	40.9	22.7	0	0

Note: A=very satisfied; B=satisfied; C=average; D=dissatisfied; E=very dissatisfied

As the college students are possessed with different linguistic cognitive abilities and their levels of English proficiency are not unitary, their language needs vary with each other. Evidently, a web-based autonomous learning setting can meet the need of each student because it breaks through the restrictions of time and space inherent in the traditional English teaching methods. In this learning setting, an open space, in which the students can carry out their study no matter when and where, is constructed. They are also able to choose the proper learning materials suiting their levels of English proficiency in a convenient way. That was why 79.6% of the participants in the experimental group were satisfied with web-based autonomous learning. According to the statistics in table 3, 77.3% of the participants thought that web-based autonomous learning could mobilize their enthusiasm to study English, which showed that this new model played a part in making them more interested in learning English and boosting their confidence. Among the participants, 81.8% of them thought that they enjoyed the freedom to choose their own learning tasks, indicating that they were entitled to the decision-making power to integrate progressively new learnt knowledge into their already learnt knowledge in a suitable way. What's more, 70.4% of the participants agreed that they were able to choose appropriate learning strategies to carry out their English study in a web-based autonomous learning setting. This proved that they could resort to their own resources to fulfill their learning tasks in this setting. As for the role of improving comprehensive English proficiency, 77.3 of them, which made up more than three fourths of the participants, were satisfied with the web-based autonomous learning setting because they improved their English proficiency remarkably.

B. T-test

After the two-year experiment, a t-test was made to compare the scores of College English Test Band 4 between the two groups.

TABLE 4
A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS' CET BAND 4 SCORES

Group	Average Score	Highest Score	Lowest Score	SD	Independent Samples T-test Sig. (2-tailed)
Experimental Group	413.93	545	292	51.16	.003
Control Group	365.97	528	224	85.73	

The above table shows that the experimental group performed much better than the control group in the test.

According to the results of the questionnaire and the t-test, we could answer the first question of our study now, that is, a web-based autonomous learning setting could improve the college students' overall English achievements more effectively than the traditional English teaching setting.

VI. THE EXPECTED ROLES OF AN ENGLISH TEACHER IN A WEB-BASED SETTING

To make clear the expected roles of an English teacher in the Chinese EFL web-based setting, another questionnaire was conducted among the experimental group. The questionnaire was designed on the basis of Gardner & Miller's classification of teachers' roles in an autonomous learning setting (1999) as well as the real situations of the Chinese EFL classrooms. Ten roles were listed and each role consisted of five scales. In other words, the questionnaire was made in the form of Likert Five Point Scale. For each role, the subjects were required to make a choice from the five points. The points 1-5 represent the five scales which range from "not important" to "very important". The subjects were also required to rank the 5 roles they considered most important in order of importance, which could be used to verify the result of the calculations of the Likert Five Point Scale.

TABLE 5

AN ENGLISH TEACHER'S ROLES RANKED IN ORDER OF IMPORTANCE BY THE STUDENTS IN A CHINESE EFL AUTONOMOUS LEARNING SETTING

Role	Description	Mean	SD	Ranking
counselor	Give advice to the students about leaning methods and learning strategies. Ready to answer the questions the students ask.	4.57	0.68	1
facilitator	Help the students cultivate interest in autonomous learning. Encourage them to persist in autonomous learning.	4.50	0.82	2
motivator	Motivate the students to actively engage in autonomous learning.	4.07	0.94	3
trainer	Train the students to learn how to carry out autonomous learning.	4.00	1.08	4
textbook developer and compiler	Develop and compile various teaching materials according to the students' differences.	3.97	1.30	5
evaluator	Obtain feedback by constantly evaluating the validity of autonomous learning.	3.73	1.20	6
planner	Help the students set learning goals and make learning plans.	3.37	0.89	7
organizer	Organize the whole learning process.	3.27	1.23	8
tester	Test the students regularly to check their progress.	3.27	0.91	9
monitor	Monitor the students during the process of autonomous learning.	2.90	1.12	10

From the above table, we could see that six roles were considered important because their means were well above 3.5. The other 4 roles were considered comparatively less important because their means were between 2.5 and 3.5. This result was consistent with Pan Jixian's investigation in 2004, in which he explored the students' conceptions about autonomous learning. That is to say, the teachers were expected to be counselors, facilitators and motivators first and foremost in both studies. However, Pan's study focused on comparing the role of an instructing teacher with that of a traditional dominating teacher, if failed to highlight the specific aspects that a teacher should facilitate, help and motivate. The present study found out that the students not only longed for teachers' advice about learning methods but also hoped for teachers' encouragement and support in their autonomous learning, indicating that autonomous learners needed much perseverance to persist in their learning. That was why they searched for emotional support from their teachers now and then. The present study also found out that autonomous learners hoped to receive training about how to carry out autonomous learning. As a matter of fact, many scholars (Holec 1979; Little 1991; Nunan 1996) believed that autonomous learning was a kind of ability that could be cultivated. The students' aspiration for improving their autonomous learning ability was well confirmed in this study and the teachers were expected to fulfill their duty in this aspect in due course. Besides, the present study disclosed that the students expressed their desire for teaching materials that could well suit their autonomous learning. All these findings turned out to be of practical significance for us to improve our practices in autonomous learning. The above table indicated that the roles of tester and monitor were less important than the other roles. It seemed that the students did not want to be monitored and tested. On the one hand, the students hoped that the teachers would take measures to help overcome their inertia, on the other hand, they were unwilling to be monitored and tested by their teachers. This phenomenon demonstrated the students' ambivalent attitude toward autonomous learning.

VII. CONCLUSION

The two-year experiment proved that web-based autonomous learning played an effective role in helping the Chinese college students improve their learning autonomy as well as their performance in the English examinations. By way of combining networks technology with college English teaching, the "teacher-centered" conception is well embodied in this setting, which can not only facilitate personality development but also the release of personal potential. Therefore, this new teaching method can well be extended to the classrooms where necessary facilities are available. However, we also found some problems in this study. First of all, not all the students were able to adapt themselves fully to the web-based autonomous learning, which goes on with flexible working hours in a fairly relaxed environment. Especially for those with poor English and weak self-control ability, they made little progress in this setting. Secondly, a web-based autonomous learning setting was not conducive to improving English speaking. In that case, much research remains to be done regarding how to improve the students' self-control ability and English speaking in a web-based autonomous learning setting.

As a matter of fact, the roles of an English teacher have always been evolving dynamically with social development as well as the changes of teaching theory and teaching methodology. This kind of developmental orientation implies that an English teacher should get ready for improvement to satisfy the needs of the fast-changing society. Obviously, the transformation of an English teacher's roles can push his/her students to change their roles in their learning process and to better their learning methods, which will help to achieve the aim of personal development. Under the circumstances, the roles of an English teacher must be restructured and reconstructed in a web-based autonomous learning setting. Different roles should play different parts before class, in class and after class. That is to say, an English teacher should be a designer and a developer before class; an instructor, organizer, trainer and tester in class and a monitor and resource-provider after class.

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A Multimodal Analysis of Image-text Relations in Picture Books

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Abstract—Image-text relations are expounded based on Systemic Functional Multimodal Analysis framework in this article. A though analysis of the logical relations between the visual and verbal elements in picture books is also given in terms of elaboration, extension, enhancement and projection. Furthermore, Divergence, a fundamental type of image-text relation in picture books, is thoroughly investigated. Generic framework of picture book is proposed for the exploration of image-text relations.

Index Terms—intersemiosis, multimodal discourse analysis, systemic functional linguistics (SFL)

I. PICTURE BOOKS

Picture book is a highly aesthetic genre, which weaves words and pictures together to tell a story. Meanings in picture books are inextricably constructed by art and text. Picture books are distinguished from the traditional storybooks that use pictures to supplement a text. Story books could be understood without reference to them. Illustrations undoubtedly explain the story to the readers, but some storybooks can be understood without them.

In picture books, words and pictures invite reader to create literal realities in the world to correspond with them. Picture books define the range of canonical characters, which reflect our modes of behaving, and thus they provide a map of possible roles and possible worlds. Picture books contribute to the formation and re-formation in our children of the cultural imagination, a network of patterns and templates through which we articulate and illustrate our experience. Picture books give children the shape of their identity as individuals and as members of a socially symbolic reality. In short, picture books could be analyzed from social semiotic perspective with relation to culture context and context of situation.

Lawrence Sipe (1998) states that “visual texts are on an equal footing with verbal texts” (P107). It seems necessary, in the logocentric society that we live in today, to make this point”. Schwarcz (1982) classifies 2 kinds of visual and verbal interactions: congruency (elaboration, alternation, amplification, and extension) and deviation (opposition and counterpoint). Maria Nikolajeva and Carole Scott (2000) points out that existing studies “do not recognize or explore ... the wide array and diversity of the dynamics (i.e. image-text relations) that picture books embody” (P225). The relationships between picture and text arose increasing academic concerns in children’s literature, but there is still lack of theoretic study of image-text interactions in picture books for children based on Systemic Functional Multimodal Analysis.

II. SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL MULTIMODAL ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK

We tend to take this for granted that we live in a multimodal society that makes its meanings through the combined use of semiotic resources (e.g. spoken and written language, visual imagery, mathematical symbolism, sculpture, architecture, gesture and other physiological modes). Multimodality refers to the fact that all texts combine and integrate diverse semiotic modalities. This multimodal perspective could be traced back to the pioneering work of scholars such as Gregory Bateson, Ray Birdwhistell, E. T. Hall, A. E. Scheflen and others in the 1950's and 1960's. However, until the publication of Kress and van Leeuwen’s (2006) *Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Design*, the early work of these scholars has been further investigated based on Systemic Functional linguistics and social semiotics. A multimodal text, as a unit of meaning, combines semiotic resources to produce meaning. With development of computer technology in recent years, a large number of multimodal texts with more complex integrations of resources in printed pages come into view. meaning-making in such multimodal texts is dependent on an interplay of all semiotic resources of which language is only one component. The Meaning in a multimodal text is realized through the selection of semiotic choices from meaning potentials of all semiotic modes in the text. Social semiotic analysis of multimodal texts is based on M.A.K. Halliday’s (1978) theory of ‘metafunctions’ to identify three distinct but coexisting kinds of meanings that interplay within any text. Metafunctional analysis can be extended beyond the linguistic field thereby providing the descriptive basis for all meaning-making practices. Systemic Functional theory provides a social semiotic framework for the analysis of multimodal texts with context-dependent meaning studies and a comprehensive approach to language.

Table 1 shows a Systemic Functional Multimodal Analysis framework for investigating intersemiosis in printed multimodal texts that involve linguistic and visual forms of semiosis. Intersemiosis takes place within and across

Mini-Genres, Items and Components and on the expression stratum with regards to the materialization of the text.

TABLE 1
SF-MDA FRAMEWORK FOR PRINTED TEXTS: LANGUAGE AND VISUAL IMAGERY

IDEOLOGY		
GENERIC MIX		
REGISTERIAL MIX		
CONTENT Stratum	INTERSEMIOSIS Mini-Genres, Items and Components (Linguistic, Visual and/or Other)	
	LANGUAGE	VISUAL IMAGES
	INTERSEMIOSIS Discourse Semantics	
	Discourse	Intervisual Relations Work
	INTERSEMIOSIS Grammar	
	Clause complex Clause Episode Word Group/Phrase Figure Word	Scene Clause Episode Word Group/Phrase Figure Word Part
DISPLAY Stratum	INTERSEMIOSIS Stratum Materiality	
	Typography/Graphology and Graphics	

III. IMAGE-TEXT RELATIONS

Image-text Relations of a multimodal text may be studied from their relative contribution of each mode to the construction of meaning in the text or the distribution of semiotic modes. For example, McCloud (1994) classifies image-text relations in terms of their equal/unequal contributions to meaning:

- a. word specific, where pictures illustrate but do not significantly add to a largely complete text;
- b. picture specific, where the picture dominates and words do not add significantly to the meaning of the image;
- c. duo specific, where words and pictures send essentially the same message;
- d. additive – words amplify or elaborate on an image or vice versa;
- e. parallel – words/image follow different courses without intersecting;
- f. montage – words are treated as integral parts of the picture;
- g. interdependent – image/words together convey an idea that neither could convey alone.

It gives a generalized view of visual-verbal balance of meaning.

In recent years, Systemic Functional Linguistics, particularly with reference to cohesion and inter-clause relationships, is widely applied in the theoretic study of image-texts relation. Generally, visual and verbal relations in multimodal texts are mainly explored from 2 perspectives: (1) inter-semiotic relations, examining how the pictorial and verbal elements complement each other to form a single and cohesive text by identifying cohesive links across structural-unit boundaries of cohesive chains. For example, Royce (2007) examines visual and verbal cohesive connection with categories of lexical cohesion developed by Halliday and Hasan (1985). (2) logico-semantic relations, derived from the inter-clause relations (Halliday 1994, 2004) to interpret the logical relation between image and text across structural syntagmatic units. Logical relations are not confined to clause relations in language, and they could account systematically for the relations across different semiotic modes. Halliday (1994) classifies 2 types of fundamental inter-clause relationships: *expansion* and *projection*. In expansion, the secondary clause expands the primary clause by: *elaboration*, *extension*, and *enhancement*. In projection, the secondary clause is projected through the primary clause, which instates it as: a locution or an idea. In *elaboration*, one clause elaborates on the meaning of another by further specifying or describing it. The secondary clause does not introduce a new element into the picture but rather provides a further characterization of one that is already there, restating it, clarify it, refining it, or adding a descriptive attribute or comment. In *extension*, one clause extends the meaning of another by adding something new to it. What is added may be just an addition, or replacement, or an alternative. In *enhancement* one clause enhances the meaning of another by qualifying it in one of a number of possible ways: by reference to time, place, manner, cause or condition.

IV. IMAGE-TEXT RELATIONS IN PICTURE BOOKS

The picture book has proved to be a fruitful field of study for inquiries into the image-text relations. Over the last 20 years, picture book is not regarded as a basically verbal artifact supported by pictures. Pictorial dimension, as an independent semiotic system in its own right, attracts increasingly academic concerns. Terms, such as Iconotext (Hallberg, 1983), imagetext (Mitchell, 1994), or synergy (Sipe, 1998) helps to convey the essence of this interaction. But there are a few Systemic Functional Multimodal Analyses of image-text relations. Image-text relation is expounded based on Systemic Functional theory across semiotic modes in this article. A though description of the logical relations

between the visual and verbal elements in picture books is also given in terms of elaboration, extension, and enhancement. Furthermore, Divergence, a fundamental kind of image-text relation in picture books, is thoroughly investigated.

A. Elaboration

Elaboration may be described as a relationship of similarity across semiotic modes while no new ideational element is introduced by the text or image. While the meaning is not simply repeated or duplicated, different sets of semiotic resources are employed. According to Perry Nodelman (1988), words and pictures can never simply repeat or parallel each other, because of the inherent differences between verbal and visual modes of communication. Images cannot explicitly assert attitudes towards the phenomena they display. They can, however, visually demonstrate attitudes, while words are incapable of directly expressing emotion through shape and color.

Elaborative relations in picture books can be identified from 3 perspectives: exposition, exemplification, and homospatiality. (1) Exposition is a sub-type of elaborating relationship where image and text reinforce each other by restating or reformulating meaning in some way. Visual structure is not same as the grammar of language in interpretation of experience and forms of social interaction. Image demonstrates its meaning in terms of color, shape, line, pattern, angle and etc. Visual and verbal elements in picture books express the same topic in different ways. For example, in *My Dad* by Anthony Browne, the text on page 8 “*My Dad can eat like a horse.*” provides a vivid description of the image displayed in the illustration. In the image, a man in pajamas with a horse head is sitting by the table with a fork and a knife in his hands. He is ready to dump a large plate of food including sausages, fried eggs, chips, tomatoes and etc. Image seems to be more specific in demonstration the similar meaning in picture books.

(2) In exemplification, image exemplifies text or text exemplifies image; text and image represent different levels of generality (Martinec & Salway 2005), and this is realized by a class-member relationship, where specified members are not an exhaustive set but rather, represent examples from that class set. An example could be found in *Something From Nothing* by Gilman, the text on page 8 only mentions “*my grandpa*”, while all the family members living in the same building are portrayed in the illustration to exemplify the text.

(3) Homospatiality is another type of concurrence between image and text, where different semiotic modes co-occur in one spatially bonded homogenous entity (Lim 2004). One instance is found where the words of the classical picture book *The Little House* by Burton on page 36 are arranged in the shape of a curving road, which is coherent with part of the text: *They rolled along the big roads, they rolled along the little roads, until they were way out of in the country.*

Generally speaking, there is no exact equivalence in the relationship between image and text, except for maps, diagrams, labels and etc. In the traditional illustrated books and picture books introducing regulations and rules, scientific information, and etc, verbal narratives are predominant. Pictures are usually subordinated to the words. A number of very significant children’s stories have been illustrated by various artists who may interpret the text by means of exposition, exemplification and homospatiality of visual elements. The many illustrated editions of Bible stories, folktales, Perrault’s, Grimm’s or Andersen’s tales fall into this category. The text is not dependent on the illustration to convey its essential message.

B. Extension

Extension is a kind of complementary relations of modalities where image and text complement each other to extend the meaning represented in the other mode. It includes three sub-types of extension in picture books: augmentation, distribution and divergence.

(1) Augmentation involves an image extending or adding new meanings to the text or the text extending the image by providing (an) additional ideational element(s). According to Systemic Functional Multimodal Analysis, the new ideational element in augmentation is represented by participants or circumstances. Table 2 demonstrates the classification of circumstances with examples (Halliday: 1994). Circumstance is usually expressed in language system but in pictures.

TABLE 2
CIRCUMSTANCE OF EXTENT AND LOCATION

	Spatial	Temporal
Extent	Distance walk for seven miles stop every ten yard	Duration stay for 2 hours pause every ten minutes
Location	Place work in the kitchen	Time get up at six o’clock

For example, on the 8th page of *Where the Wild Things Are*, the text reads “*and in and out of weeks and almost over a year to the wild things are*”, while the correspond meaning could not be represented in the illustration.

(2) Distribution refers to the construction of activity sequences with juxtaposed images and text jointly. According to Gill (2002), there are two kinds of distribution. Intra-process distribution refers to the portrayal by images and text of different aspects of a shared process. Inter-process distribution occurs when images fill a gap in the meaning in the text; image and text complement each other in that activities or processes are distributed across the two modes. A good example is found in *The Runaway Bunny* by Brown. There is no a single word on page 20-21. But a bigger colored

picture demonstrates that the runaway bunny changes into a flying rabbit with wings and his mother a tree in shape of a rabbit. This picture complements the previous text on page 19 and illustrates the transformation of the two rabbits.

(3) Divergence is used to describe the third type of extending relation, where the ideational meaning of the text is opposed or at variance to that of the image, or vice versa. This term is also applied to instances where the meanings in the text and image contradicted each other. According to Perry Nodelman, every picture book tells at least three stories: a verbal one, a visual one, and a third one that “tends to emerge from ironies created by differences between the first two” (1988). This kind of irony Nodelman has in mind here is in fact the divergence. For example, the text in Rosie’s Walk is only one sentence of 25th. The visual narrative is more complicated and exciting than the verbal one. The divergence between words and pictures shape the book’s impact and the reader’s involvement in decoding it. Babette Cole’s *Princess Smartypants* provides another fascinating example with ironically humorous counterpoint. The tasks that the princess gives her many admirers sound quite simple when described in words: “*stop the slugs from eating her garden,*” “*feed her pets,*” “*challenged [...] to a roller-disco marathon,*” “*invited [...] for a cross-country ride on her motorbike,*” “*rescue her from her tower,*” “*chop some firewood in the royal forest,*” “*put her pony through its paces,*” “*take her Mother, the Queen, shopping,*” and “*retrieve her magic ring from the goldfish pond.*” But pictures reveal the truly daunting nature of the tasks and the reasons why the princes fail: the slug is as large as a dinosaur, the pets are ferocious dragons, the tower is made of glass, the forest is enchanted, the goldfish pond is inhabited by an enormous shark, and so on. In each case, the unexpected realities featured in the pictures functions as an ironic counterpoint.

C. Enhancement and Projection

Language and image complement each other through enhancement when one mode provides meanings which expand another spatially, temporally or causally. While the test items did not target these relations, instances did occur in the stimulus material. In *Olivia* by Falconer, the text on the page 2 “*she even wears herself out*” is enhanced by the five portraits of Olivia in one illustration. Those portraits are arranged in a liner sequence to demonstrate how Olivia even wears herself out. Image and text are also found to complement each other through projection, the most congruent instance of this being illustrated texts with speech bubbles. In such text, the human participants (as sayers and/or sensors) are represented pictorially while their projected ideas and locutions are represented linguistically.

V. GENERIC FRAMEWORK OF PICTURE BOOKS

In one page of illustration of a picture book, image and text stylistically cohere into a single communicative act. The linguistic features of speech acts combine with other, non-linguistic and contextual features to create multimodal communicative acts in picture books. Visual and verbal features can combine into a single communicative act. The framework mainly consists of multimodal discourse systems at five levels: (1) context of culture, (2) context of situation and the function of the communicative activity, (3) genre mix, (4) content Stratum, and (5) display Stratum.

TABLE 3
GENERIC FRAMEWORK OF PICTURE BOOK

Culture Context (Ideology, Register)		
Context of Situation(field, tenor and mode) and the Function of the Communicative Activity		
Genre Mix		
CONTENT Stratum	INTERSEMIOSIS	
	LANGUAGE VISUAL IMAGES	
	INTERSEMIOSIS	
	Discourse Semantics(ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning , textual meaning)	
	Discourse Intervisual Relations	
	Work	
DISPLAY Stratum	INTERSEMIOSIS	
	Grammar	
	Clause complex Scene Scene	
	Clause Episode Clause Episode	
	Word Group/Phrase Figure Figure	
	Word Part	
INTERSEMIOSIS		
Stratum Materiality		
Typography/Graphology and Graphics		

In this generic framework of picture books, genre refers to types of social activity including language activity, belonging to the social activity system. Picture book is a mixed genre that is born with visual and verbal semiotic modalities. Context of culture determines the social activities of the whole society, and genre is related to context of situation, which is a part of context of culture. Genre is determined by the three features of context of situation: the field of discourse, the tenor of discourse and the mode of discourse. The tenor of discourse is related to the choice of role relationship between the actual speaker and hearer. The actual speakers of a picture book are the writer and the illustrator. According to the framework, writers and the illustrators of picture books could freely make choices in both verbal and visual semiotic potentials and creatively weave word and picture together to tell a story. Therefore, the image plays a dominate role in the construction of meaning in picture books. Therefore, the interactions between image and

text are complicated.

It should be noticed that a lot of gifted artists create and illustrate picture books by themselves with keen insights in the nature of children and life, such as *The Tale of Peter Rabbit* by Beatrix Potter's, *Madeline* by Ludwig Bemelmans's, *Make Ways for Ducklings* and *Blueberries for Sal* by Robert McCloskey's, *The Little House* by Virginia Lee Burton's, *In the Forest*, Robert by Marie Hall Ets, *Harold and the Purple Crayon* by Crockett Johnson, *Little Blue and Little Yellow*, *Inch by Inch*, *On My Beach There Are Many Pebbles*, *Swimmy*, and *Frederick* by Leo Lionni, and etc. In other cases, artists produce picture books by adoption or rewrite fairytales, legends, folk stories and other traditional storied by themselves. Those artists are inspired by the classical storied and interpret the story in the version of picture books, such as *Millions of Cats* by Wanda Gag's, *The Three Robbers* by Tomi Ungerer, and etc. As brilliant painters, those artists skillfully employ visual semiotic means to develop the theme in picture books. It seems image in those works is more important than text in the interpretation of the meaning.

Language and image complement each other to create meaning in a multimodal text. Meaning is realized through verbal and visual choices made by the designer or illustrator of the text. The preference and selection of the semiotic modes definitely affect the image-text relations, which is not fully explored.

VI. CONCLUSION

Studies of picture books approach its pictorial dimension as an independent semiotic system in its own right, which does not necessarily concur with the verbal component, rather than as a mere prop to the verbal story. Both words and images make their own relatively autonomous contribution to the overall semantic, aesthetic and emotional effect of the picture book. Therefore, it has often been observed that the picture book is closer to other mixed narrative forms such as drama or film than to verbal fiction. From logico-semantic perspective, image-text relations of picture books are analyzed in terms of elaboration, extension, enhancement and projection. Context of situation, in particular, tenor of discourse is also related the image-text relations. It is hoped to shed some light on the theoretical frameworks for the understanding of multimodal semiosis.

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Acquisition of Wh-questions in English by Persian Monolinguals and Iranian Arab Bilinguals

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Abstract—This study intended to incorporate some insights to the newly-explored field of third language acquisition. To this end, it investigated the acquisition of wh-questions movements in English by 2nd and 3rd language learners within Universal Grammar (UG) structure. After taking the Nelson Proficiency Test, 102 Persian mono-lingual and Arabic-Persian bilingual learners of English were assigned to two proficiency groups. A Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT) was administered to measure the subjects' performance on English difference types of wh-questions. In spite of the fact that the structure of wh-questions was similar in Arabic and English, but different in Persian, the results showed no significant difference between the performance of monolinguals and bilinguals, but significant differences were found between the elementary and intermediate learners on various types of wh-questions in English. That is to say, the findings of the study regarding language transfer in 3rd language acquisition lead to the conclusion that the source of cross-linguistic effect in 3rd language acquisition is probably more of the learners' 2nd language than their 1st language.

Index Terms—wh-question movement, monolinguals, bilinguals, UG, GJT, elementary, intermediate

I. INTRODUCTION

While there is an abundance of research on second language acquisition (L2A) and the effects of the first language on the acquisition of the second, little is known about third language acquisition (L3A) and the effects of the two already known languages on the acquisition of the third. The research on the acquisition of a language other than the mother tongue is so dominated by L2A that whenever the issue of foreign language teaching and learning is discussed, especially in educational institutes; one does not assume any role to the first local languages known by people in multi-lingual communities. In such institutes, the national standard language is assumed as the first language for the whole population without any noticeable attention to knowledge of languages other than the national language carried by the students. While many such do not yet know the national language up to the age of schooling, their mother tongue is their sole linguistic tool in exploring the world and communicating with others in their beginning years of life. In curriculum preparation, similarly, what seems important in second or foreign language teaching and learning is the contrast between the national language and the target language. Since a noticeable number of people in the world are bilinguals, the issue of third language acquisition, in fact, is one of the basic issues in foreign language research. In such particular settings like Iran, in which bilingualism for students at schools and universities is taken for granted, it seems appropriate to study the effects of the first language (mother tongue) and the second language (Persian) on the acquisition of the third language (English as a foreign language).

This research is to continue this research tradition by adding to the issue of the nature and the extent of transfer of the first languages into the syntax of adult learners of 2nd language generally and especially 3rd language. This research is limited to the questions of transfer within the syntactic domains in general to achieve this goal. Generative 2nd language acquisition research is in no way restricted to the debate of transfer, because transfer alone cannot prepare an absolute clarification for the improvement paths taken by non-native language students. It is essential of generative 2nd language learning research to focus on the influence of UG in 2nd language learning. Generative 2nd language investigators always link transfer to extent to which UG restrains 2nd language acquisitions. So this research embarks the claim whether English L3 learners' discrete language background makes them expand inter-language patterns which are dissimilar or alike to those of mono-lingual English learners. That is, the main question formulated in this study is the influence of the beforehand learned languages on the 3rd inter-language patterns and the amount to which the L3 learners' production in view of the syntactic features engaged in the formation of English questions would be the same or different from that of L2 learners. In this scope, the impact of the language background acquired by Arabic-Persian bilingual learners of English will be explored through comparatively considering the most current syntactically- based generative models of L2 acquisition, i.e. Full Access/Full Transfer (FAFT) and the Failed Functional Feature

Hypothesis (FFFH). The performance of the Arabic-Persian bilinguals on the English questions which entail the syntactic aspects of head and Wh-movement will be contrasted with that of Persian mono-lingual learners within this framework. This comparative study may help to demonstrate whether L3 acquisition is different from L2 acquisition or it is merely another case of L2 acquisition.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Theoretical Framework

Different theories of second language acquisition make different predictions with respect to both the role of transfer and the ultimate attainment (that is, whether or not the acquisition of the L2 syntactic properties, i.e., wh-movement, is possible for L2 learners). The transfer, is concerned with the question of to what extent the properties of the L1 grammar influence L2 acquisition (White, 2003). Two theories which posit L1 transfer are Full Transfer/Full Access theory (FT/FA) (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1996) and the Representational Deficit Hypothesis (RDH), formally known as the Failed Functional Feature Hypothesis (FFFH) (Hawkins & Chan, 1997). Both theories consider the L1 grammar to be the starting point for the acquisition of L2. On the other hand, Direct Access theory (Epstein, Flynn, & Martohardjono, 1996) considers the Universal Grammar (UG) to be the starting point for the acquisition of L2.

B. Wh-movement Parameters

UG is “the system of principles, conditions and rules that are elements or properties of all human languages” (Chomsky, 1976, p. 29). Then, Chomsky (1981) differentiates these universals as composing of principles and parameters. Radford (1997) believes the language faculty is composed of a group of ‘principles of universal grammar (UG)’. On the other hand, grammatical learning is not going to engage in learning those features of grammar which are established by universal grammatical principles and operations. However, grammatical learning will be constrained to those parameters of grammar which are subject to language special variation. To say that in another way, grammatical learning will be restricted to parameterized features of grammar. The understandable way to distinguish just what aspects of the grammar of their first language children have to learn is to scrutinize the set of parametric variation appeared in the grammars of different natural languages.

The Wh-Parameter is one parameter of variation among languages– a parameter which specifies whether wh-expressions are fronted or not. Considerably, this parameter again seems to be one which is binary in nature since it allows for just two probabilities. Movement is an important point in Wh-questions. Movement is a process in generative grammar and a syntactic process by which elements move and leave behind silent trace copies. Movement was structured from the early 1970s move[s] as few constituents as probable the shortest distance probable (Radford et al., 2009). Movements are either A-movements or A-bar movements. In cases where an expression, such as an NP, is moved to a location that can only be filled by argument expressions, like the case of passivization, A-movement happens, while in items where an expression, for instance a Wh-phrase, is moved to a position that can be filled by both arguments and adjuncts, A-bar movement happens (Radford, 2004). Head-movement is another kind of syntactic movement, like the cases where a V moves to I (Hawkins, 2001).

Wh-movement is acceptable and it is compulsory for all wh-expressions in English. As an illustration, in the interrogative structures below the wh-expressions are time and again moved to the front of the structures:

(3a) She visited her friend.

Who

(3b) She visited who?

(3c) Who did she visit t?

↑
(4a) She went to the park.

Where

(4b) She went where?

(4c) Where did she go t?

As you see, the wh-expressions – who and where – which used instead of the verb complements of visited and went in the interim structures of (3b) and (4b) correspondingly, have moved to the front of the parallel structures in (3c) and (4c). As a consequence, all wh-expressions in English interrogative structures must systematically be fronted Radford (1997).

Nonetheless, it appears that this claim again does not confirm to be correct concerning Farsi in interrogative structures. Farsi grammar lets for both possibilities for some wh-expressions. They can both stay in situations and move to the front of the general structure or happens immediately after or before the subject in some items. For example:

(5a) /hamid beh ketabkhaneh raft/.

Hamid to ketabkhaneh went

(5b) /hamid kojaa raft/? (Where did Hamid go?)

Hamid where went?

(6a) /reza beelate bimaari beh doctor raft/.

- Reza because of sickness beh doctor raft
 (6b) /reza chera beh doctor raft /? (Why did Reza went to the doctor?)
 Reza why beh doctor raft?

At the first look one may mistakenly conclude that Farsi constantly does not let the wh-expressions (i.e., /cheraa/, /kojaa/, /barayecheh/, /kii/, and so forth.) to move and they systematically remain in situations. Still, this is not the case with the use of (/cheraa/) in certain interrogative structures; for instance:

- (7a) /Amir be park naraft chon hava barani bood/.
 Amir to park did not go because it was rainy.
 (Amir did not go to park because it was rainy)

- *(7b) /Amir be park naraft cheraa/?
 Amir to park did not go why
 (Why did not Amir go to park ?)

- (7c) /cheraa amir be park naraft/?
 Why Amir to park did not go

- (7d) /amir cheraa be park naraft/?
 Amir why to park did not go

If we remove the clause (/chon hava barani bood /) and replace it with the parallel wh-expression (/cheraa/), subsequent the no-wh-movement rule which was pointed to earlier, the ill-formed structure (7b) results. In this certain case, the wh-expression (/cheraa/) is not allowed to stay in situation by Farsi grammar and has to move either to the front or to immediately after the subject. Consequently, the position of the wh-expression in the interim structure, i.e. after the related elements are erased and replaced with the proper wh-expression-is grammatically acceptable, the wh-expression will remain in situation; if not, it has to move. As a result, in Farsi, for most of the wh-expressions in interrogative structures, it seems that there is no wh-movement, or, if there exists any, it is very restricted. However, in case of the wh-expression (/cheraa/), we saw that its movement to front of the structure or immediately after the subject was compulsory in particular structures.

The formation of wh-questions in Arabic resembles English since in both languages the syntactic movement of wh-phrase to (Spec-CP) is recognized. In Arabic C bears Q and [wh]. The strong [wh] in C triggers the wh-phrase to move to Spec-Cp (Benmamoun, 2000).

- (10) /yaqru Ahmed alqasedata/.
 Read pres Ahmed the poem.
 Ahmed reads the poem.

- (11) [_{CP} Matha, [_{IP} yaqru Ahmed t_i]]?
 What read pres Ahmed
 What does Ahmed read?

The above account of Question formation in English, Persian and Arabic highlights reveals parametric difference and similarities among the three languages regarding the formation of interrogative structures. As to English and Persian, the latter is a wh-in-situ language but English entails the syntactic wh-movement to Spec-CP and head movement from I to C. Conversely, Arabic appeared to resemble English because the formation of wh-questions in Arabic entails the movement of wh-phrase to Spec-CP, but C stays empty.

C. The Role of the L1 and Universal Grammar in Second Language Acquisition

UG-based L2 research has focused on the L2 initial state since the mid-1990s. One of the major questions is whether L2 learners employ all or parts of the 1st language grammar as their initial theory of the target language. Five partly overlapping positions on the L2 initial state vary from each other regarding the influence they assign to L1 transfer and UG. Each of these positions will be reviewed here.

1. Full Transfer/Full Access

According to this hypothesis, the L1 and L2 acquisition differ at their initial state but seem to be quite comparable with reference to the access of UG. In this theory the starting point is different because L1 learners do not know anything about another language by birth and can hardly even communicate. By comparison, L2 learners have a different point of origin and all categories are transferred, considered to be significant and the UG is completely accessible to the learner. Furthermore, the learner is not supposed "to be stuck with L1 parameter setting; instead, parameter resetting to the L2 value is possible, on the basis of input from the L2 interacting with a still active UG". In this approach, the role of the first language is as important as the role of the Universal Grammar. Finally, the learner stage of acquisition seems to come close to a native-like proficiency, with the help of UG.

According to White (1988), both L1 learners and L2 learners have direct access to UG. During SLA, L2 learners start out with parameters set to their L1 values. This entails that full transfer takes place from the L1 to the L2. However, these transferred L1 parameter values merely constitute the initial state of SLA, and are by no means the sum of the aspects of UG to which the L2 learners have access. On White's view, L2 learners have full access to UG.

Where parameter values of the L1 and the L2 differs, parameter resetting needs to take place during SLA. This resetting will take place if the input to which the L2 learner is exposed contains the relevant positive evidence, i.e. evidence that the target L2 instantiates a parameter value that differs from the value instantiated in the learner's L1.

Where positive evidence is not sufficient to bring about the desired change from the L1 parameter value to the correct L2 parameter value, this change has to be brought about through exposure to negative evidence, exposure to direct evidence in the form of corrective feedback or explicit instruction (ibid.).

2. Full Transfer/No Access

In full transfer/no access model, the L1 last state is the preliminary state of L2 acquisition. Access to Universal Grammar is by the use of the L1, therefore if the Universal Grammar rule is not accessible in the L1, it is not accessible in second language acquisition. Bley-Vroman (1990) claims that UG itself is not available during SLA, but that a surrogate UG is accessible through the L2 learner's knowledge of his/her L1. The L2 learner constructs this surrogate UG from his/her L1 knowledge (Bley-Vroman, 1989). This indirect knowledge is accidental and incomplete (ibid.) and serves as the explanation for the variable success that adult L2 learners exhibit in SLA.

According to Bley-Vroman (1996, p. 718), *Fundamental Difference Hypothesis* "permits UG-like effects via the L1". In other words, the L2 learner does not have access to UG, but observes aspects of UG instantiated in his/her L1 (aspects such as structure dependency). The L2 learner expects certain things from the L2 because of his/her L1 knowledge; these expected things include a syntax, a lexicon, a phonological system with syllables, feet and phonological phrases, as well as the potential for an infinite number of sentences to be generated in the L2 (Bley-Vroman, 1989). The L2 learner makes use of these "expectations", as well as various general cognitive mechanisms (not specifically linguistic, according to Bley-Vroman (1996, p. 718) in the construction of the L2.

3. Partial Transfer/Full Access

In order to this concept, Universal Grammar is fully accessible while only definite parts of L1 are transferred. Following this approach, L2 learners start to acquire in a similar way as L1 learners. The difference is that they already know another language before starting to learn a second one. Second language learners continuously design functional categories in response to the L2 input. L1 learners usually act in the same way. They combine parts of L1 with a complete UG to learn their target language. To sum up, it seems as if the learner could reach a complete achievement.

The partial transfer/full access model was originally proposed by Vainikka and Young-Scholten (1996). In this model, it is claimed that only lexical categories are found in the initial L2 grammar. Functional categories are not transferred from L1 to L2 so that the initial state of L2 learners' grammar consists of the projections of NP and VP (with L1 headedness). DP, TP and CP will emerge at a later stage with interaction of the L2, in principle, L2 learners should converge on the L2 grammar. In this respect, the L2 learner's initial state is just like the initial state proposed by Radford (1990) for children acquiring their L1. Moreover, According to Vainikka and Young-Scholten's (1994), pp. 267-268 Minimal Trees Hypothesis, L2 learners have direct, but initially limited, access to UG in SLA. What is meant by "initially limited access" is that L2 learners start out with only lexical projections (hence "Minimal Trees"), transferred from the L1, and then acquire functional projections gradually on the basis of the L2 input and with the aid of UG. Like White, Vainikka and Young-Scholten (ibid.) claim that L2 learners start out with the L1 parameter values and then reset the parameters during SLA where necessary.

4. Partial Transfer/Partial Access

This approach could be explained as a combination of the essential factors of the role of UG, L1 and other acquisition faculties mentioned before. The role of UG is acknowledged to be very important in L1 and L2 acquisition. In SLA it is likely to have a partial transfer of L1 features and access of fundamental parts of UG. Moreover, this concept postulates that L2 learners use general learning strategies as well. White (1998) holds the view that Universal Grammar is only one component in the theory of language acquisition and interacts with a variety of others. Unsuccessful acquisition is attributed to other areas and not implicitly to non-operation of UG. In addition, Ellis terms this argument "dual access" and explains that adult L2 learners can only reach the ultimate attainment if they rely on UG. Since Universal Grammar is only partially accessible for L2 learners, it seems like they will not be able to achieve a native-like competence. Only parts of the L1 grammar are available. Ultimate attainment of an L2 is not possible. Fig. 2 illustrates this.

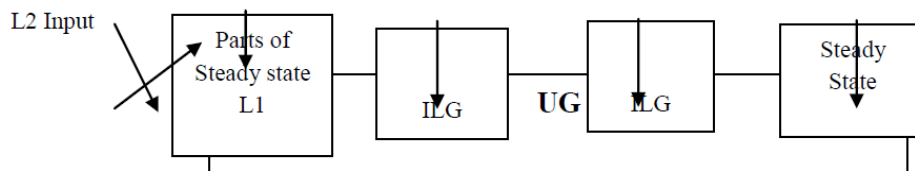


Figure 2. Partial transfer/partial access

5. No Transfer/Full Access

This is the only concept where the transfer from L1 to L2 is totally refused. Contrastively, there is a full access to the UG. It is believed that the L2 grammar is learned on account of UG rules and strictures, which interrelate straightforwardly with the L2 input. The L2 initial state does not contain the L1 final state or any developmental phase. UG is assumed to constitute the initial state for L2 acquisition. All properties of UG are available for L2 acquisition, including new parameter setting, functional categories and feature values. Thus, L2 acquisition proceeds just like L1 acquisition [11]. We can predict that the present L2 learners will show no clear L1-influenced stage, they will never produce a "John what ate?" structure.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study intends to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any statistically significant difference between Iranian mono-lingual learners (L1 Persian) and Persian-Arab bilingual learners (L1 Arabic, L2 Persian) in their acquisition of formation of simple wh-questions in English?
2. Is there any statistically significant difference between elementary and intermediate learners in the acquisition of wh-question movements in English?

Based on the above research questions, the following two null hypotheses were formulated:

1. There is no difference between Persian-Arab bilingual learners (L1 Arabic, L2 Persian) and Persian mono-lingual learners (L1 Persian) in the acquisition of wh-question movements in English.
2. There is no significant difference between elementary and intermediate learners in the acquisition of wh-question movements in English.

B. Participants

Overall, 102 participants took part in the study. There were 48 Arabic-Persian bilinguals (L1 Arabic, L2 Persian) and 54 Persian mono-lingual (See Table 1. for details).

TABLE 1.
OVERVIEW OF THE PARTICIPANTS

	Mono-lingual	Mono-lingual	bilinguals	bilinguals
Proficiency level	elementary	intermediate	elementary	intermediate
Number of participants	30	24	26	22
Age range	16-18 (mean=17)	16-21 (mean=18/5)	16-18 (mean=17)	16-21 (mean=18/5)

This study was undertaken among second and third language learners and instructors of English in Bandar-e-Lengeh. It was essential to target a primary population from which the participants in this study were selected. This primary population was required to include bilingual and mono-lingual English learners. The bilingual learners were in a linguistic community where both parents were Arabs and they use the Arabic dialect of Bandar-e-Lengeh as their native language. Moreover, their first and most dominant language is Arabic. They use it at home and in most informal situations outside the school with their friends. The Iranian Arab group started their official learning of Persian when they entered school at the age of 6. From then on they studied almost all their academic subjects in Persian. They use Persian extensively in their everyday life as they have to use Persian as an official language for communication outside Arab linguistic community and they have been exposed to it in classroom situations, on TV and radio programs. So, they were near native speakers of Persian as well.

The Persian mono-lingual group had very little knowledge of Arabic as they live in a neighboring region to Bandar Lengeh, which is inhabited by Persian monolingual speakers.

Bilingual and mono-lingual learners were at two levels of proficiency, namely, elementary and intermediate. The elementary learners were third year of high school students in Bandar Lengeh. They all had studied English as a foreign language for 5 to 6 years. Their age ranged from 16 to 18 years. In order to maintain the same level of English language proficiency for all the participants, a homogenous test had administered to the participants. The intermediate learners were selected among institution in Bandar-e-Lengeh. Their age ranged from 16 to 21 years.

C. Instruments

The following instrumentations were utilized in this study: A standard general English proficiency test, Nelson Test was used to determine the participant's level of proficiency in English and ensuring their homogeneity. This test comprised 50 multiple-choice of vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension items. Its reliability was estimated in a pilot study by 35 students who had the same characteristics to the main participants of this study. Its reliability reached 0.91 through Cronbach's Alpha Formula. And its content validity also was confirmed by four knowledgeable EFL instructors.

In addition, a background questionnaire was used to elicit some personal information about participants' background. Furthermore a GJT (see the APPENDIX) along with a correction task was utilized to examine the participants' syntactic knowledge. This test was devised to see how the participants perform on the formation of English simple wh-questions. The participants were asked to judge whether a given sentence was grammatical or ungrammatical in English. The correction task required subjects to correct those sentences which were judged to be ungrammatical in English. The purpose of the correction task was to ensure that subjects were rejecting sentences for the right reasons. The GJT had around 40 sentences to be judged. Sixty of these 40 ones were ungrammatical, and 16 sentences were grammatical. There were 8 fillers among 40 items. Among the ungrammatical ones, 5 of them were fillers. Therefore, there were 32 test items. There were eight types of wh-questions (how, where, when, who, what, whose, which, and why) among these 32 test items. Also, there were 4 items for each type of wh-question (e.g. there were 4 items of how, 4 items of what, and etc.). Before administering The GJT, it was piloted 35 students who had the same features to the main

The purpose of study was to investigate differences and similarities between the bilingual and mono-lingual learners in acquisition of wh-questions. However, the wh-questions were dependent variable and the bilingual and mono-lingual learners were independent variable. Also, the participants of study selected randomly. The quantitative data based on precise measurements using structured and validated data-collection instruments. The data displays comparisons means and statistical significance of findings.

IV. RESULTS

A. Homogeneity Process

To ensure the homogeneity of the participants, the Nelson Placement Test was administered to 148 participants. Those students whose proficiency score were one standard deviation, 9.21 below and above the mean of 27.85 were selected as homogeneous participants for this study. Therefore 102 students whose score were between 18 and 37 were chosen. The descriptive statistics of the participants' scores on this test are set forth in Table 2.

This Table shows the descriptive analysis of research such as range, minimum score, maximum score, mean, median, mode, standard deviation and variance.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF NELSON PLACEMENT TEST

N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Variance
148	42	6	48	27.85	28.00	26	9.215	84.917

In order to Figure out whether the data is normally distributed, we used Kolmlgrov-Smirnoff Non-parametric test.

This normality test showed the Sig. of .96, which is more than .05, based on the data which we may consider that the scores are normally distributed ($p = .96, p > \alpha$).

Then those students whose proficiency score were one standard deviation below the mean (scores from 18 to 28, $n = 56$ students) were considered as elementary participants, and those students whose proficiency score were one standard deviation above the mean (scores from 29 to 37, $n = 46$ students) were assigned into intermediate group.

The descriptive statistics of the participants' scores at Elementary and Intermediate Levels on this test are represented in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS' SCORES AT ELEMENTARY AND INTERMEDIATE LEVELS

Parameter	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Variance
Elementary	56	10	18	28	23.62	24.00	26	3.096	9.584
Intermediate	46	8	29	37	32.54	32.00	29	2.622	6.876

B. Testing the First Null Hypothesis

In order to see whether mono-lingual and bilingual participants' scores were normally distributed, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Normality Test was applied. The results showed that two groups' scores are normally distributed because Sig. for mono-lingual and bilingual participants' scores were not significant and they were 0.28 and 0.10 respectively ($p > .05$). Therefore, Independent Samples Test which is Parametric was used to compare the mean score of two groups to see whether the first null- hypothesis of this research should be rejected or not.

The mono-lingual and bilingual participants' performances on Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT) were assessed, and Table 4. represents the related results. As clarified in the table, there were 54 mono-lingual learners with a mean score of 28.63 and standard deviation of 2.36, and 48 bilinguals with a mean score of 29.15 and standard deviation of 2.39. In fact, the mean score and standard deviation of the two groups are not far from each other denoting that the participants in the two groups have close knowledge of the formation of simple wh-questions in English.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF BILINGUALS AND MONO-LINGUALS' WH-QUESTION MOVEMENT SCORES

Group	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
Mono-lingual	54	9	23	32	28.63	28.50	27	2.36
Bilingual	48	8	24	32	29.15	30.00	31	2.39

In order to compare the Wh-question movement mean scores of participants in both mono-lingual and bilingual groups, first the Levene's Test was used to determine the equality of variances and to show that the data are homogeneous. Then an Independent Samples Test was applied to determine the equality of means.

Levene's Test in Table 5 shows that the hypothesis of equal of variances was supported because Sig. for equality of variance, .65, was greater than .05; Moreover, T-test results in the table indicates that there was not a significant difference between the wh-question movement mean scores of mono-lingual and bilingual participants ($t = -1.09, p = .27, p > .05$) in which the t -observed, 1.09 was lower than the t -critical, 1.98, with 100 degrees of freedom, and p

value, .27 was greater than the .05 level of significance. Accordingly, the first null hypothesis of this study was **retained**, and it can be claimed that there is not any statistically significant difference between Persian-Arab bilinguals (L1 Arabic, L2 Persian) and Persian mono-lingual learners (L1 Persian) in the acquisition of wh-question movements in English.

TABLE 5.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR COMPARISON MONO-LINGUAL AND BILINGUAL PARTICIPANTS' TOTAL JUDGMENT SCORES

Levene's Test for Variances			T-test for Means			
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.
Equal variance assumed	.202	.654	-1.09	100	.277	-.516

Fig. 3 provides us with a graphical representation of the results. The figure displays the difference between mono-lingual and bilingual participants' wh-question movement mean scores is small. Thus, the bilinguals got a slightly higher mean score than the mono-lingual learners but it indicated that there weren't significant difference across the groups on wh-questions in grammaticality judgment task.

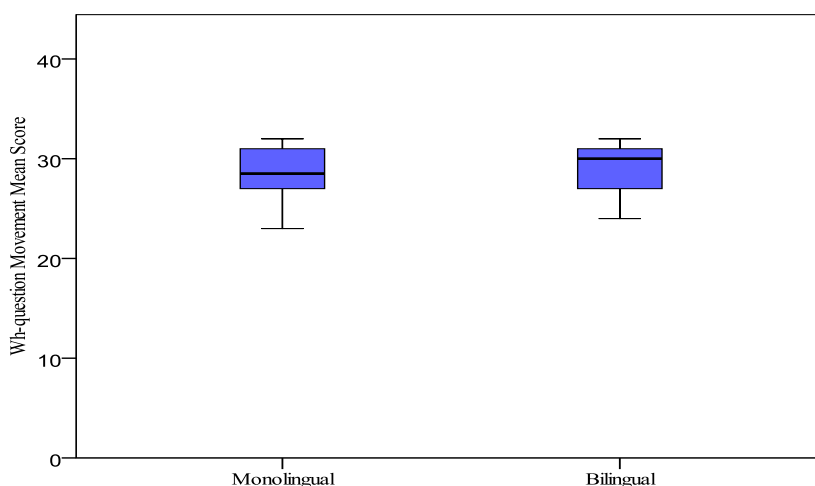


Figure 3. Mono-lingual and bilingual participants' wh-question movement means scores

We saw that the performance of the Arab bilingual group, although a little bit higher, did not differ significantly from the performance of the Persian mono-lingual group. What can we say about this? Don't our bilinguals transfer parameters from Arabic into English as it is assumed by Failed Functional Features Hypothesis and Full Transfer/Full Access Model?

This similarity in the performance of our two groups could be the influence of the second language (i.e. Persian) on the learning of English as a third language. In addition, the influence of the first language of bilinguals seems to be less than the influence of the second language in third language acquisition. It is likely that third language learners transfer more settings from their second language in the inter-language of the third language.

C. Testing the Second Null Hypothesis

The second null hypothesis of this study proposed, "There is no significant difference between elementary and intermediate learners in the acquisition of wh-question movements in English". In order to check this null hypothesis, Independent Samples Test was used.

Before conducting the t-test, the descriptive statistics of grammaticality judgment scores in the two groups were calculated (See Table 6). It shows that the intermediate group (n = 56) with mean score of 30.24 and standard deviation of 1.66 exceeded the elementary group (n = 46) with the mean score of 27.75 and standard deviation of 2.30.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ELEMENTARY AND INTERMEDIATE PARTICIPANTS' WH-QUESTION MOVEMENT SCORES

Level of Proficiency	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Elementary	56	27.75	2.306	.308
Intermediate	46	30.24	1.662	.245

Fig. 4 below displays the results graphically. As clear in the Fig. 4, significant differences were found between performances of the elementary L2 & L3 learners and the performance of the intermediate mono-lingual learners and

bilinguals. However, the intermediate L2 & L3 learners obtained higher mean scores than the elementary bilinguals and mono-lingual learners in production of wh-questions movements.

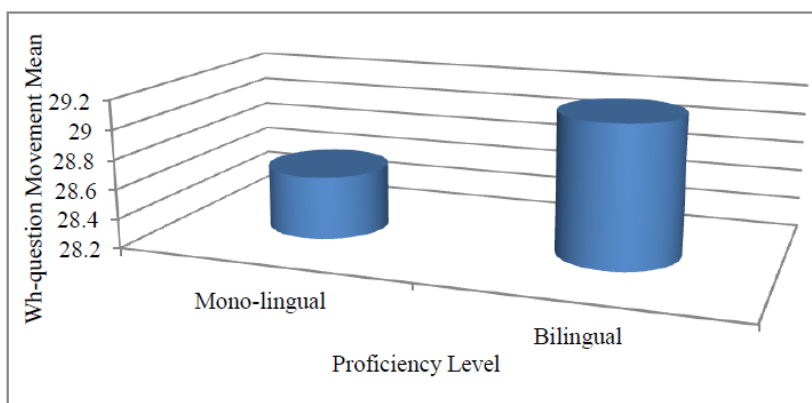


Figure 4. Participants' Wh-question movements means scores at elementary and intermediate levels

In order to see whether elementary and intermediate participants' Wh-question movement mean scores were normally distributed, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Normality Test was applied. The results of this analysis indicated that two groups' scores were normally distributed since Sig. for elementary and intermediate participants' scores were .12 and .07 respectively which are both more than .05. Therefore, the parametric Independent Samples Test was utilized to compare the mean score of two levels to see whether the second null-hypothesis of this research should be rejected or not.

In order to compare the wh-question movement mean scores of the participants at elementary and intermediate levels, first the Levene's test was used to determine the equality of variances. Then the *t*-test was applied out to determine the equality of means.

Levene's Test in Table 7 reveals that the hypothesis of equal of variances was proved since Sig. of .08 was higher than .05. The table provides us with enough criteria for the **rejection** of the second null hypothesis of this study that reads "There is no significant difference between elementary and intermediate participants' scores in the acquisition of wh-question movements in English" ($t = -6.12, p = .000, p < .05$) in which the *t*-observed, 1.09 was less than the *t*-critical, 1.98, with 100 degrees of freedom, and *p* value, .000 was less than the .05 level of significance. As a result, with high degree of confidence, it can be claimed that there is a significant difference between elementary and intermediate participants' scores in the acquisition of wh-question movements in English.

TABLE 7.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST OF COMPARISON BETWEEN PARTICIPANTS' WH-QUESTION MOVEMENT MEAN SCORES AT ELEMENTARY AND INTERMEDIATE LEVELS

Levene's Test for Variances			T-test for Means			
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.
Equal variance assumed	3.161	.082	-6.12	100	.000	-2.489

In order to more details of the second null hypothesis of the research, we compared the judgment scores on eight types of wh-questions movements at elementary and intermediate levels.

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test results revealed that the scores obtained on all eight wh-question movements were not normally distributed since Sig. for all of them was less than .05 ($p < .05$); thus, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U Test was run to compare the judgment scores at elementary and intermediate on each wh-question movement per se. Mann-Whitney U Test (see Table 8) detected statistically significant differences in five wh-question movements, i.e. *How* ($p = .000, p < .05$), *where* ($p = .000, p < .05$), *Who* ($p = .002, p < .05$), *When* ($p = .005, p < .05$), and *What* ($p = .042, p < .05$) question movements across the levels since the *p* values for these five wh-question movements in Mann-Whitney Test were less than .05; however, Mann-Whitney U Test results revealed that there were not significant differences in the three of them, i.e. *Whose* ($p = .104, p > .05$), *Which* ($p = .157, p > .05$), and *Why* ($p = .269, p > .05$) between the two levels of language proficiency because the *p* values for these three wh-question movements were greater than .05.

TABLE 8.
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST TO COMPARE THE MOVEMENT MEAN SCORES OF EACH WH-QUESTION AT TWO LEVELS

Wh-question Type	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Sig. (2-tailed)
How	744	2340	-3.888	.000
Where	814	2410	-3.6	.000
Who	899.5	2495.5	-3.118	.002
When	946	2542	-2.806	.005
What	1055	2651	-2.036	.042
Whose	1128	2724	-1.624	.104
Which	1152.0	2748	-1.417	.157
Why	1193	2789	-1.106	.269

V. DISCUSSION

Independent Samples Test results for testing the second null hypothesis of the current study as there is not any statistically significant difference between Persian-Arab bilinguals (L1 Arabic, L2 Persian) and Persian mono-lingual learners (L1 Persian) in the acquisition of wh-question movements in English indicated that this null hypothesis was not rejected ($t = -1.09, p = .27, p > .05$).

Also, T-Test detected a significant difference between elementary and intermediate participants' scores in the acquisition of wh-question movements in English, and therefore the second null hypothesis was rejected ($t = -6.12, p = .000, p < .05$).

Besides, for deeper investigation, Mann-Whitney U Test found statistically significant differences in five wh-question movements, i.e. *How, where, Who, When* and *what* ($p < .05$) question movements between the levels. But, it failed to find any significant difference in the three of them, i.e. *Whose, Which* and *Why* between the two levels of language proficiency ($p > .05$).

Persian mono-lingual learners of L2 English were available at different levels of proficiency. But this was not the case with Arabic-Persian learners of L3 English. Due to their relatively small population and several other reasons, it was difficult to find a reasonable number of Arabic-Persian learners of L3 English at higher proficiency levels. In other words, selecting a sample of advanced L3 learners turned to be difficult because of the certain qualities such a group should possess.

The findings of this study coincide with Schwartz and Sprouse's (1996) opinion that acquiring will fail where L1 and L2 parameter contexts diverge, i.e. parameter resetting in the L2 is not possible after the critical period for instantiation of these parametric values has made to function. As a result, the inter-language (IL) syntactic representations in post-childhood 2nd language acquisition would be different from the target grammar not considering evident native-like presentation.

Our study also lends support to Li's (1998) research that found that UG is accessible to adult L2 learners when they reach a high proficiency level in the target language. She claims that the native-like performance of the US group is featured to a high language proficiency that helps learners fully access UG and is not attributed to the age of the learners.

Moreover, the results of this study are in line with Sikogukira's (1993) findings about French- English cognates. The results of his study showed that the level of proficiency is a very important factor influencing the performance of the learners and the transfer in the language acquisition.

VI. CONCLUSION

Considering to the impact of language background in L3 acquisition, the findings of the current study resulted in the conclusion that bilingualism makes no significant advantage in 3rd language acquisition. Of course, in some cases the bilingual learners performed better than the mono-lingual ones but not considerably. This seems that the bilingual learners may not take full advantage of their discrete language background as their performance was not more important than that of the mono-lingual learners. That is to say, Arab-Persian bilinguals could also benefit from the accessibility of the [+wh] aspect in their last language to develop their L3 inter-language grammar considering the formation of English simple wh-questions. Nonetheless, the results of this research elucidated that the L3 and L2 learners' presentation were constant and the L3 learners did not act drastically higher than the mono-lingual learners even though their first language, Arabic, shared [+wh] with English.

The finding of the study showed that there was a significant difference between elementary and intermediate participants' performance in the acquisition of wh-question movements in English.

The intermediate L2 & L3 learners performed better than the elementary L2 & L3 learners on wh-questions acquisition. Also, the overall results of the study showed that that all eight wh-question movements are not significantly different for mono-lingual and bilingual learners but there were many different between at two levels of proficiency. Moreover, it showed that *How, Where, Who, When, and What*-question movements were dramatically different at two levels but *Whose, Which, and Why* were not significantly different at two levels of proficiency. Finally, it can be claimed that there is no significant difference between Persian-Arab bilinguals (L1 Arabic, L2 Persian) and Persian monolinguals (L1 Persian) in the acquisition of wh-question movements in English. But significant differences were

found between performances of the elementary L2 & L3 learners and the performance of the intermediate mono-lingual and bilingual learners.

VII. IMPLICATION

The findings of the study tend to contribute to the theoretical and practical advancement of L2A and L3A. As to theoretical contribution, the findings can benefit multi-lingualism and in particular, the L3A. In terms of cross-linguistic influence, it was shown that more of L2 was reflected in L3 inter-language grammar than their L1 as the finding of the study made it clear that the L3 and L2 learners' performance on English interrogative constructions were consistent. In other words, the L3 learners did not act considerably better than the mono-lingual learners even though their 1st language Arabic contributes to [+wh] with English. This insight seems to support the Full Transfer part of the FTFA hypothesis and to be in accord with the claim of "the last language effect" according to which the most recently acquired language is more available for transfer (Hammarberg, 2001). Accordingly, it can be claimed that L3A is different from L2A.

Third language learners constitute a big number of adult language learners around the world. The findings of this study showed that the theories of second language acquisition cannot be applied to these learners. Furthermore, the L2A theories have to be reformulated in light of the findings of L3A studies. If more attention is paid to the study of third language acquisition, it would illuminate not only L2A, but also L1A. Consequently, language acquisition researchers cannot generalize L2A theories into third language acquisition. Rather, they should pay special attention to L3A, L4A, etc, which are not unusual instances in today's world.

The present study also provided empirical data which indirectly helped the development of inter-language theory; the pieces of evidence supplied in different phases of the study contributed to the confirmation and disconfirmation of predictions of the most recently generative models of L2A and their extension of L3A. Moreover, it provided insights into the effect of language learners variable- in terms of impact of language background- on the process of L2A/L3A in that the bilingual learners are not advantaged over mono-lingual learners.

Third language learners come to the task of the acquisition of L3 with bigger reservoirs of knowledge compared to second language learners. They know one more language. The task of the L3 teacher becomes more complicated as one more, big factor is added to the process of language acquisition. If this teacher can find the similarities and differences of the third language with the previously learned languages, he/she can make the process of L3A faster and smoother for the learners. As the findings of this study suggest, when L2 and L3 are different in an aspect, the second language is more influential in L3A even if the L1 and L3 are similar in that aspect. The knowledgeable teacher can bring the similarities of L1 and L3 into the consciousness of his/her students. By doing so, he/she can accelerate the process of L3A, which is already a little bit faster than L2A, as we saw in the results of this study.

Finally, this study appears to contribute to bilingualism research. That is to say it provides some insights into the influence of bilingualism on multi-lingual acquisition. The empirical data reported in this study implied no beneficial effects of bilingualism on third language acquisition as it was revealed that the Arab-Persian bilinguals did not outperform their mono-lingual counterparts. This implication is compatible with the results of some studies on bilingualism which focused on the specific areas of language proficiency and found no significant difference between the bilingual and mono-lingual learners' learning English as a foreign language (Jaspaert & Lemmens, 1990; Zobl, 1993).

APPENDIX. GRAMMATICALITY JUDGMENT TEST (GJT)

Please read the wh-question sentences and circle "Good" if you think these are possible sentences in English, otherwise circle "Bad". Please provide corrections in the given spaces for the randomly selected sentences if you think they are "bad".

1. Does Ali where live?	Good	Bad
2. Did you go to the bank this morning?	Good	Bad
3. What does Maryam usually do at weekends?	Good	Bad
4. Why did Mohsen get up early?	Good	Bad
5. Will the new machine how work?	Good	Bad
6. Do you know where he is?	Good	Bad
7. Will Maryam choose which dress?	Good	Bad
8. Where is your mother?	Good	Bad
9. Whose glasses were you wearing?	Good	Bad

10. Are you waiting for who?	Good	Bad
11. Did he ask many questions?	Good	Bad
12. When was the telephone invented?	Good	Bad
13. Did you have for lunch what?	Good	Bad
14. Who is the author of that book?	Good	Bad
15. Does Mohammad usually study when?	Good	Bad
16. What are they listening to?	Good	Bad
17. Making she is eggs for breakfast today?	Good	Bad
18. Are you why angry with me?	Good	Bad
19. Did they build how that bridge?	Good	Bad
20. Jack whose car did borrow?	Good	Bad
21. Are your parents going for their holiday where?	Good	Bad
22. Why did Sarah stay at home?	Good	Bad
23. Why do you know the cat is sleeping outside?	Good	Bad
24. How is he doing to travel to Tabriz?	Good	Bad
25. Was the doctor talking to who?	Good	Bad
26. Will Hamid do his homework when?	Good	Bad
27. Which clothe does he like?	Good	Bad
28. Came Helen did to the party?	Good	Bad
29. Whose shoes are these?	Good	Bad
30. When will they be here?	Good	Bad
31. Who did Ali hit?	Good	Bad
32. Did Akbar show what to his grandmother?	Good	Bad
33. Does Mr. Mohseni teach how English?	Good	Bad
34. Are your friends staying at hotel?	Good	Bad
35. Shall we go which way?	Good	Bad
36. Where has Amir forgotten his keys?	Good	Bad
37. Didn't he accept why the account?	Good	Bad
38. Why do you know she went home?	Good	Bad
39. Is grammar book on the table whose?	Good	Bad
40. Which doctor did you see?	Good	Bad

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A Case Study of the Relationship between Seniors' EFL Attitudes and Their Employment Intentions

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Abstract—In this thesis, seniors from six universities are investigated on the relationship between EFL attitudes and their employment intentions. Data are collected through questionnaires and analyzed in general which shows that they hold comparatively negative attitudes toward the relationship between CET (College English Test) and their employment intentions.

Index Terms—attitude, employment intention, interaction, College English Test

I. INTRODUCTION

S. Rosenberg and C. I. Hovland (2003) hold a very influential view that attitude consists of three aspects, namely, cognition, emotion, and behavior tendency. This point of view has been widely approbated by most social psychologists. Generally speaking, the cognitive element of the attitude is considered as a statement of judgments, not exclusive of the understanding and comprehension of the attitudinal objective. According to their analysis, emotion can be understood as emotional experience of the attitude towards the attitudinal objective, such as favor, averseness, sympathy and sneer. Meanwhile, behavior tendency is termed to be a kind of internal response, which is a prepared state kept by a person before acting. For the purpose of attitude measuring, it appears to be very clear that emotion index will be more effective and convenient to use than other indexes. Scholars believe that English study is influenced by the interaction of cognition and emotion. (Chang, Kang & Wang, 2005, p.730)

According to the research purpose and characteristics of the investigative objective, the author makes some assumptions as follows:

1. Having already passed the CET band four, the students hold more active attitudes to the College English Test.
2. The undergraduates pay much more attention to the practicability of language, such as oral English, which is beneficial to hunting a job.
3. The seniors' learning of a foreign language appears to show diversity tendency, but it is not just confined to English.
4. College English Test achievement is an influential factor which plays a crucial role in their employment intention for most seniors.

It is expected that some discovery from the investigation can be found to test these hypotheses.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are many researches about English learners' motivation and they have gained some insights and made some achievements. For example, some scholar considers that the college students take the College English Test with a clear tendency of utilitarian purposes. (Ma, 2005: 259) The hard work in English learning done by most Chinese university students is not that they have a very strong motive of learning, but that they have to adapt themselves to the social demands. (Huang & Wen, 2005: 34) The function of CET is limited in evaluating the present quality of English teaching in some Chinese universities. (Tang, 2005: 59) The current test lacks of reliability and validity, which is performed in one aspect as devoid of testing for social communicative ability. (Wang, 2005: 52) In recent years, employers are dissatisfied with the university student's comprehensive ability of English. Basically, the students are just guided by CET without paying attention to developing their communicative competence. (Tang, 2005: 65)

Moreover, some researchers have made some investigations on such an issue from the perspective of psychology. A program which is especially directed by Gao Yihong (2004: foreword), did multi-angular and systematical study on the motivation and the self-identification of Chinese university English learners. The achievement is convincing because of the professional rigorous and scientific approach to the research.

Obviously, among those researches, college students' attitude to CET has not been well studied. Due to some limitations, the author has not found much data in this field.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

Questionnaire is in common use for multifarious investigations because it's handy and convenient to be controlled. For those advantages the author also chooses this method to accomplish the investigation.

A. *Research Objective*

This research is merely conducted among a small crowd. As a special colony, senior students have to face job-hunting after graduation. But previous researches are generally aimed at an investigation on the freshmen and sophomores or third year students. Hence, the objective of this thesis is aimed at seniors from non-English majors who have passed the written-examination of CET. Those who have not passed the test are not to be chosen for the reason that their attitudes are not to be affected by the pressure.

B. *Process of Research*

The questionnaire is a descriptive one, compiled and made up of three parts with 31 questions. The first part is composed of some basic information about the student and his or her English level. The second part, which adopts the method of Likert scale, is made of single choice questions with 20 declarative sentences which should be chosen from five options to best express the student's attitude. The last part is multinomial choice with 6 questions.

46 questionnaires are handed out to some senior students in six main universities in Tianjin, which are Nankai University, Tianjin Polytechnic University, Tianjin University, Tianjin Medical University, Tianjin Normal University, and Tianjin Commercial University, and 41 questionnaires are valid with a rate of 89%. Among the subjects, there are 23 male students from different universities, and 18 female students, who are from 14 different majors of liberal arts, science, medicine, and art etc.

There are many influential factors which are involved in the formation of one's attitude, so some of those factors need to be controlled in certain context. And with the imbalanced development of Chinese economy and education, there are some differences in people's command of English language in different regions. To make the result more typical and to limit the influence of regional difference, the author chooses students who come from different regions of the north and the south in China. Besides, gender ratio, major of the students and representatives of the universities are all considered. Since the questionnaire is to describe the seniors' attitudes towards College English Test but not to be used as research tools, the data collected was not processed for complicated statistical analysis.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The scoring method of the questionnaire is that for questions 1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10 in Section Two the choice of A to E scores 5 to 1 point respectively, and for other questions, the choice of A to E scores 1 to 5 points respectively. The highest score is 75 points, the lowest is 15 points, and in the middle is 40 points. From the results we can see that the highest score the students achieve is 49 points and the lowest score the students achieve is 26 points. The number of the students who achieve more than 40 points is 24, among which there are 12 females. This shows that the total score the subjects have achieved is generally low. Although some of them have passed CET-4, and half of them have passed CET-6, their evaluation of CET-4 and CET-6 is not very high. Therefore we can see that hypothesis one does not stand right and hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 3 are proven to be correct from the results of Section Two and Section Three. From the statistical data, it appears that some problems for university students do exist in English learning.

From the holistic low score of attitude investigation, as we have just mentioned in the above paragraph, clearly, it can be said that the subjects being chosen prevalently hold a little bit negative attitude to College English Test. Though all of the students investigated have already passed written examination of CET, the seniors did not give a high evaluation to College English Test. Some reasons can be found in the collected data. To analyze the data concretely, the students doubt that the content of College English Test is useful for them. How could they give high appraisal to something that they consider to be useless to them?

Although many students think that CET can estimate a student's mastery of the College English course, fewer students admit that College English Test can really reflect how well it is mastered. The result of items 4 and 5 seems to be antinomic; actually the phenomenon reflects the students' disaffection to College English teaching, because College English Test is not actually following the university English teaching syllabus. Data of items 13 and 15 corroborates that the analysis above is right, and that most students do not feel that they have made obvious progress in the College English course.

Items 8 and 9 show that the seniors are generally affirmative to the importance of CET school reports, but the achievement of CET is not the main factor in their choice to go abroad or enter a foreign company. Whether they go abroad or hunt a job in the overseas-funded enterprise or not is not closely related with the results of CET.

From item 11, most of the students think greatly of mastering professional knowledge and skills, certainly including the study of the professional English. However, there are still over two-fifths of the seniors who figure that the current English teaching can't satisfy their needs of learning professional knowledge in English. Universities arrange professional English course to cultivate students' catena reading ability and prepare themselves for their further scientific research, but since many of the teachers for those courses know little about the law of foreign language teaching, it turns out to be, unfortunately, another intensive reading lesson. (Liu & Dai, 2003: 99)

Generally speaking, people think girls are good at learning a foreign language, but job-hunting is much more difficult

for them compared with boys. That's one of the reasons for nearly half of the seniors who consider that the ability to master English is much more important for girls.

Many students deem that CET school reports should not be so emphasized by employers because they cannot represent all of the students' capacity. The ability of using the language should be more important than CET school reports.

Most of the people look forward to a decent job which could offer them a considerable amount of pay. Based on this expectation, the undergraduates prefer to find opportunity in enterprises wholly-invested by foreigners, and Chinese-foreign joint ventures. Meanwhile, no matter where they come from, the seniors prevalently want to work at open coastal cities, which are the most developed regions of Chinese economy. Nearly all the overseas-funded enterprises and the joint ventures will require the newly graduates of some proficient English. From the research data it can be seen that this viewpoint is accepted undoubtedly by a majority of the seniors. This might be one of the motives why they want to learn English well at the universities before they are graduated.

Most of the seniors know clearly about their weaknesses in English learning. Even for those who have passed CET, speaking English and using it in everyday life is not as easy as getting a high mark in the written test. That's why as many as 76% of the seniors long for improving their oral English at present, and 51% for improving their listening comprehension. In addition, reading comprehension, writing and translation are also needed to be reinforced, although these are exactly what College English Test tests the students.

Most of the seniors have not taken part in other English tests. On one hand, it can prove how important CET is viewed by university students. On the other hand, it can be explained that the students' recognition of the importance of CET is due to a direct relationship between a CET school report and a desirable job. This fact is not in conformity with what the students wish to be, who think that the ability to use English should be considered as that of more significance than the school reports of CET.

While facing a significant option in their lives, two-thirds of the students choose to go for further study. We can see that what the seniors intend to get is still a satisfied job. It's somewhat surprising that a plurality of the seniors do not want to hunt a job related to what they have learned at university. This shows that the majors that the students choose at the universities are not what they consider as of some importance in the factors of hunting a job. And meanwhile it may also display that what the students learn at the universities is not what they need in their future careers.

From the data of the questionnaire it shows a comparatively high coherence. So this investigation basically achieves the expected purpose.

The current College English Test lacks the test of specific social communicative skills, which makes CET invalid. Some scholars indicate that the current syllabus just regulate a certain quantity of vocabulary, while, other content is ambiguous, which could not offer an ideal theoretical structure for testing. (Ren, 2005: 261)Consequently, the syllabus can not guide College English Test.

The reform of College English Test signals evidently that as popularization of English in higher educational institutions, the focal point of English teaching will turn to professional English gradually. Only in this way can professional trait of different universities incarnated, thus the undergraduates can accommodate themselves to the current social requirements. (Ren, 2005: 261)

From all the analyses in this thesis, the conclusion can be drawn as follows: even though they have passed the CET, the seniors are not satisfied with it, because a CET report card is an auxiliary for seniors to apply for a desirable job, but not an influential or decisive factor in their job-hunting.

V. LIMITATIONS

Because of limited time and lack of data for reference, the investigated items in the questionnaire are a little scattered and need to be perfected. Another problem is that the questionnaires are all handed out by seniors, so students investigated might not be serious enough in their choices. There might also be some misunderstandings on the same item for different students, which will interfere with the subjects in making their choices.

If there are some voices from the employers, it would be more persuading.

Though the investigated subjects are various and comparatively typical, the quantity of investigation is not big enough. It is still worth doing further researches in the future.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear friend,

Hi. This questionnaire is designed to make a survey on your attitude towards CET-4 and CET-6. Please answer the following questions carefully and express what you really feel about the test according to the following requirements. This will take you some of your precious time and we are grateful to your help.

Part One: Background information.

Please write your corresponding information on the line or put a tick on the line.

I am _____male or _____female.

I am/have been graduated from _____ University.

My major is _____.

I am from _____ (Province or city).

I have passed _____ CET-4 or _____ CET-6 or _____ both.

Part Two: Please choose one item that best expresses your opinion and click the corresponding letter marked with A, B, C, D or E.

1. I think that excellent achievements of the CET-4 and CET-6 may prove that my ability of learning is remarkable, and poor performance may show that my ability of learning is also poor.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
2. I think the practical ability of using English language is more important than the results of the CET-4 and CET-6.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
3. I think that what CET-4 and CET-6 test us is not very practical.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
4. I think that CET-4 and CET-6 can test out my level of learning in College English course.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
5. I think that the results of CET-4 and CET-6 may show the actual performance of my English language learning.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
6. I think that the changes that have taken place in the reform of CET-4 and CET-6 have made great progress in testing a foreign language.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
7. I think that the school report of CET-4 and CET-6 by issuing a report card instead of the original certificates does nothing but reduces the importance of the test itself.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
8. I think that the school report of CET-4 and CET-6 is a first step forward to the success of hunting a job.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
9. After I have passed the tests, I am considering of the possibility of going abroad for further studies or entering an overseas-funded enterprise to work.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
10. I think that the school report of CET-4 and CET-6 is much more reasonable than the certificates of qualification.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
11. I think that professional skills and knowledge are more important than the grades of CET-4 and CET-6.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
12. I think that the textbooks of College English are far more different in contents from what CET-4 and CET-6 test us.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
13. I think that the courses of College English have been proven to be of limited use.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
14. I think that I have learned nearly nothing of use in the course of professional English for non-English majors.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
15. I think that the courses should be designed to include more for the students' practical needs in the future.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
16. I think that the original CET-4 and CET-6 certificates are of more importance to me than the present school reports.
 - A. I agree with it very much.
 - B. I agree with it.
 - C. I don't know.
 - D. I don't agree.
 - E. I don't agree with it at all.
17. I think that the results of the CET-4 and CET-6 are closely related with the teacher's performance.

- A. I agree with it very much. B. I agree with it. C. I don't know.
 D. I don't agree. E. I don't agree with it at all.
18. I think that professional English for non-English majors is quite necessary.
 A. I agree with it very much. B. I agree with it. C. I don't know.
 D. I don't agree. E. I don't agree with it at all.
19. I think that it is more difficult to improve my writing than my speaking in English.
 A. I agree with it very much. B. I agree with it. C. I don't know.
 D. I don't agree. E. I don't agree with it at all.
20. I think it is very difficult for me to improve my speaking in English.
 A. I agree with it very much. B. I agree with it. C. I don't know.
 D. I don't agree. E. I don't agree with it at all.

Section Three

Please choose one or more items that most suits to your opinion, you may tick the corresponding letter marked with A, B, C, D.

- What do you plan to do after your graduation?
 A. For further studies B. Joining the work force. C. Going abroad. D. Other choices.
- What courses have you attended before?
 A. The training courses for CET-4 and CET-6. B. The training courses for postgraduate entrance examination.
 C. TOEFL D. IELTS E. GRE F. Oral English G. No courses.
- What ability do you want to approve yourself most?
 A. Oral English B. Listening comprehension C. Reading comprehension. D. Writing. E. Translation
- What kind of job do you like to hunt?
 A. Stat-owned enterprise B. overseas-funded enterprise C. Joint venture
 D. a private enterprise E. Government F. Self employed
- Which area would you like to work in?
 A. The Pearl River area B. The Yangtse Rive area C. The Bohai Bay area
 D. The Northeast Part of China. E. The central plain area
 F. The Southwestern Part of China. G. The Western part of China.
 H. The Northwestern part of China.
- Which kind of place do you like to work in China?
 A. big cities b. medium-sized cities C. small cities D. towns E. villages

Thank you vey much for having filled in this form of questionnaire. Best wishes to you for a successful career!

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The Professional Development of the Foreign Language Teachers and the Professional Foreign Language Teaching Practice

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Abstract—Foreign language teaching practice plays an important role in developing the foreign language students' professional thinking of and improving their teaching ability in the normal university. In the gradual process of the foreign language teachers' professional advancement, the traditional concepts and the approaches of the teaching practice have failed to meet the standard of foreign language teacher training in the new era. Therefore, it is imminent to construct the professional foreign language teaching practice. In this paper, from the perspectives of the foreign language teachers' professional status, the connotation of the professional development and the structure of professional quality, the author rethinks the problems and the tasks in foreign language teaching practice and puts forward the new orientation and conception.

Index Terms—foreign language teachers, professional development, foreign language teaching practice

I. INTRODUCTION

Since 1966 UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) and ILO (International Labor Organization) recommended the teacher as a professional career. People have formed an international consensus on the concept of teachers' professionalization. And the teachers' professional development has become an important goal of the reform of the teachers' educational system and the curriculum system in many countries. Our "Teachers Law" sets, "the teacher is the professional who should devote himself to the education teaching". As the professional teachers, they need not only to have the broad and profound knowledge of the discipline, but also to go through the professional training in education and fulfill the requirements for the teachers' qualification and the professional norms. At present, all the countries in the world are to improve teacher's professional level, strengthening the teachers' team construction as a breakthrough to improve the quality of the elementary education. Our country is also facing up to the same problem.

In the system of teacher's professional development, practical teaching is an indispensable and important segment. As one of the main forms of the practical teaching, educational practice is an important part of higher normal education and the link between the teaching theory and teaching practice. Meanwhile, it is a key link in the process of the teachers' professionalization, and regarded as the source of teachers' professional development. Foreign language teaching practice plays an important role in cultivating the students' foreign language professional thoughts in the normal university and improving the students' teaching ability. The traditional foreign language teaching practice has helped to cultivate a large number of first-line teachers. However, in the gradual process of the foreign language teachers' professional advancement, the traditional concepts and the approaches of the teaching practice have failed to meet the standard of foreign language teacher training in the new era.

II. THE OVERVIEW OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

A. *The Foreign Language Teachers' Professional Status*

As a language teaching, whether the foreign language teaching is one of the professional and technical professions or not has been debated for a long time. On May 7th, 1965 at Harvard University in Massachusetts the Foreign language Advisory Committee held a "The Preparation for Being Foreign Language Teachers" conference. Professor Brooks from Yale university (1966) attempted, from three academic and professional occupations - law (lawyer), medicine (doctor) and theology (priest), to find out a model to establish the professional status of language teaching. In recent years, foreign language teachers and foreign language teaching institutions have discussed and pay attention to the professional status of foreign language teaching again. For instance, whether the foreign language teaching has unique characteristics or not; whether the foreign language teaching needs special skills and training or not; whether the foreign language teaching can become a lifelong valuable career choice; whether the foreign language teaching can give practitioners highly professional satisfaction, etc. (Richards & Lockhart, 1996) The scholars around the world, language teachers and foreign language teaching institutions try to demonstrate the status of language education through a variety of means. From the perspectives of the language teachers' professionalism, working conditions, personal goals, attitudes and their career expectations, it is revealed that foreign language teaching should be recognized as the same as

other established profession. In 1991, the 25th International English Language Teaching Association declared to the world that since the beginning of this century people have achieved plenty of accomplishments through foreign language teaching practice and theoretical research, and professional foreign language teaching was formed.

B. The Connotation of Foreign Language Teachers' Professional Development

The connotation of teachers' professional development is very abundant. The concept of teachers' professional development basically is around two main lines: one is the explanation on the process of teacher's professional development from the perspective of teachers' individual psychology; the other is the interpretation on the process to promote the teacher's professional growth from the angle of the teacher education. For example, Perry (1980) think, the word "professional" has multiple meanings. In terms of the meaning, the teachers' professional development means that teachers' personal growth in their professional life, such as enhancing the confidence, improving the skills, and trying to broaden and deepen the discipline knowledge. In terms of the most positive significance, the teachers' professional development contains more content. For example, the teachers are beyond the scope of skills and artistic performance; they become the people who can promote to be professional and transform professional knowledge into the authority.

In the foreign language teaching literature, the concept of foreign language teachers' professional development is basically as the same as that of teacher professional development. The reason why teaching has become a significant feature of the profession is that teachers should treat their professional growth as a permanent goal (Pennington, 1990). The growth means the change and development, which includes four elements: the consciousness of the development, the positive and open attitude, the accumulation of knowledge and the development of the skills (Larsen - Freeman, 1983). There are four characteristics of the language teachers' changes. However, those changes do not necessarily reveal in behavior, but also can refer to the changes of their consciousness. The changes are not necessarily to get instant results or accomplish at one stroke. Some changes can be directly obtained, so it is quantifiable, but others are not. Some sorts of the changes tend to be enclosed, while others belong to open (Freeman, 1989). In this case, the change here refers to the development with innovative significance.

As for the growth of foreign language teachers, it can be understood as the dynamic process in which foreign language teachers continuously learn, reflect and develop in the teacher educational system, under the background of teacher's specialization. The famous educational scholars Pennington (2001) outline the process: in the latest teacher educational literature, there are two terms, "reflection" and "development", begin to be concerned with. In the connotation and the denotative concept of these two terms, they are able to describe the overall orientation of the nature of language teaching and learning, which means that "reflection" and "development" is not only intended to change the learners and teachers, but also will help the teachers to transform from the transforms in the traditional course of into the active agents in the common situation in the future.

C. The Structure of Foreign Language Teachers' Professional Quality

The foreign language teachers professional quality structure consist of five sections, including the development of foreign language teaching beliefs, comprehensive professional language knowledge, professional ethics and emotional attitude, healthy personality and the initiative of the self - development. Teaching belief is refers to the education teaching conception that the teachers select, approve and determine in their profession. The conception of the foreign language teaching including the beliefs in the nature of the foreign language teaching, the beliefs in the characteristics of the foreign language learners and the nature of learning foreign language, the beliefs in the disciplinary value and the like. Teachers' beliefs can restrict their behavior, and can influence the teaching behavior more than teachers' knowledge. The teachers' beliefs have a significant impact on their study and growth.

As the people who preach, grant knowledge and disabuse, foreign language teachers should first have a general knowledge of culture. Foreign language course teaching should be involved in the Chinese and western culture, customs, popular science knowledge, ancient and modern celebrities, and the knowledge in political, economic, cultural and artistic field, etc. Foreign language teachers, though not necessarily to be proficient in various subjects, should know "a bit". In terms of the discipline knowledge, foreign language teachers should have a solid and systematic targeted knowledge, including the pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. In addition, foreign language teachers still should have knowledge associated with the targeted language, such as discourse, pragmatics, language acquisition, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and the national language knowledge. The knowledge of foreign language teaching is an important part of the discipline knowledge, which includes the teaching skills on the language knowledge and the language skills, the skills to design the teaching activities and manage the teaching material and the methods and skills to feedback classroom teaching and monitor teaching activities. In addition, the knowledge of foreign language teaching theories and personal practical knowledge is the important pillar of teachers' knowledge. With the promotion of the teacher's professional status, teachers' development should consist of curriculum development, the theory of curriculum outline design, testing and evaluation theory.

Professional ethics is the core component of teachers' quality. Teachers are the ones who inherit and spread the human spiritual civilization. They should lead an important role in the teaching process. The concept that "cultivating themselves" should have priority over "educating others" embodies the teachers' basic attitude towards the occupation. Teachers' professional ethics and emotional attitude has begun to form, and will run through the whole process of teachers' career. Professional moral and emotional attitude is an important index to measure the quality of the teachers'

professionalization.

Individual mental health mainly covers three aspects: the individual psychology to be good at cooperation, good psychology to tolerant and the quality of modesty and humility. Because foreign language teaching has certain nature of the sociality, it is particularly important for foreign language teachers' professional development to have the individual psychology to be good at cooperation with others. Good psychological ability, optimistic mood and positive spirit can promote the quality and process of foreign language learning.

The initiative for self-development can help to produce the actuation of the self-development. Without the teachers' active development, the students cannot develop actively. Before foreign language teachers guide their students to have lifelong learning goals, they should firstly obtain the ability of active development. With the development of world economic integration, foreign language has become a "developmental" discipline. The initiative for self-development is essential for foreign language teachers to obtain the ability to develop sustainably.

III. THE HISTORY OF TEACHING PRACTICE

Teaching practice, once called "field practice" in the earliest time in the western countries, was called "practical knowledge" or "practical exercise" in our country. Although there are diverse names of teaching practice at the ancient and modern times in the Chinese and western countries, but its essence is the same, which namely refers to a process and a kind of teaching mode to cultivate and train the future teachers. In our country, teaching practice was produced in the end of our modern society. In 1898, Sheng Xuanhuai founded the first Nanyang Chinese public school normal college, with the target of "through a year, the normal students learn as well as rethink profoundly, and obtain the benefits from the learning and practice". Therefore, the teaching practice occurred in China. According to "Imperial Peking Normal University Charters" formulated by Qing dynasty in 1902 and "Superior Normal School Regulations" promulgated by Qing dynasty in 1904, the fourth year in Peking Normal University was the time for the students to practice, which resulted in that the practice was determined in the form of a system. After the 1911 revolution, the republic government promulgated the "The Normal School Curriculum Standard", which regulated that the teaching practice should occupy 5.3% of the total teaching hours. And due to "The Modified Normal School Regulations" promulgated in 1916, the school should strengthen the teaching practice time, and "the teaching practice, in addition to various professors, all about management and other matters shall be ready to guide at any time."

During the revolutionary civil war, the Communist Party of China established farmers Institute. In 1934 the farmers Institute were changed into the advanced normal school, where the forms of teaching practice were visits, training and teaching. In 1941, the Ministry of Education of the Kuomintang (KMT), announced "The Methods of the Normal School (Department) Practice", which was China's first specialized work regulations about teaching practice. Those Regulations provided for the specific content of teaching practice in detail, such as the time, content, organization and leadership, performance assessment and evaluation, etc. According to the "The Regulations in Normal College" promulgated in 1942, the students should spend 5 years to graduate from the normal schools, which includes that they should study four years at school and in the last year they need to practice in the middle school. Just when the students were qualified to practice, they could finally get the degree certificate.

After the founding of the PRC, teaching practice has a greater development on the basis of the original. In 1952, the Ministry of Education promulgated the "Regulations on the Higher Normal School (Draft)" and regulated that the affiliated schools of the higher normal schools were the important places of teaching practice for students. The Ministry of Education for the first time drew up "The Outline of Teaching Practice in the Normal School (Draft)" in 1952 and "The Outline of Teaching Practice in the Normal University and Vocational College" in 1957, and formulate "the time of teaching practice is one year, and the contents of teaching practice include five aspects: ①the understanding of the practice of school work; ②the observation of classroom teaching and educational activities; ③trying to teach and listen to lectures; ④the practice of the head teachers' work; ⑤writing the practice diaries and make the practice report." During ten years of turmoil, the teaching practice was canceled, which caused a sharp drop in the quality of education.

After the downfall of the gang of four, the system of teaching practice has been restored and developed. In October 1980, the Ministry of Education issued "The Suggestions to Do a Good Job in the Higher Normal College", and pointed out: "teaching trainee and practice is an important link for the teachers to associate theory with practice and to cultivate qualified middle school teachers. The normal colleges must attach great importance to and strengthen the teaching practice earnestly. If the condition is allowed, the normal colleges should develop and build their attached middle schools for the educational experiment and practice." In 1987 the national Education Commission promulgated a new "Eight Teaching Plan for Two-year Normal School", which pointed out that the time for teaching practice will be increased from 4 weeks to 6 weeks. During the period of the ninth five-year plan, the Ministry of education put forward to strive to run the normal education at all levels, improve the professional quality of the normal college graduates, and attach great importance to the cultivation of students' practical ability.

IV. THE RECOGNITION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING PRACTICE

A. *The Orientation of College Foreign Language Teaching Practice*

The foreign language education in the higher normal colleges belongs to the professional education. The educational

goal of the foreign language education is to cultivate the foreign language teachers who have the ability of teaching and research. The aim of foreign language teaching practice is to make students into the foreign language teaching practice, consolidate and expand their knowledge and skills learned in school, improve their language applied skills in listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation, develop their ability to be independently engaged in teaching and research, so that the students can have more extensive adaptability after graduation and adapt to the needs of foreign language teaching and the development of the society. Foreign language teaching practice possesses the characteristics of normal education and the foreign language discipline, its positioning is summed up as:

- Foreign language teaching practice is the professional skill training course where the foreign language students link the educational theory to the practice;
- Foreign language teaching practice is the foreign language students' academic achievement review course;
- Foreign language teaching practice is a political course where foreign language students consolidate their professional thoughts;
- Foreign language teaching practice is a unified activity course with multi-side participation and joint implementation;
- Foreign language teaching practice is an identification course where foreign language students obtain the qualifications for teachers.

B. The Construction of Professional Foreign Language Teaching Practice

1. The Construction of the Skills

Teaching design skill— It is a kind of the skills that teachers use to anticipate and design the overall teaching process and teaching steps from the global teaching situation. It can include the following main activities, such as designing the structure of various foreign language classroom teaching process; selecting the appropriate teaching methods; configuring teaching tools; according to the teaching objective, choosing the content of teaching materials and turning it into the teaching project projects (language paradigms, communicative situation, text etc.); arranging the bilateral activities between teachers and students in the teaching process; the needs associated with speech training project; designing exercises; etc.

Communicative and cooperative skill— This skill requires, in the teaching process, that the student teachers should establish a communicative and cooperative relationship between teachers and students, among the students themselves and between the teacher and the whole class in foreign language teaching, student teachers use to the language that they teach the students to create a foreign communicative teaching atmosphere. Teachers and students participate in the real communicative activities in a cooperative manner, which ensure the authenticity of the target language.

Organizing and monitoring skill— This skill is an important guarantee to realize the first two skills. It includes the following main activities, such as organizing and achieving the established teaching plan in class; organizing the students' communicative activities in accordance with the planned teaching system, the students' individual characteristics and the level of the foreign language that they have mastered; holding the foreign language competitions and language games, etc. At the same time, teachers should monitor the students' behavior and their communication activities in extra-curricular activities or the teaching process, and timely adjust their teaching strategies. The teaching skill is an ability test for the student teachers' comprehensive ability in practice, and also an important factor in the teaching activities smoothly.

Quality education skill—it mainly refers to the skill with which teachers use the foreign language materials of the textbook for the students' individual development education, intelligence education and moral education. This function is contained in the teaching, but it is essential for quality education, and cannot be ignored in the foreign language teaching activities.

Research skill— The function of this skill requires the student teachers conduct their teaching activities as well as studying the students' psychological and age characteristics, teaching method and teaching materials, experiencing the theories in the teaching time, finding and solving the practical problems, forming the practice report or research paper, which reflects the requirement that the future foreign language teachers change into the "research" teachers.

2. The Construction of Practice Content

Based on the content of the original language teaching practice, the professional foreign language teaching practice can elaborate the practice programs and strengthen the professional quality, which is helpful to facilitate the formation of foreign language teaching behavior and the implementation of formative assessment.

The classroom teaching practice—Classroom teaching is the basic form of class teaching system. The teachers systematically teach knowledge and develop their students' intelligence according to provisions of the teaching plan. At the same time, it is a kind of teaching activity for the students' moral education. It is the core content of the student teachers' comprehensive training and improvement, and a basic approach that the student teachers apply the professional knowledge they have learned to the real teaching practice. As a key link in the whole process of teaching practice, classroom teaching practice is divided into several class teaching methods, such as attending the lectures, preparing for the courses, teaching methods, writing teaching plans, teaching demonstration, classroom teaching, assessment, correcting the assignments and the like.

The in-charge teacher practice—The practice of being the teachers who are in charge of the class contains several

specific content, including establish the work plan for the work of the teachers who are in charge of the class, organizing the themed class meeting, carrying out the extracurricular activities and having the family visit work.

The investigation and study practice—The content of this practice is involved in many aspects, such as educational environment, teaching methods, the usage of teaching materials, the students' learning motivation and learning strategies. The results of the investigation and research practice are the investigation reports or research thesis.

The establishment of the portfolio on teaching practice— Based on the role that teaching practice plays in the normal students' professional development, the portfolios on the foreign language teaching practice are divided into three types, including material, reflective and communicative type. In the portfolios there should be the files that can show the students' innovative ability and their growing process in teaching practice. After the completion of the portfolio, the time and directory should be marked on the cover. The teachers should give their feedbacks according to students, collected content in teaching practice. The students and their fellows can also participate in the assessment activities in teaching practice.

3. The Construction of Practice Criteria

A person of profound knowledge can become a teacher. A person of higher respect can become a model. The word "normal" in the phrase "higher normal colleges" in Latin means "regulation and standard". The professional foreign language teaching practice is intended to reflect the standardized requirements.

The requirements for basic skills— The requirements for the basic skills are embodied in the three aspects, pronunciation, language teaching and writing on the blackboard. Before the teaching practice, the students should pass the test of reading and the phonetic symbol. In the classroom teaching, the student teachers should be required to hold the accurate pronunciation and intonation. Their teaching language should follow the specification and conform to the syntactic and pragmatic rules. Their blackboard writing should be required clear, clean and without spelling mistakes. Their teaching practice should reflect the teaching points and knowledge structure.

The requirements for teaching plan— The teaching plans include the unit plans and the lesson plans. There should be the detailed teaching plans in the lesson plans. The content of the teaching plan should include the following elements, such as the teaching goals, teaching steps, time distribution, assignments, the design of the blackboard writing, etc.

The requirements for educational technology— In the teaching demonstration and practice, the students should make a class independently. And their teaching design can reflect the usage of the network resources.

The requirements for lesson assessment and lesson lecture— In the teaching demonstration and teaching practice, the students are required to use the target language to assess and lecture the lessons. Their participation is listed in the assessment index.

The requirements for ethics— During the teaching practice, the students should comply with the school rules and regulations, and their behavior should conform to the teacher's ethics.

V. CONCLUSION

Foreign language teaching practice is aimed at to provide a platform for the normal students' professional knowledge and the theoretical practice. The significance of that platform is to strengthen the vocational spirit and ideal in foreign language teaching, to internalize the professional theories of the foreign language teaching, to activate the practical knowledge of the foreign language teaching and to reflect on the role of foreign language teachers. For the foreign language students in the normal college, foreign language teaching practice is not only a test of professional knowledge and skills, but also a challenge and test on their occupational spirit and ideal. Teaching practice is facing up to the problems that how the students make the theoretical knowledge applied in classroom teaching. The teacher's practical knowledge results from their practical sense, which is a kind of ability to reflect and grasp subconsciously when they are immersed in the educational environment.

Foreign language teaching practice is the preparation stage of the foreign language teachers' specified professional roles. The reflective ability is the inner motivation of teachers' professional development, and one of the important contents of reflection is the reflection on the teacher's role. Foreign language educational trainees will feel a bit confused, uncomfortable and even frustrated. Reflection can make the trainees calm in the face of emergencies, objectively view their deficiency in the teaching practice, and actively adjust themselves, so as to promote their self-development and self-perfection. A good beginning is half done. The professional platform for the foreign language teaching practice is an integral part of the foreign language teachers' professional development to, but is also the starting point of foreign language educational action research.

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Aestheticism versus Realism? Narcissistic Mania of the Unheeded Soul in Oscar Wilde's *The Picture of Dorian Gray*

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Abstract—Wilde's complete adherence to aestheticism led him to write beautifully but maybe without any stress on the significance of morality. His only novel *The Picture of Dorian Gray* reveals his philosophy of aestheticism in both art and life. The standpoint of 'beauty' dominates the novel in a way that almost all of its possible themes are shadowed or directed through the strict filter of aestheticism. However, it seems that this is only a half-truth, as moral and social issues are also revealed with a fastidious precision. Dorian Gray is constantly troubled by the ghosts of conscience, aging, and alienation, and these ordeals force him into the dark dungeon of paranoia. Hence, the common knowledge concerning Wilde's art is a matter of debate, and this scrutiny essays to lay stress on the assumption that this novel is not solely an aesthetic work but a combination of aestheticism and realism. To accomplish this, the present study aims to delve into the inordinate fear and vulnerability of Dorian Gray's character, which is dominantly ruled by the fading beauty of his soul. The paper will put the novel under the scrutiny of the psychological trauma of narcissism to conclude how social alienation brings about Dorian Gray's mental breakdown.

Index Terms—Wilde, Dorian Gray, narcissism, mania, society

I. INTRODUCTION

Oscar Wilde's masterful art and philosophical intellect place him at a far distance ahead of his peers. Roden (2004) says, he "was not the first to insist on art's autonomy, but he has frequently been seen as championing the idea" (pp. 99-100). Wilde believed that artistic beauty should be the basic goal of a literary work while moral pedagogy should not be considered as its primarily significant object. Even if it works for the representation of moral qualities, the presentation of such qualities is to be eclipsed by aesthetic merits. And it is for the achievement of such a thorough aesthetic objective that in the preface to *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, he reproachfully claims that, "no artist has ethical sympathies. An ethical sympathy in an artist is an unpardonable mannerism of style" (Wilde, 2005, p. 3). If Wilde is right in this claim, art's lack of ethical sympathy is a unique point which renders it an autonomous entity that appeals to no appetitive or other forms of subjective interest. However, Wilde in actuality, as this study is expected to point out, underlines the significance of ethics, and deems it as important as art itself. Therefore, a literal reading of his quotes seems to make him paradoxical and inconsistent.

Wilde's inexpressible ability in questioning the conventions of the English society has brought an unforgettable name out of him in the English Literature. He was an active author both in prose and verse; though, his verse was/is not usually esteemed as high as his prose. His dramas show a brilliant satire of society; his short stories revive a sense of reading; his only novel pictures his aesthetic notion more clearly than his other works. Therefore, it does not sound a surprise to read Bloom's assertion:

We cannot be Wilde, as his genius is beyond us, but we need to be as Wildean as possible in writing about him. A conventional response will fail. Oscar is paradox and needs to be ambushed—by wily stratagems and (only apparently) lunatic juxtapositions (Watkin, 2010, p. viii).

His revolutionizing and trailblazing attitudes toward art and life are his inseparable qualities, and, through this consideration, it becomes apparent to see him heads and shoulders above his peers. As a matter of fact, he does not deal with the common preoccupations of the day; instead, he goes beyond the constraints of time and place, dealing with the perpetual predicaments so as to immortalize his name. This seems to stand as one of the main reasons he was usually unassimilated by his generation and was under the bitterest reproaches. Nevertheless, the fact did not stop some of his contemporaries and the later generations from treasuring his work. As Roden avers:

Oscar Wilde did everything there is to be done with words. He spoke them, his contemporaries tell us, like no one else. He wrote plays in which the dialogue mirrored his own spoken ability and agility, plays that have remained popular and perpetually performed – even during the years of what everyone at the time, including Wilde, referred to as his "downfall" and disgrace (2004, p. 36).

His novel *The Picture of Dorian Gray* reveals an individual's complete submission to the passions of soul, which, however sweet, shackle the protagonist in nostalgia and phobia. Wilde's work, indeed, delineates his picture of life in an era when individuality has its own predetermined implications. A subjection to hedonism and Epicureanism leads Wilde's course in the novel so that he can weaken the pillars of conventions in the Victorian society. A pleasure-oriented life pictured at its loftiest measure is not among those accepted norms of the society. Consequently, Dorian Gray's life is led to irresolution and suspense at the end of the novel, as pleasure, even in its moral scope, is not accepted but with notoriety and ignominy.

The paper gives a short introduction on the novel, and then continues with studying Dorian Gray's unconventional attitudes which isolate him from society. The study comes to its concluding point by discussing the dubious identity an individual may arrive at as a consequence.

II. THE PICTURE OF DORIAN GRAY

The Picture of Dorian Gray seems to have stabilized the name of Oscar Wilde in the history of the Victorian Novel. Along with Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein*, Robert Louis Stevenson's *Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde*, and Bram Stoker's *Dracula*, *The Picture of Dorian Gray* is one of the prominent English Horror novels of the 19th century. Upon its appearance as the lead story in *Lippincott's Monthly Magazine* on the 20th of June 1890, it received mixed reviews of both acclaim and reproach. *Athenaeum* wrote:

So much may be said for *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, but no more, except, perhaps, that the author does not appear to be in earnest. For the rest, the book is unmanly, sickening, vicious (though not exactly what is called 'improper'), and tedious (qtd. in Beckson, 2005, p. 85).

However, one of Wilde's masters found an interesting exemplification of aesthetic philosophy in the book. Walter Pater asserted:

We need only emphasise, the skill, the real subtlety of art, the ease and fluidity withal of one telling a story by word of mouth, with which the consciousness of the supernatural is introduced into, and maintained amid, the elaborately conventional, sophisticated, disabused world Mr. Wilde depicts so cleverly, so mercilessly (Ibid., p. 89).

The latent truth regarding Wilde's novel was that his awareness of literary deficiencies of his day was well pictured in it. Wilde had become cognizant that it was no longer the time of Dickensian realism. And if something was to be achieved that would enhance the import of literature in its own right was a radical departure from the former conventions of writing fiction. Hence, it is not surprising to witness the turbulence the novel made when it was published. It truly bore Wilde's prophecy that it would arouse uproar and become his masterpiece. Mason avers:

Wilde was indeed a true prophet when he foretold that his story would create a sensation. Though it occupied but a hundred pages in a monthly periodical, it was reviewed as fully as any *chef d'oeuvre* of a leading novelist (2011, p. 5).

Whatever the opinion of his contemporaries, the work shows the brilliance of Wilde's mind; that is to mean, the novel subtly questions the norms and conventions of his society. His novel brings to picture the helpless submission of a young man to whatever is the imposition of the society. It actualizes the assumption that the seemingly different individuals are doomed to experience the strange look of the society, which brings nothing but suffering upon them.

Indeed, the 19th century's apprehension in searching for a device to certify the miseries of human beings unanimously culminated in fiction. From its earliest days, it had become conscious that it was meant to be the voice of the silenced folks, and the appearance of such titans like William Makepeace Thackeray and Charles Dickens proved it. It could be claimed that the main aim of the English fiction in this era was not the realization of artistic sublimity but to show the asperity of life as experienced by the multitude. Later on, with the rise of George Eliot, this notion even got stronger. However, the abrupt ascendancy of aestheticism changed the commonplace attitude. That is, there started to be a stress on the importance of art with its given web of complexities rather than on a devoted portrayal of life. Wilde as the champion of aestheticism advocated the idea more influentially than others. While considering *The Picture of Dorian Gray* as something away from the realistic traditions of the day, Killleen expounds:

The largely unexplained alteration in Dorian's portrait indicates that Wilde's novel is outside the Victorian realist tradition. Indeed, in his many book reviews, Wilde was not enthusiastic about realism as a mode of writing as it made too great a distinction between reality and fantasy. He was uneasy with the work of realists like George Eliot because he did not believe that their commitment of being true to material life was adequate (2005, p. 83).

This shows that Wilde's supreme ideal was not to be devoted to the factual life but mostly to the spaces of imagination. Wilde believed that the responsibility of a writer lied in creating a work of art mostly free from real life, since, as he believed, art was not a chronicle (as qtd. in Watkin). He asserted:

This is the supreme advantage that fiction holds over fact: it can make things artistically probable, and by force of mere style, compel us to believe. The ordinary novelists, by keeping close to the ordinary incidents of commonplace life, seem to me to abdicate half their power (qtd. in Killleen, p. 83).

Taking the Wildean notion into account, it is believed that *The Picture of Dorian Gray* is a perfect combination of fact and fiction, life and imagination, certainty and possibility. This only goes to reveal the point that, despite Wilde's unconventional ideas, he promotes a fascination with the diverse possibilities offered by both realism and aestheticism. To put it differently, he does not stop being a realist by remaining an aesthete. He revives the imaginative hunger of expectant readers for innovation by devising (or perfecting) a combination of both artistically and realistically visible.

An important facet of Wilde's novel is the significance of morality in human world. One could argue that Wilde had faith in morality (something which he has always been accused of not possessing); however, his very peculiar treatment of it necessitates a very peculiar reading of him as well in order to conceive his hidden morality. As it will be discussed later, *The Picture of Dorian Gray* possesses a unique approach to the weighty import of leading a moral life. Therefore, it seems that the reproach always pointed to Wilde's art is out of place. Gilbert Keith Chesterton contended: "He[Wilde] sometimes pretended that art was more important than morality, but that was mere play-acting. Morality or immorality was more important than art to him and everyone else" (Bloom, 2008, p. 57).

III. CAPTIVITY OR DELIVERANCE? A PREWRITTEN DESTINY

Living in a society the values and norms of which are inordinately dominant, the typical individual may not readily enough get socially integrated. An individual's mind is influenced by the orthodoxies of his society, for to the health of the person's mentality, these orthodoxies are either helpful prescriptions or fatal resolutions. In a desirable condition, the individual accepts such codes and adapts himself with them, as a result of which, he at least attains a peace of mind. However, when an individual comes to realize that the prevalent values do not suit his mode of thought, he strives to stand against them. This typical attitude is to make him radically different from other citizens who most likely yield to the social norms and values. In one sense or the other, what on the surface appears to be a right to private life for him might actually signify beneath the surface a sentence to exile. Therefore, this kind of conduct would not probably provide the opponent individual with satisfaction, and his life would be a battleground with him being fettered by undying misfortunes.

In *The Picture of Dorian Gray* we come across such a sense of non-belonging. Dorian Gray's unique appearance definitely distinguishes him from other individuals of his society. In this sense, he is already different from others. Moreover, he is naïve in an unusual way. Hence, his identity is easily shaped by someone who can use words more craftily than others. This someone is Lord Henry Wotton, who, as a master of language, molds Dorian's character the way he desires. His hedonistic ideals lull Dorian into believing that it is pleasure which matters most. Dorian in turn accepts Wotton's ideals, bases his character upon them, and incessantly faces the somber consequences of his resolution. Therefore, as it was mentioned earlier, belonging to the minority of one's community could occasion unpalatable aftermaths. For this reason, Wilde's reader can understand why Dorian's mania of pleasure only aggravates his situation, and why he is gradually pushed to almost total isolation. In this way, Dorian can be seen as the proper embodiment of an imprisoned soul. His peculiar qualities put him in the spotlight, and the society makes ruthless and relentless assessments as to him. Accordingly, his future is set by the monolithic forces of the society, while he is drowned into the devouring slough of narcissism. He is unduly self-involved and beyond reach; he pictures a world with him acting as the center of it. And if he feels menaced from the side of something, he cannot relieve himself of the thought of it by any means. We can observe this self-centered dimension of Dorian's faith via his reaction to the picture Basil Hallward has recently made of him:

"How sad it is!" murmured Dorian Gray with his eyes still fixed upon his own portrait. "How sad it is! I shall grow old, and horrible, and dreadful. But this picture will remain always young. It will never be older than this particular day of June. . . . If it were only the other way! If it were I who was to be always young, and the picture that was to grow old! For that—for that—I would give everything! Yes, there is nothing in the whole world I would not give! I would give my soul for that" (Wilde, pp. 27-28)!

Dorian's fear of the imminent future makes him forget his present state of beauty and youth only because the prevalent atmosphere of his society compels him to keep a blind eye to the blessings he presently has. Thus, he is led to pessimism, doubt, and disillusionment. Ahead of him, he only has two alternatives: either to submit to, or to resist the forces of bewilderment and despondency. As a member of a social minority, he copes with a continuous wave of preoccupations, and has difficulty to decide which move to take. If he decides to be a part of the majority, his mental restlessness might start to cease. But since he belongs to the minority who do not succumb to the exertions of the superior voices, he grants the much-asked-for privilege to the majority to encroach upon his mental security. Simon (2004) argues that, under undesirable circumstances, minorities may adopt themselves with majorities. However, in Wilde's novel we witness Dorian's resistance against the social ideals and standards. A manifestation of his social resistance is that he avoids yielding to unwanted beliefs, and by remaining pleasure-stricken, he invites others to his feast of trepidation and tribulation. In the following speech, if we listen to Dorian closely enough, we will realize how deep his discontent with Sybil's displeasing performance, which acts against his beautiful ideals, is:

"Yes," he cried, "you have killed my love. You used to stir my imagination. Now you don't even stir my curiosity. You simply produce no effect. I loved you because you were marvelous, because you had genius and intellect, because you realized the dreams of great poets and gave shape and substance to the shadows of art. You have thrown it all away. You are shallow and stupid. My God! how mad I was to love you! What a fool I have been! You are nothing to me now. I will never see you again. I will never think of you. I will never mention your name. You don't know what you were to me, once. Why, once . . . Oh, I can't bear to think of it! I wish I had never laid eyes upon you! You have spoiled the romance of my life. How little you can know of love, if you say it mars your art! Without your art, you are nothing. I would have made you famous, splendid, magnificent. The world would have worshipped you, and you would have borne my name. What are you now? A third-rate actress with a pretty face" (Wilde, p. 84).

Dorian's resolve is not of an ordinary kind. His attachment to earthly vanity brings to light his Faustian destiny. Like Faust, he yields to a pact with evil. To manage an ordinary lifestyle is not included among his alternatives, because he already has it in his mind that his similarities, if any, with other people are few. Thus, he resolves upon taking an unconventional path. But to pass that path, he is fully aware he has to make some sacrifices, the most important of which is his very self. From this time on, the bonds of morality are cut one by one, and he pursues his narcissistic ends without respite. His expectations lead him to such an excess that he is only obsessed to achieve the utmost degrees of pleasure. He turns out to be indifferent to others, and, as an instance, shatters the ideals of Sybil, ushering her to suicide. However, he does not continue remaining the same man. After a struggle with his conscience, he comes to appreciate that earthly pleasures are less than everything. Wilde himself opined on Dorian:

Dorian Gray has not got a cool, calculating, conscienceless character at all. On the contrary, he is extremely impulsive, absurdly romantic, and is haunted all through his life by an exaggerated sense of conscience which mars his pleasures for him and warns him that youth and enjoyment are not everything in the world. It is finally to get rid of the conscience that had dogged his steps from year to year that he destroys the picture; and thus in his attempt to kill conscience Dorian Gray kills himself (qtd. in Watkin, p. 123).

What one becomes is in close connection with what the society desires. The intermingling characteristic of human societies poses an obligation on the (re)actions of the individual. This notion seems to be applicable in all human relations. In the light of this notion, Dorian's mental disturbances are easily perceived. The immoderate attention and, at the same time, the unreasonable negligence of his society gradually oblige him to be excessively apathetic concerning the judgments made upon him. He is seen as a handsome and naïve guy, and everybody deems himself responsible for the formation of his character. Duplicious men enter the scene and teach him all the possible immoralities for his doom. Now, those who supposedly are vice reformers take a conscious step backward, and, after the imminent disaster, such people condemn him for his committed, yet unconscious, crimes. Therefore, even the dim possibility of breathing a new life into his self is ruled out, since one normally expects others to view him the way he views himself, and when they do not do so, he regards his life futile and unavailing. Such dichotomy obscures his reasoning power, and all the ensuing steps will be based on the impulses of the moment. Jenkins (2008) maintains:

Some distinction between the internal and the external is unavoidable. Not everything going on in our heads and hearts is obvious to others, nor is there always harmony between how we see ourselves and how others see us (or how we imagine they do) (p. 50).

Dorian is indeed a victim of the ferocious conventions of his society. Society, as the mother to all citizens, is expected to breed her children in the right ways. However, the ignorance of this mother puts an end to their motives of enlightenment and purity. Dorian Gray is one of the hapless victims of the ignorant mother. His beauty and exceptional character are naturally in need of a caring affection. And while his expectations are there, he also broods over other alternatives. He realizes that he can lead an indifferent life with the least care about the ethics of society. And when his expectations are not gratified by the society, his temptation is reinforced even more squarely. For, in his quest of finding his lost identity, he yearns to have self-esteem by the power of which he might be able to regain his status among others. Schwartz-Salant believes that a narcissist suffers from such symptoms as "anxiety, depression and paranoid tendencies," and adds, "but these are strictly secondary compared to the person's major complaint, which is a lack of identity and self-esteem" (1982, p. 9). To make everything worse, the presence of a strong agent of dubious morality in his life like Lord Henry Wotton paves an ugly path for him to suffer through. In this sense, *The Picture of Dorian Gray* is a bridge between imagination and reality. Mendelssohn (2007) explicates on the notion and discusses the influence of Lord Henry on the changes happening in the novel:

The Picture of Dorian Gray offers a total connection between art and life, between what happens to the painting, and what happens to Dorian. These alterations are not brought about by the painter, but by the critic, Lord Henry, the greatest agent of change in the novel (p. 153).

He witnesses the beauty of Dorian and persuades him to think of nothing but pleasure. Dorian clings to this thought and becomes the perfect quintessence of an amoral man. This mental rejection forces him to suffer greatly under "the burden of his passions and his sins" (Wilde, p. 87), and what remains of him is a person who has reached the end of the line. His fine appearance among others does not conceal his self-hatred or his paranoiac mentality. He himself may essay to appear what he is not by pretending an artificial self; yet, at the end of the day he is found out. While declaring that narcissists unreasonably depend on others for maintaining their self-esteem, Rhodewalt and Morf (2005) extrapolate, "narcissistic adults possess the appearance of a grandiose self-concept and invulnerability on the outside but harbor feelings of emptiness and isolation on the inside" (p. 129). To ground our knowledge upon the way Dorian's character develops in the course of the novel, we could safely claim that his destiny is determined both by himself and, more importantly, by forces other than himself. Enmeshed in the heartbreaking drama, he seeks to define his hollow identity in relation to the outside world, which does not supply him with what he lacks. Thus, his destiny, dark as it is, does not offer a light to him, and, regardless of the sacrifices he readily makes to retrieve his innocence, he simply cannot change it the way he means it. In this light, the possibility of deliverance from his melancholy is not there, inciting him to submit to the fetters that are to hinder his effective movement

IV. REJOICING AT DESPONDENCY

The outcome of Dorian's tragic life is nothing more than suffering. He comes to know that pleasure is both the basis and the reason of life. He is conscious that such a life is not as ideal as he assumes, but he goes through different stages of it to pass his malignant life. It is true that an individual may feel remorse over a sin, but he also may realize that there is not enough motive in life to remove that sin from it. Dorian Gray reaches a point in life where he only meets frustration and capriciousness. After Sybil's death, he starts to feel like a nihilist, and his nihilism assures him a kind of temporary pleasure which is to sooth his melancholy. Instead, however, it factually brings him only a perennial poignancy. Alan Carr sates that, "sadness commonly follows loss of valued objects, events, personal characteristics and skills or relationships" (2001, p. 78). Moreover, a feeling of sadness can often originate from a committed crime, as it is indicated by Dorian's pathological delicacy. The commencement of this crime determines an ill-fated ending, and it livens up his expectations only to show him the way to his doom. Indeed, such a life brings Dorian Gray closer to more sins, and deteriorates the situations which might have normally caused a call of one's conscience. Dorian's murder of Basil Hallward is a haunting memory that chases him wherever he is. Although he attempts to console himself by creating a delusional world for himself, he comes to appreciate that there is no desirable reality. What adds to the bitterness of his insufferable life is the inaccessibility to sympathy from the people around him:

"You are infamous, absolutely infamous!" he muttered.

"Hush, Alan. You have saved my life," said Dorian.

"Your life? Good heavens! What a life that is! You have gone from corruption to corruption, and now you have culminated in crime. In doing what I am going to do— what you force me to do— it is not of your life that I am thinking."

"Ah, Alan," murmured Dorian with a sigh, "I wish you had a thousandth part of the pity for me that I have for you." He turned away as he spoke and stood looking out at the garden (Wilde, p. 162).

The words and reactions of Allan Campbell, whose close friendship with Dorian later ends in bitterness, alongside the unconcern of other characters to the latter's particular situation drive him into a limbo of identity and existence. Consequently, Dorian ends up in the state of belonging to the world of non-belonging, and he realizes that the cold attention of the society is only a torturing experience which will ultimately decimate his existence.

It is then based on evidence to conclude that the suffocating and miasmatic atmosphere prevalent in the society compels people to hold dear their illusion of beauty. Under the burden of the most horrible realities, people's belief in morality and ethics is loosened or shattered, and then it is not the judgment of the society but a certain way of deliverance that matters. Living in such a situation, one futilely wishes to seek identity and tranquility in the outside world, because very quickly he gets sick and tired of his own inner strength. Kernberg (2004) puts the same idea in other words: "Self-esteem, or self regard, usually fluctuates according to whether one's relationships with others are gratifying or frustrating and according to one's evaluation of the distance between one's goals or aspirations and one's achievements" (p. 46). Dorian Gray's patience and fortitude allow him to be as strong as he can in the face of the problems of life. Yet, when his forbearance is exhausted, his reaction is not necessarily calmness and equanimity. In such a disturbance, he even frees himself from the constraints of the society to achieve the lost sense of beauty and optimism. Though, as it was discussed earlier, the reaction of the society to such a behavior is banishing the individual to the darkest pits of misery and solitariness.

In the ego process, the ego real sets the standards of proper behavior and adjustment to reality and regulates emotion. The ego ideal imparts meaning on existence and provides ideals. It consists of a collection of ideal self-representations that comprise a meaning system that, one way or the other, imposes value on the existence of self. Naturally, when the individual fails to adjust to the establishments of the ego real, he will inevitably fail to cling to the ideas as defined by the ego ideal. The morality the ego ideal prescribes struggles at this stage to penetrate into the decisions the individual makes and bases his conduct upon. The ego ideal, in this sense, seeks to establish a bridge between self and others. "The ego ideal", according to Westen (2003), "consists of values which posit an ideal relation or reconciliation of the desires of self and others" (p. 105). However, in case the ego ideal does not achieve a breakthrough, the person loses his sense of distinction and steps on the long path of self-involvement. That is to say, his impression of unwished-for realities such as a lack of care, a feeling of being outcast, and a feeling of being good-for-nothing usher him to conceive his life as a dead-end. In such circumstances, he seems to feel constrained only to adore oneself boundlessly so as to lighten the burden of non-belonging. Such a choice apparently makes life reasonable and encourages him to hope for a better future. However, the danger of a helplessly hopeless self-commendation like this is that it makes one susceptible to all kinds of change. One, for instance, may react to the negative changes of his body, may become too paranoid, too pessimistic, too guilt-stricken, the danger of which is, in turn, a possible suicide. Such is the curious case of Dorian Gray. He evolves into an uncommonly delicate man. The danger of such narcissism is that it reduces him not only in the eyes of the world but even in his own. Westen argues: "The central psychological conflicts confronting the individual . . . involve the tension between (the needs and the definition of) self and others (Ibid)." He observes his guilt-stricken soul, and vainly attempts to make up for his sinful past. After his disappointment, he even becomes more amoral than before. He challenges the norms and conventions of his society through his helpless notion of self-adoration, and what ultimately remains of him is only a dead body.

Dorian Gray's predicament stresses the gravity of his psychological disturbances. A mentally healthy individual follows the line of his reason. He does not show vehement reaction to the happenings around him. Rather, he stays calm

and does whatever he can do to put everything in the right order. Instead, by his disruptive behavior, a mentally-plagued individual only aggravates the situation for himself. Although his motive may be in setting things right, his action actually sets everything wrong. Carr (2004) postulates that, “motives to pursue particular sets of goals may be viewed as personal strengths if these motives lead to positive outcomes” (p. 191). However, in the study of Dorian's revelation we come across the downfall of a vanquished soul. Carr's claim proves that Dorian has not been successful in his quest for happiness, for he achieves nothing out of his crimes. A rumination over his own double-sided identity exposes to him the intensity of his setback for embracing his true self. If Wilde presents him as a Narcissus-like hero, it is not because he has something fascinating about him to gaze at, but because he is obliged to come up face to face with his true nature so as to observe his monstrous soul in the painting. Dorian's observation sometimes takes the form of fascination and on other occasions sheer repugnance. This duality boils down to the notion that, according to Riquelme (2011), “Dorian oscillates in a darkly narcissistic way between looking at the portrait with “loathing” and gazing “with secret pleasure, at the misshapen shadow that had to bear the burden that should have been his own” (p. 80). And after he realizes all his actions prove fruitless, he only lingers for his demise to show up at any time. The only thing that seems plausible to him is to cleave to the thought of his lost dreams to remain physically alive.

V. CONCLUSION

There is the peculiar representation of youth and beauty in *The Picture of Dorian Gray* which makes it mostly absorbing to the reader. As the study strives to show, despite Wilde's self-declared objectivity in art, the novel discusses the social maladies capable of putting an end to the sanity of individuals, and can, consequently, be viewed as his avant-garde amalgamation of aestheticism and realism. Dorian Gray comes up against his diabolical soul in a picture while he is gravely negligent and turpitudinous. He leads a dubious life while he seeks pleasure as the main intent of (his) life. As a result, he ultimately encounters his heart-rending destination. To him, who is fully aware of his own eccentricity, society acts as a torturing device. It does not allow him to move on communicatively in order to express his inner conflicts and his manacled individuality. Therefore, this novel is the representation of a human society in which dissimilarities are atrociously trampled on. This is to mean that Dorian's disobedience from the standard practices of his whereabouts gives rise to an impediment in his way for achieving ordinary goals. With this notion taken into consideration, we may observe that the story does not end here; rather, it marks the beginning and/or the continuation of destructive dogmas in a contaminated society where the reasons and aims of existence are construed in a unique way. The present study intends to delineate the trauma Dorian Gray grapples with in the novel as a consequence of his rejecting the norms of the society. His maniac attitude forces him into a life of cynicism which brings about nothing but a defiant identity. Dorian's soul is shackled in a way that even his conscience cannot save him from the quagmire of annihilation. He is thereby in the spotlight for breaking the social conventions and standing against the consensus on the proper lifestyle.

Dorian also attempts to rejoice at his tragedy, though not successfully. When the matter of distinction paces on the scene, it frustrates his constructive deliverance. His need of sympathy from others as well as his guilt-stricken conscience impose an unexpected forlornness upon him which is not heeded by the bystanders, and he, therefore, becomes the cause of his own destruction. Hence, the paper attempts to throw light on the dismay Dorian is gotten into, and how he helplessly struggles in bringing down the authority of frustration and misgiving. To put it in a nutshell, the study pictures the ineluctable consequences Dorian or anybody else might arrive at by standing against the unwritten laws of the society. As the novel indicates, if the society ignores such individuals, they start to lead a precarious life and break the social norms. Under the burden of isolation, these people may feel irresistible alienation, and, as they search for identity, they may cross the boundaries of the socially good and turn into law violators. In this way, they get drowned in narcissism and the mania of a 'self'.

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An Analysis of the Disillusioned American Dream in Gish Jen's *Typical American*

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Abstract—Gish Jen described in her first novel *Typical American* how the first generation of Chinese intellectuals overcame difficulties to accept American culture and value, and became typical Americans at last. In a consumer society, their fate is not optimistic. In the process of realizing American dream and pursuing money to show their values, they fell into spiritual vacancy and became the victims of consumer society. From the perspective of consumer culture, this paper discusses their American dream and explores the roots of the disillusioned American dream. This paper reveals that the causes of the disillusioned American dream are the influence of materialism in consumer society as well as the conflicts of Chinese and American culture. People in a consumer society desperately pursue material wealth but ignore the spiritual world. In order to avoid disillusionment of American dream, Chinese Americans should realize the hypocrisy of American dream. Instead of following the flow, they should learn to integrate Chinese and American cultures and enrich their spiritual world.

Index Terms—*Typical American*, American dream, consumer culture, culture conflict, disillusionment

I. INTRODUCTION

Multiculturalism creates a more favorable environment to some Chinese American writers, who have brought Chinese American literature into the mainstream writing of American literature. In the past few years, Chinese American literature has been more and more popular. The 1980s and 1990s witnessed the flourishing of Chinese American literature. Amy Tan, Gish Jen, Gus Lee, and David Wang Louie are called “The Gang of Four” in Chinese American Literature circle. Gish Jen (1955--) is undoubtedly one of the most well known ones.

Gish Jen is a contemporary American writer and a second generation Chinese American. She has written many famous works, which include four novels: *Typical American* (1991), *Mona in the Promised Land* (1996), *The Love Wife* (2004), and *World and Town*(2010). She has also written a collection of short fiction, *Who's Irish* (2000)? All of these books have received high praises in the U.S. *Typical American* is Gish Jen's first novel, which has received the National Book Critics Award. Although Gish was born in America, she portrays the cultural, social and monetary difficulty of the immigrants in *Typical American*. The plot is set around Chinese character, Ralph, and his transition from China to America. When he first arrives in America, he makes himself a list of promises. He will work hard to earn an engineering degree and intend to return to China after graduation. He will be nothing like the stereotypical American. But by the time his sister, Theresa, and Theresa's roommate, Helen (who later becomes Ralph's wife), save Ralph from his own carelessness, he has already sacrificed some of his own beliefs and dreams for American ones. Ralph learns American success through getting married, earning his doctorate in engineering, buying his first home, having two daughters, and receiving tenure with the university where he teaches. However, by this time, a millionaire conman has seduced him into the self-made man idea of the great American dream, which leads Ralph and Helen to open their own fried chicken restaurant, resulting in short-lived success and achievement that quite literally crumbles to financial ruin and family rivalry. By the end of the novel, the characters have sacrificed their Chinese morals to become the “typical Americans” they once mocked. And because of loss of trust between each other, the family's structure dissolves beyond all obvious repair. Ralph not only breaks his own promises but also nearly destroys his family in the process of material success, but at the end of the novel he realizes his faults and their family get together.

Since its publication, the theme, the disillusioned American dream presented in this novel has aroused the attention of many scholars. There are many studies about this topic. Pei Qiong and Hao Chengmiao have pointed out in their paper that the combination of highly material civilization with poorly spiritual civilization is the root of disillusioned American dream. (Pei & Hao, 2011, p.157-158) If there is no restriction of moral, American dream will be disillusioned. Hu Chunmei from Beijing Institute of Education has pointed out in her paper that the Chinese Confucianism and the American individualism lead to the disillusioned American dream. (Hu, 2011, P. 128-132) Though there are several researches about the disillusioned American dream in *Typical American*, they are not deep and systematic. This paper will explore the roots of disillusioned American dream from the perspective of consumer culture and cultural conflicts, and provide some suggestions for Chinese immigrants on how to live in America.

II. THE PURSUIT AND DISILLUSIONMENT OF AMERICAN DREAM

The term, American dream is heard by us frequently. As a national ethos of the United States, American dream runs

through American history and reflects Americans' traditional values and ethnic spirits. It is a set of ideals in which freedom, opportunity for prosperity and success, and an upward social mobility can be achieved through hard work. American dream is not only about democracy, freedom and equality, but also about the dream of success by struggle. American dream is originated from colonial period. In the beginning, it has religious meaning. "The original American dream is based on building a 'new paradise on earth', and some ideal world." (Hu, 2011, p.128) American dream developed fast in 19 century. Based on Benjamin Franklin's utilitarianism, American dream advocates man could succeed depending on his ability and diligence no matter what his birth, ethnic and religion are. "People believe in middle class's dream: only by working hard, can one get social status and a happy family". (Hu, 2011, p.128) However, American dream becomes a secular trend nowadays. In America, people think that everyone wants success, which means living better than before and being superior to others. In terms of this desire of success, people trust competence and pursue materialism. In order to succeed, people don't care about others. Thus American dream becomes a reflection of individualism. Chinese Americans also wants success. In *Typical American*, the three main protagonists give up their traditional values to pursue individualism and are keen on material wealth to realize their American dream. However, we find in the novel their American dream does not bring them success and better life, but leads them into an embarrassed situation; they have to face disillusionment and frustration.

A. *The Pursuit and Disillusionment of Ralph's American Dream*

After the Sino-Japanese War, China was in a mess. Ralph's father sent him to America hoping Ralph to become successful there. Then Ralph was on the way to pursuing American dream. He set many goals, such as winning honor for his family, building his morals, acquiring the doctor degree but not becoming a typical American. He followed the rules and did everything with great care. But in this new world, he met with many difficulties. He wanted to get help from his professor about his continuous study for getting the doctor degree but was refused. Then Ralph forgot to renew his visa, the only valid proof of his identity. Ralph became a person without legal identity. In order to escape the search of the immigrant office, he began his frequent moving journey. It was really a hard time for him. But when he was driven into a corner, he met with his sister Theresa. He stayed in America with the help of Theresa and Helen. Theresa was a matchmaker in Ralph and Helen's marriage. Later, Ralph got the doctor degree. Through efforts, Ralph became a tenured professor at University at last. They moved out from an old house into a large and new house.

However, the joy of success satisfies Ralph for a while. After Ralph knew Grover, he realized that his success in study was inferior to Grover's fortune, which stimulated his affluent dream. Grover was an American-born Chinese. He was rich and wasted a lot. He was a typical upstart as well as a successful man that the American society flaunted. Grover's means of success was despicable. Tax evasion and swindle were his jugglery. Grover became Ralph's idol and controlled Ralph's mind. Then Ralph decided to give up his study and develop his future with Grover. Grover once owned a fried-chicken store which was in danger of collapsing, because the foundation of the store was rotted like wood. Grover sold it out but the new owner of the fried-chicken store found that and decided to charge Grover's fraud. In order to transfer the crisis, Ralph sold the store to Ralph without his knowledge. Ralph thus fell into Grover's trap. Grover's colorful description of Ralph's future motivated Ralph to work day and night. Ralph stayed with the cash machine to count money that he had owned. The sound of the cash machine even submerged the flirt of Grover and Helen.

While Ralph was content with his success of his fried-chicken store, the store collapsed. At last, Ralph had to close the fried-chicken store. When Ralph found it was Grover's fraud, he swore to kill Grover. But Ralph was timid and overcautious. He didn't kill Grover but was shamed by Grover because Grover told Ralph his dubious relationship with Helen. Ralph felt very angry and gave violence to Helen. After that, he drove on the way home but bumped against his sister Theresa. Theresa conked at hospital. Thus, the whole family is broken. Until the affluent dream disillusions, Ralph realizes that he is not himself he imagined. He has become a typical American he criticized in the past. America is not America he imagined.

Ralph pursues his degree dream, business dream and affluence dream. During the whole process of pursuing American dream, "Ralph embodies the traditional Chinese people who receive Chinese traditional education but with no American education, which lead him to receive American culture single-faceted; for example, he accepts Grover's money worship from dirty means". (Zhu & Xie, 2009, p.41) With the adding influence of American culture, Ralph's faces culture shock. He seems to get a double identity, in fact, he loses his own culture identity. Thus, his American dream disillusions at last.

B. *The Pursuit and Disillusionment of Helen's American Dream*

Helen is a traditional Chinese woman, who is oppressed by her husband at home. Helen endures this, because a traditional Chinese woman is obedient and submitted to her husband. Helen follows Chinese tradition and provides great care to her husband, such as dinner, soup, tea and household duties, while Ralph still yells at Helen for her breath, silence, and whatever he isn't satisfied with. At last, Ralph even abuses his wife physically. Helen doesn't get love from her husband, that is to say, Ralph doesn't give mutual respect to his wife. This leads Helen to betray his husband and begin to accept Grover's love.

At first, Helen resisted American culture, but gradually she was conquered by American consumer culture. She liked American magazines, newspapers, radio and so on. She secretly read the magazines about ladies' clothing and hid the

magazines on the mat. She was eager to purchase a house in the suburbs with a big dining room for the family. After Ralph got the doctor degree, their living conditions became better. They bought a new car. Ralph brought their family to go for a drive in Connecticut. They saw luxury houses there. The tour brings many dreams to them. They also dreamed of having a beautiful house, especially Helen. “‘It’s so beautiful. It’s so beautiful’, she repeated”. (Jen, 1991, p.115) Every weekend, she had a house tour. Thus, Helen got familiar with different kinds of house fast. After Ralph became a lifetime professor, they moved onto a new house. When their business was prosperous, besides paying for the expense of store and new house, Helen also bought new furniture such as household appliances, gridiron, clothing, bridge table and so on. At Janis’s party, Grover was attracted by Helen. It was their first meet. Helen, a married woman, not only didn’t feel angry with Grover’s unbridled behavior, but also felt great honor. She thought she fell in love with Grover.

Grover’s love for Helen doesn’t last long, because Grover doesn’t really love her. Grover only wants to meet his own needs. He destroys Ralph and Helen’s business at last. Helen wants to pursue true love and better life like a typical American, but she doesn’t get rid of the traditional Chinese woman’s lower status, and doesn’t really know American culture, thus her failure is unavoidable.

C. *The Pursuit and Disillusionment of Theresa’s American Dream*

Theresa also didn’t agree with American culture at first. She followed traditional Chinese cultures, though she received western education since she was young. She helped her brother Ralph when he had difficulties and was a matchmaker in the marriage between Ralph and Helen. She contributed much to her family. She was more excellent than his brother in study and got a doctor degree in America smoothly. Yet, in a traditional Chinese family, people pay much attention to man’s success but not woman. Ralph also agreed with this point. So considering her brother’s feeling, Theresa always maintained her brother’s dignity. For example, in order to keep her brother’s dignity, she lied that her scholarship was canceled because her brother didn’t get the scholarship. When Ralph had difficulties in getting lifetime professor and paying for the rent fee but he was still blind confident, Theresa stopped Henry to criticize Ralph. She sacrificed her rest time to do part-time job undertaking fee of his brother. “Theresa maintained Ralph’s authority and dignity”.(Li, 2008,p.90) She never wanted to contradict her brother. She thought that man was the patriarch in a family. But her brother never cared about her feelings. In order to help her brother, she received Henry’s love, but Theresa’s affair with Henry was immoral, because Henry had his own family. Paper couldn’t wrap fire, and everyone knew at last. Other Chinese Americans mocked her, even her brother did so. At last, she was run over by Ralph’s car and fell into coma. As the critics remarks, “Theresa only dealt with the economic problem for Chang’s family, but the identity of Chang’s family still had problems”. (Yan, 2012, p.68)

III. THE CAUSES OF THE DISILLUSIONED AMERICAN DREAM

The author of this paper thinks one cause of disillusioned American dream is the influence of consumer culture, and the conflicts between Chinese tradition and American culture are the other factor contributing to the disillusionment of American dream. In spite of the great freedom in America, Chinese Americans still have some limitations, which are their original cultures. The conflicts will influence the success of pursuing American dream. In fact, the two sides are ambivalent and difficult to achieve at the same time.

A. *The Influence of Consumer Culture on Chinese American*

A “consumer culture” is one whose economy is defined by the buying and spending of consumer. Consumer culture is close to capitalism and materialism because it is driven by money. When the Industrial Revolution made mass consumption possible, consumerism was an effective political option to sustain a healthy, balanced economy. In a consumer society, people are surrounded by materialism. Materialism is a philosophy that puts the importance of physical objects before spiritual ones. After the World War, America became rich and went into the fast developing period. The prosperity of economy and the improvement of living conditions pushed America to go into a consumer society. The United States is the most obvious example of a consumer culture. The negative aspect of consumer culture is that it is shallow and drives people not just to meet their needs but to acquire status symbols, expensive things to demonstrate the owner’s ability. Instead of fulfilling spiritual or aesthetic desires, a consumer culture pursues external riches. In a consumer society, people pursue money and material. They think money is everything. They realize their value by their fortunes. However, the crazy pursuit leads to the vacancy of people’s soul.

United States is such a consumer society full of substance, where people pursue material comforts. We see all the Chinese immigrants in *Typical American* willingly or unwillingly accept the values of consumer society while pursuing their American dream. When arriving in America, Ralph resisted the temptations of the material world, “learning with walking and eating”. (Jen, 1991, p.8) He prepared to return home to serve the country and honor his parents after graduation. After the liberation of Chinese Mainland in 1949, due to the domestic political situation, Ralph as the son of KMT government official was forced to remain in the United States and agree with the values of the consumer society for a living. At first he “refused to join the U.S. citizenship”. (Jen, 1991, p.23) Later, he had to move again and again to avoid being searched due to visa problem. Because of economic problem, he could only go to the grocery store or thrift store shopping. The lamp he bought was broken. Later, “his problems go worse” (Jen, 1991, p.14) and “more and more serious”. (Jen,1991,p.14) He had no choice but to work in Chinese restaurant and slaughter animals in the basement. His

survival was a problem, let alone his dream of a doctorate. The mockery of consumer society made him miserable. When his last hope of continuing to complete the doctoral degree was rejected, his world fell apart. He had nothing. So he slept, overate day and night, and even wanted to take his own life.

It's just the suffering in the United States that made Ralph have a strong desire to change the situation. He and Grover Ding who was the representative of consumer society hit it off. Grover's fortune history was a get-rich-quick secret that Ralph sought after. Grover worked as a painter, drove the taxi, washed dishes in a restaurant, and sung in karaoke. He collected certain savings to invest mines, real estate, clothing, food, toys and other industries, and then his business became bigger. "Everything would happen, this is the United States". (Jen, 1991, p.42) Self-made millionaire Grover was a hero in Ralph's heart without doubt. Since then, Ralph started to pursue fortune through Grover's guidelines. He bought a chicken restaurant from Grover, quit coveted tenured professorship and decided to run a business.

Theresa is very tradition in her inner heart, but after many years in the United States, she gradually agreed with the values of the consumer society. When educating children, Ralph told them that the most important thing in the United States was "money". "In this country if you have money, you can do everything you want, if you don't have any money, you can do nothing, you are just Chinaman! "It's that simple." (Jen, 1991, p.199) Theresa was very angry that Ralph instilled worship of money on his two nieces. Although she did not agree with what his brother did, she still kept silent. Because this is reality, "She has seen the poor how to be treated in the hospital, they just wait to die." (Jen, 1991, p.200) After people got rich, they wanted to buy cars and houses, because in consumer society, "car is a symbol of status and identity. In addition, car is also a symbol of efficiency, speed, pleasure and stimulus". (Wang, 2001, p.216) House is the material form of home. It is not only "a place for shelter", but also "a sign or a symbol of people's social status, identity, character and style". (Wang, 2011, p.213-214) To live on in a consumer society, Theresa had to adjust herself. She bought red high heels to meet Grover, because she saw other girls in America also wearing like that. Her high heels don't match with her high figure and her clothes, but in order to live she has to wear high heels though she doesn't want to wear. Theresa's affair with Henry is also influenced by consumer culture.

If we say that Ralph and Theresa were forced to accept the consumer culture, his wife Helen, friend Henry Zhao and Henry's wife Janice Zhao thought their ideals were what the Americans were pursuing. Their daily topic was about how to pursue the material wealth such as cars, houses, clothing, etc. Henry won a car in the church draw. Then he sold it and got a new one. He studied very hard to get a doctor's degree, tenured professorship and was promoted to the head of the unit with a car and a house. At first, Helen boycotted American culture, but she was gradually conquered by the American consumer culture. She began to like American magazine, newspapers and radio. She read American magazines about women's clothes on the sly and hid them under the mat. She was eager to buy a house in the suburbs with a large restaurant for the whole family. She and Janice regarded the ideals and standards of American women as a direction. The improvement of material conditions brought them a better chance of survival with Ralph getting the doctor degree. Ralph bought a car and drove the whole family to the beautiful Connecticut, which made them generate many new fantasies. "One day, they will live in such a house with a yard and a garage. The longing they say out is strengthened, especially Helen; she said over and over again". (Jen, 1991, p.135) They saw the houses every weekend and Helen was familiar with the style and structure of various houses quickly. When Ralph became the tenured professor, they finally bought a new house they desired and moved away from the crumbling rental housing. When their business was booming, Helen often bought much furniture such as household products, grills, velveteen skirt, bridge table, plastic package of food products and album. They were also ready to go to the Grand Canyon to play. They invited Grover for dinner again and again and Grover gave them some ideas while laughing and singing constantly. Grover became their fetish and the words of Grover guided their actions. Helen just worshiped Grover as her husband, because Grover was rich. When Helen knew Grover was a villain, she still missed Grover with his leer, wealth and elegancy. That is the magic of material.

B. *The Conflicts between Chinese Culture and American Culture*

Though the Chinese immigrants in *Typical American* accept consumer culture, it is not easy for them to integrate into American society, because Chinese tradition and value still have an influence on them. They are caught between two cultures. From Ralph, the culture conflicts can be seen easily. He is a potential American, but he is influenced by Chinese Confucianism. For example, when he got the doctor degree, he excitedly called his father and mother and even said to the principal that he wanted his parents were present. Chinese people are eager to succeed in study and bring glory to his family. Thus, the Chinese tradition still influences him. The contradiction of Chinese Confucianism and American individualism leads to the disillusionment of American dream. The Chinese Confucianism emphasizes responsibility and the spirit of group and society, while individualism attaches much importance to the personality, freedom, self-sufficiency and self-power. Ralph chooses to follow American individualism, he even sacrifices his wife, family and everything to open the fried-chicken store, but Chinese Confucianism emphasizes the value of considering others first. He loses traditional Chinese quality. He pursues his degree dream, business dream and affluence dream. During the whole process of pursuing American dream, "Ralph embodies the traditional Chinese people who received traditional Chinese education but with no American education, which led him to receive American culture single-faceted; for example, he accepted Grover's money worship from dirty means". (Zhu & Xie, 2009, p.41) With the adding influence of American culture, Ralph's faces culture shock. He seems to get a double identity, in fact, he loses his own culture identity. Thus, his American dream disillusions at last.

Helen is a traditional Chinese woman, following many Chinese traditions. She is a housewife in her family. She cooks for his family, does household duties, and takes care of them. She submits to her husband and never wants to resist her husband's rudeness to her. These are Chinese culture's characteristics. But in American society, she is gradually influenced by American culture. She is eager to escape from her husband's rule and follows what she wants. Hence, she accepts Grover's touch and love. She keeps the immoral affair with Grover. These show the conflicts of two cultures. The contradiction leads to the disillusioned American dream.

Culture conflict is also reflected in Theresa. During her internship in hospital, she was harassed by her patients. She had traditional Chinese morality, so she rejected the harassment. That is the reflection of Chinese culture. During her living in this modern society she gradually changed. One time, she accepted other doctors' leer and she also sent her leer to them. In this free society, she also wanted to escape the traditional rules and followed her heart to live, but Chinese traditions always urged her. Caught in the cultural conflicts, Theresa was confused and couldn't achieve a balance between two ideologies. And this is one of the reason for their disillusioned American dream.

IV. HOW TO SURVIVE OR SUCCEED IN AMERICAN?

In American society, Chinese Americans want to succeed there. During the process, they also need pay much attention to some important aspects. Only by doing so, could they succeed in America.

They need care about the integration of Chinese and American culture. If they just keep one culture, they can't live there as the protagonist. When Ralph arrived in America, he reminded himself of following the Chinese traditions but not becoming a typical America. Thus he underwent many difficulties. He gradually realized that he couldn't live there. Then he threw away Chinese traditions and followed America values. He failed at last. Thus the integration of Chinese and American culture is very important. They need have the sense of multiculturalism. They should remember their own cultural characteristics and follow them; meanwhile, they have to learn to absorb the virtues of western culture.

"Since World War II, Americans have fallen." (Jen, 1991. p.67) Grover is one of the victims of consumer society. The magic weapon that made him become wealthy was to defraud to make money unscrupulously without moral restraint. Chinese immigrants shouldn't follow the flow. Though in consumer society most people pursue material wealth, Chinese immigrants need to have their own thinking and suitable pursuit. Ralph wants to get a doctor degree at first. Through efforts, he achieves his goal and also becomes a lifetime professor. In fact, he achieves success and realizes his America dream at this point. Later, he follows the flow to get more money and gives up what he has earned to open the fried-chicken store. If he is content with what he owns and doesn't envy others fortune, he will not fail and lose everything at last. Thus, sometimes people need to walk their own way and shouldn't be blind to follow others.

In a consumer society, people are addicted to obtaining money. They do everything for money, and ignore their inner value. In a consumer society, if people are poor in spiritual world, they will do anything by any kind of means in order to succeed. At last, they will lose themselves and become money-oriented. However, a successful person is not measured by money, but by their spiritual world. A successful person is really the giant in their spiritual world. Thus, to succeed in a consumer society, people need to build their spiritual world and meet their spiritual desires. Anyone who ignores spiritual world will not get real success. And this is what Gish Jen wants to tell us in this novel.

V. CONCLUSION

"This is an American story," (Jen,1991,p.3) Gish Jen said at the beginning of *Typical American*. Because Jen thought the Chang' family had more characteristics than anyone. At the beginning, *Typical American* describes the difference between the Chang' family and other people who followed the different path. But they became the typical American at the end of the novel. They lost a lot, even the most valuable family due to blind worship and the pursuit for money and material wealth. Gish Jen hopes "Typical American is regarded as a story of all Americans, not just one immigrant story; she hopes it can help us recognize our story and reality." (Li, 2008, p.91)Gish Jen wants to explore deeper and broader theme to describe the misery not only about Chinese immigrants, but also the entire human society. She wants to reveal the effect that materialism brings to the human civilization. If we do not pay attention to our spiritual world, the future of human beings may have to face the desert of the spirit.

In this novel, Gish Jen is pinning her hopes on the part of the essence of traditional Chinese culture, and Theresa is her ideal representative. Gish Jen arranges Theresa to save Ralph, even all ethnic minorities. Theresa, a devoted family and independent woman with a decent job, not only retained the Chinese diligence, kindness and strong responsibility for family, but also absorbed the western exploration spirit. She was strong-willed, independent and had the courage to pursue. The eastern and western culture and values are mixed with each other in her body. At the end of the novel, Gish Jen makes Theresa awake and lets Ralph take heart, which not only lit new hope for the Chang family, but point the way to break through the constraint of consumer culture. From Theresa, we can see if Chinese want to survive in the United States, they should abandon the patriarchal ideas, absorb the essence of Chinese and Western culture and establish their cultural identity.

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Reflections on the Development of the College English Teachers in the Age of Curriculum Reform

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Abstract—Since 2002, the Ministry of Education has initiated the college English teaching reform in 180 universities and colleges and it has brought about a series of deep changes which have exerted a profound influence on the learning and teaching habits of the college English students and teachers and urged them to reflect on and pay a close attention to all the factors relevant with the college English teaching. The increasingly developed intelligence of the information technology makes it possible for the technological teaching methods to be widely used in the knowledge-intensive teaching academy. There are many new characteristics of the college English teaching in the information age, such as informationization, individuation and the students' subject status. College English teachers are faced with both challenges and opportunities. The development of the college English teachers should be promoted from the following aspects: reevaluate the activities of college English teaching, to be compound teachers of ESP and EAP through cooperative teaching and school-based training, regard teaching and researching cooperation teams as a creative way to explore college English teaching.

Index Terms—reflections, development, college English teachers, curriculum reform

I. CHARACTERISTICS OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING IN THE NEW ERA

Yu Mingli. (2005) put forward the concept that the competition among enterprises within the world is ultimately the competition of human resource. Therefore, the training of the talents is of great significance for the whole nation. Nevertheless, the college students who are mainly “after nineties” show quite a lot and great differences from the college students before. These differences are affected by their growing environment and cultivation mode. Therefore, the comprehensive and accurate study of the college students is essential to carry out the college English teaching successfully. Generally speaking, the after-nineties college students show the following characteristics:

A. Informationization

With the increasingly developed intelligence of the information technology, technological teaching methods have been widely used in the knowledge-intensive teaching academy. The rapid development of technology makes it possible for the replacement of the work by the computers in most areas. On the other hand, the overruns of the university resources drained the potential of universities. Teachers in colleges and universities are busy with teaching activities and scientific research. Meanwhile, they have to conduct intellectual charging and struggle hard under the pressure of work, living and social competition etc. As a result, all of these mentioned above exhausted the physical and mental potential of college teachers and therefore have planted hidden danger for the loss of talent.

Supposed teaching can be developed with the help of the modern information technology and network, it's vital for the improvement of the teaching activities of teachers and learning conditions of the students. The learning modalities of the students can be rich and varied since they have more choices for the time and place of the English study. The learning interest can be greatly aroused and learning result can be extremely enhanced because the monotonous black-board writing has been replaced by vivid three-dimensional knowledge with sound, music, video and pictures which is more attractive. In a word, the use of technological teaching methods is imperative under such a circumstance.

B. Individuation

The main body of the college students nowadays are “after nineties” who are the focus of the society. They have distinctive characteristics. On one hand, they are confident and independent. On the other hand, they are sensitive and reliable to some extent. Individualization development of college students is the education mode which high education academy has always attached great importance to. Individualization development has a positive and profound influence on enhancing the college teaching quality and constructing reasonable and effective high education system.

Modern teaching always puts greater emphasis on the collectivized teaching since it was born. Excessive collectivized teaching has limited the development of the individuation. Nowadays, with the development of the modern information technology and social economic status, people have increasingly more chances to reflect on the individuation education and the use of modern information technology with high intelligence makes it possible to

realize the dream. The students can acquire knowledge with the help of the technological tools independently. Meanwhile, the students can adopt suitable time and place and even learning style which are favorable to them. The learning interest and awareness can be aroused and motivated to the maximum. To meet the demands of individualization development, educational philosophy of student-oriented must be adhered to and carried out.

C. *Students' Subject Status*

Universities and colleges are the places where the students are expected to be cultivated as excellent talents. Most of the students are about 20 years old and are full of energy. On the whole, the college students are of higher quality and bear the responsibilities for the family and the society. Accordingly, the society has placed high expectations on the college students. College students nowadays have an easy access to the internet which enables them to have a quick understanding of what happened worldwide. They accept the western ideas and concepts more easily and have a stronger awareness of their subject status.

Cai Jigang (2007) stated that the adoption of new teaching modes has changed the traditional teaching method which the teachers play a dominative role and the students are passive in the class. The students are given more encouragement and opportunities to take an active part in the teaching activities during the class time. Students are the core of the class and their subject status has excessively increased their learning initiative.

II. NECESSITIES AND SIGNIFICANCES OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHERS' DEVELOPMENT

A. *Necessities of College English Teachers' Development*

Rui Yanping (2011) stated that the quality of teachers is the critical factor to enhance the quality of teaching and the improve the college English curriculum reform. It cannot be denied that the students' achievements of English learning depend largely on the comprehensible language input and guidance the English teachers can provide in the classroom. Therefore, how the teachers teach and what contents they deliver to the students have a significant influence on the students' learning. Closely related to it is the overall quality an English teacher has, since a teacher is the single most powerful change agent in raising students' achievements. According to Villegas-Reimers (2003), it is teacher professional development that is one of the key elements in educational reform in the world today. Also, the education and professional development of teachers is regarded as the keystone to educational improvement. As can be seen from the above ideas, to what extent the college English can achieve success depends largely on the professional development of the teachers.

B. *Significances of College English Teachers' Development*

Nowadays, the college English teaching lays great emphasis on the practicability which emphasizes that the contents and teaching activities should be real and practical. Besides, the college English teaching pay special attention to the characteristics of times. An increasing number of universities and colleges set up courses such as language skills, language cultures and language applications. The teachers are encouraged to use advanced technologies to provide the students with abundant learning resources and favorable learning environment through teaching based on web-enhanced language learning. Also, many new concepts and things spring up everyday and the knowledge and information are updating anytime. Therefore, it is high time the teachers and students studied hard to keep up with the flow of the ever-changing society and perfect themselves.

It is worth reflecting on the teachers' development when reviewing the history of college English teaching. The biggest barrier to the college English teachers' development is the update of their concepts and professional development. In recent years, a lot of statements are put forward in both the domestic and foreign college English teaching field. Such statements are as the following: "expert teachers", "reflective teachers", "scholar teachers" etc. and these kinds of statements imply that there is a infinite room for the teachers to develop. The teacher possess not only basic knowledge and professional knowledge but also the capacity of teaching, educating and conducting researchs. But the reality is it difficult to achieve the aims mentioned above for the teachers who are burdened with heavy teaching tasks.

In the proceeding years, with the development of the college English teaching reform, it is urgent for the teachers to obtain training to help them be well developed professionally. But it is not realistic for the teachers to have a large scale professional training. The teachers are expected to devote to the research and development of courses. Self-reflection and self-development are the necessary ways for teachers to promote themselves in order to adapt to the quickly changing society.

III. OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES FACED BY THE COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHERS

A. *Opportunities Faced by the College English Teachers*

The reform of college English teaching has been conducted for many years and it is characterized by promoting the informatization of education. College English teaching is thirsty for a new teaching mode which is supported by the computer network technology. The improvement of teaching conditions, especially the increasingly all-pervading modern education technology has provided the material basis for the college English reform. The college English

teaching reform has seized the opportunities of the revolution of the information technology. A considerable number of publishing companies, such as Foreign Language Teaching and Researching Press, have developed teaching software with diverse functions and follow the rules of language learning. These kinds of teaching software can replace some repeating work of the teachers, such as listening, grammar and simultaneous imitation which need repeated drill.

The college English teaching reform also brings college English teachers opportunities to enhance their own abilities. With the advancement of reform, an increasing number of college English teachers have access to the different types of training concerning with college English reform. They learn and participate in many academic exchanges through various channels. They've also experienced changes in teaching practice of various aspects during the course of the implementation of the new teaching modes. The college English teachers reflect on the gains and losses of the teaching continuously and therefore improve their level of teaching and scientific research.

In recent years, the Foreign Language Teaching and Researching Press holds national English teaching and teacher development serial seminars every summer in Beijing or other cities which provides the college English teachers with a platform for pursuing their studies and enhancing their teaching and researching ability. The teachers are encouraged to take an full participation in all kinds of activities, to think actively and share their teaching experience. An open and interactive learning team is also expected to be created with the aim to improve the teachers' theoretical level and innovative capability.

B. Challenges Faced by the College English Teachers

Since 2002, the Ministry of Education has initiated the college English teaching reform in 180 universities and colleges and it has brought about a series of deep changes and these changes have exerted a profound influence on the learning and teaching habits of the college English students and teachers and urged them to reflect on and pay a close attention to all the factors relevant with the college English teaching.

The students nowadays are quite different from before. They were born in the 1990s and they grew up with the widely used computers and Internet. With computers linked to the internet, they have more access to the rich and timely information from the Internet. They have more distinctive personality and are not satisfied with the teachers' teaching item by item from the textbooks. To meet the demands of the students for the English learning, the teachers have to improve their own capacity.

TRADITIONAL TEACHING MODE VS AUTONOMOUS LEARNING MODE

	Traditional teaching mode	Autonomous learning mode
Teaching object	Teach the language knowledge	Cultivate integrated capacity of English learning
Teaching preparation	The teachers analyze the teaching material and draw up teaching plan	The teachers analyze teaching resources and the learners and make coursewares and online courses
Teaching contents	Teaching material	Teaching material, coursewares and onling courses
Teaching methods	The teachers dominate the class and the students receive the information passively	The learners are the core of the class and they attend the class activities actively
Teaching resources	Teaching materials and other printed materials	Printed materials, visual coursewares, mutil-media online courses and internet resources
Teaching environment	Classroom (blackboard, chalks and recorders)	Multi-media classroom, autonomous learning centre, internet and the second class
Teaching procedures	The same procedures	Specific procedures according to the different levels of the learners
Teaching evaluation	The teachers make evaluations on the learners (the scores of the tests, classroom performance, attendance rate)	The evaluation of the teachers, the self-evaluation of the learners, the evaluations among the learners, the evaluations of the learning process (written examination, oral examination, classroom performance and the records of the online learning)
The role of teachers	Hands-on providers of the knowledge	The guide, organizer and the managers of the class

From the chart above, what conclusion can be easily drawn is that the traditional teaching mode cannot suit the development of the society any more, autonomous learning mode should be adopted by the college English teacher. Weden, A. (1991) pointed out that the autonomy learning is the basic capacity for the human race to survive and develop.

Besides, the college English teachers have to bear multiple pressures such as the title of a technical post and the record of formal schooling. In the 1990, the universities in China expanded the enrollment of the students and they have a sharp increase of the need for the English teachers. In the initial stage of the expanded enrollment, English teachers are mainly undergraduates. The postgraduates became popular after 2000 and an increasing number of teachers work hard to achieve a Doctor's degree.

An increasing number of universities and colleges are implementing reforms of college English teaching. Some universities set up compulsory English courses related with the majors of their departments. The periods of college English teaching are correspondingly cut. Take Shan dong Jiao tong University as an example. It has set up courses

such as Automobile English, Mechanical English, Maritime English and so on. The periods of English course has been cut from the original 75 periods to 45 periods for each term. It is inevitable that a lot of English teachers will be at the risk of losing chances to teach. Accordingly, a large number of college English teacher are confronted with new challenges brought by the curriculum reform and they are forced to change their traditional concepts about college English teaching.

Meanwhile, under the current evaluation system of the nation, the promotion of the professional status of the college teachers depends mainly on the articles published and scientific research projects conducted. The chances of the promotion of the professional status would be slim if the number of the articles published and the scientific research projects conducted is enough or the level of them is low. On one hand, the college English teachers bear high pressures from the work. On the other hand, a majority of them have to complete heavy teaching tasks and the average periods a week are 12 to 16 which greatly shortened the time doing scientific research.

IV. WAYS TO IMPROVE THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHERS

In order to break through the dilemma mentioned above, the college English teachers should have a clear understanding of the current situation and their own conditions and therefore have a clear self-evaluation in order to improve their comprehensive and professional quality. Only in this way can the college English teachers promote their career with the professional sustainable development.

A. *Reevaluation of the Activities of College English Teaching*

Gohenn, D. A. (1998) pointed that second language teaching in recent years has moved away from the rust for the perfect teaching method, focusing instead on how successful teachers and learners actually achieve their goals. College English teaching is not as monotonous and dull as before. The teachers are no longer the echo of the text books. Teaching activities are filled with communication information technologies and the work of the teachers should be more creative. Teaching is a kind of complicated experience full of passion.

First of all, the college English teachers should have a thorough, comprehensive and brand-new understanding of the students who are the teaching objects. Students' personalities should be encouraged instead of being confined. The classroom of foreign language teaching is expected to be created as a place where language and ideas are exchanged vividly. Axelord, J. (1973) stated that the activities of both the teachers' teaching and the students' learning are a process filled with imagination and creation as well. Secondly, the college education shouldn't be confined to the pass of knowledge and the training of skills any longer. The teaching activity must be a comprehensive process which aims at cultivating students' sentiment, enriching their knowledge, building up their willpower and improving their behavior. Also, Brown, H. D.(2001) pointed out that teaching is guiding and facilitating learning, enabling the learner to learn, setting the conditions for learning. The teachers' understanding of how learner learns will determine the philosophy of education. Hall, J. K. (2005).stated that in the classrooms, teachers and students together create communities based on shared goals, shared resources and shared patterns and norms for participating as legitimate members of the communities. Therefore, the teachers should attach importance to the mutual communication with the students and develop a favorable interaction circulation mechanism of teaching and learning.

B. *To Be Compound Teachers of ESP and EAP through Cooperative Teaching and School-based Training*

In order to meet the demands of the society and current college English teaching, the teachers should develop themselves with the aim to become compound teachers of ESP (English for Special Purposes) and EAP (English for Academic Purposes). In order to meet the course requirements, the college English teachers should develop their application abilities such as to be able to read and discuss articles in the international meetings and professional communications, to be able to translate articles introducing cultures and local customs of China, to be able to translate the document literatures and newspapers with the help of dictionaries and so on.

It is advisable for the teachers to pursue their interdisciplinary studies who have the background of academic and professional learning experience or interest. The teachers can improve themselves with the help of the internal resources of their own universities through attending related classes or cooperative teaching. They can also obtain qualification of ESP teaching after passing the exams of the ESP courses. Also, the college English teachers should pay special attention to the updated trends of their academy and apply the vivid examples and cases to the teaching activities.

The interdisciplinary cooperation of the teachers who teach language and other professions is a preferable way to enhance the college English teachers' teaching ability and level. Teachers who teach language and other professions can learn from other's strong points and to make up their own deficiencies. The support of the university and college is necessary to make it true. For example, the universities and colleges can form effective training mechanism. The ESP teachers can construct and enrich their knowledge system and therefore expand and enhance their academic knowledge and teaching ability to complete transformation from single type to compound teachers.

C. *Teaching and Researching Cooperation Team Is a Creative Way to Explore College English Teaching*

The professional development of college English teachers is also the process of "team learning" under the "shared

vision". "Shared vision" refers to the common values and missions exist in teachers' minds. It is the kind of power which can inspire teachers to work together to complete a vision or goal. Only individual learning under "shared vision" can be viewed as team learning, which is characterized by collaborative peer learning. (Jia Aiwu, 2003)

Oxford, R. (1990) stated that the college English teachers should have a clear mind and understanding of their knowledge structure and the characteristics and advantages of their academy. They shouldn't work and teach as an individual as before any longer. Team cooperation is a new trend in the current college English teaching. The teachers are expected to be given opportunities to expand their knowledge and pursue their studies in the area of interdiscipline. Teaching and researching cooperation teams, such as the Britain and American cooperation team, commercial English cooperation team, Academic writing cooperation teams and so on, are encouraged to be set up. Each cooperation team is led by a associate professor or professor and conduct studies and researches in such aspects as the set of curriculum, the analysis of curriculum need etc.

In the process of the teaching practice, the college English study and research the academy characteristics in depth and the specific teaching ways and methods. The teachers are aiming at becoming professors in their specific area through looking for appropriate knowledge width and depth and forming their own hierarchy.

V. CONCLUSION

The college English teaching and researching reform has been undergoing for many years and is imperative under the current circumstances. The reform has brought both challenges and opportunities to the college English teachers. Confronted with the fast development of the institutions of the higher educations and adjustments adopted by the universities, the college English teachers are expected to adapt themselves to the new trends of teaching and researching through effective ways mentioned above.

First of all, the college English teachers should be fully aware that it is significant for them to make self-development professionally. Secondly, the schools should try their best to provide college English teachers abundant resources and favorable conditions to ensure the development of the teachers. To meet the demands of teachers' development, the school is supposed to hold academic activities as more as possible, providing a platform for mutual learning and communication among teacher. Besides, some kinds of incentives are necessary to support the development of the college English teachers. For example, it is advisable for the schools to provide the teachers with a certain amount of bonus and welfare fund, and with more opportunities to obtain training. Only by doing these can the college English teachers' potential be exploited to the largest extent and the teachers have a good good development and bright future.

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The Comparative Effect of Teaching Spelling through Mnemonics and Phonics on EFL Learners' Vocabulary Achievement and Retention

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Abstract—The purpose of present study was to examine the comparative effect of teaching spelling through mnemonics and phonics on EFL learners' vocabulary achievement and retention. Sixty female students of a junior high school were chosen among one hundred elementary students. To ensure the homogeneity of the students, a Key English Test was administered to all one hundred students, and a teacher-made vocabulary test was piloted with 30 students with similar characteristics to the target participants. The sixty students were divided randomly into two experimental groups, each group contains thirty students, the students in experimental group one were instructed mnemonics and the other experimental group were instructed phonics. Before treatment the teacher-made vocabulary test was administered as a pre - test and after the treatment post- test was run two times, first for vocabulary achievement, and after two weeks for retention. The design was quasi experimental. The results of the RM ANOVA indicated that there was no significant difference between the effect of phonics and mnemonics on EFL learners' vocabulary achievement, nor was there any significant difference between the effect of the two treatments on their vocabulary retention.

Index Terms—spelling, mnemonics, phonics, vocabulary achievement, vocabulary retention

I. INTRODUCTION

Many students struggle throughout their educational career with learning how to spell (McLaughlin, Weber, & Barretto, 2004; Nies & Belfiore, 2006; Templeton, 1986). When students learn to spell, they must learn to correctly encode a word into the written form. One of the reasons that spelling is difficult for students of English is that the correspondence between the sound of a word and the way it is spelt is not always obvious. Mnemonics and phonics are two techniques for teaching spelling.

Mnemonics are techniques or devices such as a rhyme or an image that serves to enhance the storage and the recall of information contained in memory (Solso, 1995, p. 257). Another technique for teaching spelling is phonics. It is the systematic teaching of the sounds conveyed by letters and groups of letters and includes teaching children to combine and blend these to read or write words (Bald, 2007, p. 1).

Vocabulary is an important element in language (Hoshino, 2010) and a necessary component for improving competency in all areas of communication (Godwin-Jones, 2010). Vocabulary knowledge plays a critical role in people's lives and future possibilities (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002). In fact, "it is clear that a large and rich vocabulary is the hallmark of an educated individual. A large vocabulary repertoire facilitates becoming an educated person to the extent that vocabulary is strongly related to reading comprehension in particular and school achievement in general" (Beck et al., p. 1).

Meanwhile Mohammed (2009, p. 16) defines vocabulary retention as "the ability to keep the acquired vocabulary and retrieve it after a period of time to use it in different language contexts".

A. Statement of the Problem

There is no doubt that vocabulary is central to language learning and of critical importance to language learners (Zimmerman, 1997).

Although phonics as one of the variables of the study does not cause fluency, it does contribute to fluency through its effect on vocabulary (Eldredge, 2005).

As a teacher the researcher has observed that the students in Iran have problems in learning and recalling the new words. For example, when they look up the meaning of a word in a dictionary, they do not pay attention to the parts of speech, word origins, and example sentences. Consequently, they cannot use those words appropriately and as the result

forget them easily. Moreover, they ignore the pronunciation of the new words they learn. So, they mispronounce the words; which in turn, obstructs the ability to remember the new words.

Consequently considering the students' need for vocabulary learning and their interest in adopting effective techniques for learning new words as well as the challenge they face in learning English spelling system, the purpose of the present study was to examine the comparative effect of teaching spelling through mnemonics and phonics on EFL learners' vocabulary achievement and retention.

B. Statement of the Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following questions:

Q₁. Is there any significant difference between the effect of teaching spelling through Mnemonics and Phonics on EFL learners' vocabulary achievement?

Q₂. Is there any significant difference between the effect of teaching spelling through Mnemonics and Phonics on EFL learners' vocabulary retention?

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Among phonics teaching methods, two major approaches to phonics instruction, synthetic and analytic, are widely discussed (Blevins, 1998; Dakin, 1999; Gunning, 1996).

A. Synthetic Phonics Approach

Synthetic phonics, also referred to as direct or explicit phonics, builds from part to whole (Dakin, 1999). This method follows a bottom-up model of learning to read (Blevins, 2006, p.111). Synthetic phonics is a way of teaching children to read. The word 'synthetic' reflects the practice of 'synthesizing' or blending together.

B. Analytic Phonics Approach

Analytic phonics is a form of phonics in which sounds are not taught in isolation and individual units as those in synthetic phonics, but are taught within the context of known and familiar words (Cunningham, 2000). So, it is also known as indirect or implicit phonics.

C. Mnemonics

According to Thompson (1987), [M]nemonics work by utilizing some well-known principles of psychology: a retrieval plan is developed during encoding, and mental imagery, both visual and verbal, is used. They help individuals learn faster and recall better because they aid the integration of new material into existing cognitive units and because they provide retrieval cues (p. 211).

D. Mnemonic Techniques

1. Peg Word Method

The peg word mnemonic technique consists of two steps. In the first step, the learner remembers the rhyming words for the number 1 to 10. In the second step, the learner visualizes the new word and the rhyming word and then associates these two things with other words with the related number (McCabe, 2010).

2. Loci Method

According to Nematy (2009), "to use this ancient technique, imagine a familiar location such as a room, then mentally place items to be remembered there, to recall take an imaginary walk along the landmarks in the room and retrieve the items in it" (p. 124). Bakken and Simpson (2011) also note that the loci method or mental walk can be performed through imaginations and pictures to organize and remember information.

3. The key word method

The keyword method is a mnemonic strategy for learning foreign-English pairs. This technique is conducted in such a manner that connects the foreign word to a keyword. The keyword is a concrete English word which has some similarity in sound to some part of the foreign word. Afterwards, the learner creates a memorable mental image of the keyword to the English equivalent (translation) to show their interactions (Crutcher, 1990). The keyword mnemonic strategy facilitates learning and remembering complex information. The keyword method uses the visualization of information to determine its meanings and suggests more than the ordinary information (Keskinkilic & Sunbul, 2011).

4. Acrostics

Acrostics support recall by creating an entire sentence with the first letter of each word to be remembered. For example, the names of the lines in the treble clef correspond to the first letter of each word in the sentence "Every good boy deserves fudge." Similarly, Mastropieri and Scruggs (1991) suggested the sentence "George's elderly old grandfather rode a pig home yesterday" to recall the spelling for the word "geography".

5. Acronyms

Based on Oxford (1990) using acronyms is a kind of placing new words into a context in order to remember them better. Placing new language information to concepts in memory by means of meaning visual imagery either in the mind or in an actual drawing is called using imagery.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

The participants of the study were sixty students with the age range of 13 to 14. They were female students of a public junior high school in Tehran that were chosen from a non-randomly selected sample of one hundred elementary students. In order to ensure the homogeneity of the students, a Key English Test (KET) was administered to all the one hundred students. Seventy students whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the sample mean were selected as the target participants for the study.

Then the 70 homogenized participants took the vocabulary test which consisted of the target vocabularies and 10 participants who knew even one of the vocabularies were omitted from the sample. The remaining 60 participants were divided randomly into two experimental groups, each group containing thirty students. In one group spelling was taught through mnemonic and in the other, it was taught through phonics.

The KET was piloted with 30 other elementary students who had almost the same characteristics of the target sample. The researcher used the results to conduct item analysis and measure reliability of the test which was later used for homogenizing the main participants of the study.

It is worth to mention that the vocabulary test was also piloted with 30 elementary students at another high school before the main phase of the study for the selection of the vocabularies suitable for the purpose of the study. A 60 multiple-choice vocabulary test, which was developed by the researcher, with a list of 100 vocabularies was given to 30 students who were at the same age and grade but were not the target participants nor the ones who took part in the pilot study of KET. In this pilot study the issues regarding the administration, time allocation, clarity of test rubric, appropriacy of the language of input, and other issues were also surveyed and necessary changes were made to the test.

B. *Procedure*

To conduct this research, initial KET was piloted with 30 elementary students who shared similar characteristics with the target participants. This was done in order to conduct item analysis and measure reliability of the test. As the result of the pilot study, malfunctioning items including three listening and seven reading and writing items were omitted. After piloting KET, the 60-item teacher-made vocabulary test with a list of 100 vocabularies was administered to the other pilot group to find out which vocabularies were known to the learners and thus omit them from the posttest and delayed posttest. Ten familiar vocabularies were discarded.

The treatment was carried out in 16 sessions, each lasting 30 to 45 minutes. Classes were held twice in a week. During these sessions 82 vocabularies were taught. Five vocabularies were taught in each session except for two sessions in which six vocabularies were taught. The researcher herself taught the two experimental groups. The groups had the same condition in terms of hours of instruction, number of vocabularies, and text book. The only difference was the teaching method. At the end of the treatment both groups took part in the vocabulary posttest. Note that the students were not told that they were supposed to take part in a subsequent test to measure their vocabulary retention. After two weeks, the participants of both groups took the same vocabulary test as the delayed posttest to demonstrate their vocabulary retention. In the following sections the particular treatment that was conducted in each group is explained.

C. *Mnemonics Group*

The researcher taught spelling through mnemonics to this group. In the mnemonics group, in each session the researcher taught five words through mnemonic techniques.

1. Listing the vocabularies on the board and explaining their meaning either through definition, examples, translation, or drawing using flashcards, different pictures, multimedia, etc.
2. Using key word as one kind of mnemonics:
3. Asking pupils to do the activities in the pupil's worksheets individually, in pairs or in groups.
4. Using acrostics as one kind of mnemonics.
5. Using acronyms as one kind of mnemonics.
6. Using rhyming and Catching phrases
7. The teacher showed pictures or different sentences till they recognized the meanings.
8. In addition the students practiced some other target words through peg word method.

D. *Phonics Group*

In the phonics group, just like the mnemonic group, in each session the researcher taught five words through Phonics. The teacher categorized the vocabularies into nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions. She taught the students the number of syllables each had. That is, she explained whether the words were monosyllabic, disyllabic, or tri-syllabic, etc.

To do so, the teacher needed to introduce some concepts such as 'syllable' and the fact that each syllable contains one vowel sound and one or more consonant sounds (giving examples such as: 'Begin' has two syllables, /be/ and /gin/); 'Vowel' and the fact that each vowel can make a long sound (its own name) or a short sound; 'Consonant'; 'Digraphs' (giving examples of consonant and vowel digraphs).

The researcher used two approaches. In synthetic phonics, she segmented the words and then blended them and in analytic phonics she drew their attention to the rhyme and the onset rather than the words in isolation.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the RM ANOVA indicated that there was no significant difference between the effect of phonics and mnemonics on EFL learners' vocabulary achievement, nor was there any significant difference between the effect of the two treatments on their vocabulary retention. The researcher was thus unable to reject the two null hypotheses of the study. However, both groups proved to have significant improvement from the posttest to the delayed posttest indicating that each group demonstrated retention which of course was not significantly different from the other group.

Since the vocabulary test was an achievement test and thus, a Criterion-Referenced Test (CRT), the reliability of the posttest and delayed posttest were computed based on CRT approaches which is called dependability of the test. Table 5 shows the dependability of the vocabulary posttest and delayed posttest of the Phonics and Mnemonic groups.

TABLE 4.1.
DEPENDABILITY OF THE POSTTEST AND DELAYED POSTTEST OF PHONICS AND MNEMONICS GROUP

	α Reliability	Z score	Kappa Coefficient	Agreement Coefficient
Mnemonic Posttest	.903	.29	.71	.86
Phonics Posttest	.914	.21	.71	.86
Mnemonic Delayed Posttest	.919	.14	.71	.86
Phonics Delayed Posttest	.920	-.01	.71	.86

TABLE 4.2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE POSTTEST OF THE PHONICS AND MNEMONICS GROUPS

	N	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness		
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio
Phonics Posttest	30	18.93	1.33	7.31	-.169	.427	-.395
Mnemonic Posttest	30	18.47	1.27	6.99	.181	.427	.423
Valid N (listwise)	60						

As demonstrated, the mean of the Phonics and Mnemonic group turned out to be 18.93 and 18.47 respectively. The descriptive statistics of the delayed posttest was also computed for the two groups, which is represented in Table 3.

TABLE 4.3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE DELAYED POSTTEST OF PHONICS AND MNEMONIC GROUP

	N	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness		
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio
Phonics Delayed Posttest	30	20.6	1.3	7.11	-.507	.427	-1.19
Mnemonic Delayed Posttest	30	19.50	1.33	7.27	.016	.427	.037
Valid N (listwise)	60						

Table 4.3 illustrates that the Phonics group obtained a higher mean (20.6) as compared to that of the Mnemonic group (19.5).

To verify the null hypothesis that stated *There is no significant difference between the effect of teaching spelling through Mnemonics and Phonics on EFL learners' vocabulary achievement*, and the one which stated *There is no significant difference between the effect of teaching spelling through Mnemonics and Phonics on EFL learners' vocabulary retention*, the researcher had to conduct a Repeated Measures ANOVA to compare the results of the posttest and the delayed posttest of the two groups.

Prior to this, the normality of the distribution of these scores within each group was checked.

TABLE 4.4
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES^A

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Posttest	.104	1	58	.748
Delayed Posttest	.156	1	58	.695

According to Table 4.4 the results of the Levene's test demonstrated that the assumption of equal variance was maintained for the posttest scores (F= .104, p= .748) as well as the delayed posttest scores (F= .156, p= .695). Therefore, running RM ANOVA was legitimized.

Results shows that no significant difference was found between the two groups (F= .195, df= 1,58, p= .661>.05, partial Eta Squared= .003). This indicates that a significant difference could be found neither between the posttest

results nor between the delayed posttest results of the Phonics and Mnemonics group. So, neither the first nor the second null hypothesis could be rejected.

This study examined the comparative effect of teaching spelling through phonics and mnemonics on EFL learners' vocabulary achievement and retention. The results of the RM ANOVA indicated that there was no significant difference between the effect of phonics and mnemonics on EFL learners' vocabulary achievement, nor was there any significant difference between the effect of the two treatments on their vocabulary retention. The researcher was thus unable to reject the two null hypotheses of the study. However, both groups proved to have significant improvement from the posttest to the delayed posttest indicating that each group demonstrated retention which of course was not significantly different from the other group.

There may be few justifications for the findings of this study. One is that although the researcher taught vocabulary through mnemonics and phonics, some of the participants in both groups learned to mix these methods with the previous methods they had been exposed to and which they had rotely learned resulting in a kind of intervening variable (previous methods) which may have camouflaged the effect of each method. The other reason may be the time limitation, meaning that over a longer span of time the students may overcome their involvement with the previously methods of practicing vocabulary and thus respond to the phonics and mnemonics methods differently.

The fact that in this study no significant difference was not found between mnemonics and phonics on vocabulary achievement and retention of the learners, might have been due to the difference between the features of the participants of the current study with those of the studies mentioned above. The participants of this study had prior familiarity with phonics through the spelling part of their exams in which they used to spell the words (segmented and blended them), but had no such acquaintance with mnemonics. This fact might have even influenced their motivation to effectively involve in the practice during the treatment.

V. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

In order to compare the effect of the two treatment, the results of the posttest and delayed posttest of the two groups were put to statistical analysis through Repeated Measures ANOVA. The results indicated equal variance for the posttest scores ($F = .104, p = .748$) as well as the delayed posttest scores ($F = .156, p = .695$). Therefore, running RM ANOVA was legitimized and the results of the covariances bore no significance ($M = 3.023, p = .406$).

In addition the within-subject factor was inserted for the RM ANOVA and the results showed that the effect of factor 1 was significant ($F = 6.461, p = .014 < .05$). This indicated that there was a significant difference between the posttest and the delayed posttest of each group. That is, each group had a better retention compared to their achievement which was of course not the focus of the study. The focus of the study was to compare the achievement and the retention of the two groups.

Moreover the interaction between factor 1 and Group turned out to be insignificant ($F = .353, p = .553 > .05$) and tests of between-subjects effects showed that no significant difference was found between the two groups ($F = .195, df = 1,58, p = .661 > .05, \text{partial Eta Squared} = .003$). This indicated that a significant difference could be found neither between the posttest results nor between the delayed posttest results of the Phonics and Mnemonics group. As the result, neither the first nor the second null hypothesis could be rejected.

In the feedback the students provided throughout the treatment, the students in the Phonics group stated that it was easy for them to learn phonics patterns and they would apply certain phonics rules to learn new words. On the other hand, some of the students in the mnemonic group asserted that they did not like to learn memory strategies and that they were used to memorizing and rote learning. Therefore, in the discussion section, the researcher argued that the familiarity of the participants with the phonics method through their exams might have caused the findings of this study to differ from other similar studies in the literature which had found better results with mnemonics. Therefore, it could be concluded that the familiarity of the participants in the context of this research with phonics method and their unfamiliarity with the mnemonics method might have influenced the findings of this study and consequently yielded no significant difference between the two treatments.

Other reasons were presented in the discussion section in the previous chapter for the difference between the finding of the current study and those in which mnemonics proved to be more effective than phonics; namely the possible role of the previous methods of instruction as intervening variable; the emphasis of phonics method on pronunciation and stress through onset and rhyme that according to the literature can contribute to retention and thus might have neutralized the difference between the two treatments; and finally failing to use one of the most effective techniques in the Mnemonic group, namely key word technique, for the abstract words. Therefore, it can be concluded that certain features of the context of the current research might have resulted in almost equal impact of the two methods of teaching spelling, phonics and mnemonics, on vocabulary achievement and retention of the learners.

Ultimately it can be asserted that despite the findings in the literature one comes to the realization that no single method can cover all aspects of vocabulary learning at the same time nor can it suit all learners with varying levels of achievement. Successful teaching depends on teacher's effort to flexibly apply the most effective approach to meet the students' needs, especially those underachieving ones. In this attempt, familiarity of the students with certain approaches and procedures along with their motivation and desire to welcome new approaches cannot be denied as influential factors.

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Schema Theory and the Teaching of College English News Listening

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Abstract—At present, English news broadcasts have become necessary in the teaching process of listening. English majors and non-English majors are all required to listen to English news broadcasts. English news broadcasts provide the listeners with a good chance to learn English. But it is a great difficulty not only for the students to learn but also for the teachers to teach. This thesis tries to explore effective methods to improve the students' ability for English news listening from the perspective of schema theory.

Index Terms—English news listening, schema theory, linguistic schema, content schema, formal schema

I. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. An Overview of the Schema Theory

The word schema comes from the Greek word "σχῆμα" (skhēma), which means shape, or more generally, plan. The plural is "σχῆματα" (skhēmata). In English, both schemas and schemata are used as plural forms. Kant further developed the notion. After that many other terms have been used, for example "frame," "scene," "scenario," "script" and even "model," "theory". The development of schema theory was made in several fields, such as linguistics, psychology, anthropology, and artificial intelligence. Schema theory is one of the theories that have been applied to explain the mental comprehensive process by cognitive psychologists. It was first proposed by psychologist Kant in 1781. He pointed out that meaning exists only when concept is related to personal known information. For example, he describes the "dog" schema a mental pattern which "can delineate the figure of a four-footed animal in a general manner, without limitation to any single determinate figure as experience, or any possible image that I can represent in concrete.". After that, American artificial intelligence expert Rumelhart (1980) took schema as "a structure in semantic memory that specifies the expected sequence of events". There are various kinds of schemata in man's mind, such as car schemata, teacher schemata, building schemata and so on. The main point of schema theory is that: One needs to connect new things with those known concept, background knowledge, or past experience to understand new things. Understanding and interpretation of new things depend on the existing schema in mind and the input information must match with existing schema.

As an important aspect of cognitive science, schema theory is about how knowledge is acquired, processed, and retrieved. Schema is the technical term. It is used by cognitive scientists to describe how people process, organize, and store information in their heads. Schemas, or schemata, are seen as cognitive constructs by which we organize information in our long-term memory (Widdowson, 1983). Schemata have been called "the building blocks of cognition" (Rumelhart, 1980) because they represent elaborate networks of information that people use to make sense of new stimuli, events, and situations. They "reflect the experiences, conceptual understanding, attitudes, values, skills, and strategies we bring to a text situation". Schema theory is based on the belief that "every act of comprehension involves one's knowledge of the world" (Anderson et al. 1977, cited in Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983, p.73). Smith, (1994, p. 8) states: Everything we know and believe is organized in a theory of what the world is like, a theory that is the basis of all our perceptions and understanding of the world, the root of all learning, the source of hopes and fears, motive and expectancies, reasoning and creativity. And this theory is all we have. If we make sense of the world at all, it is by interpreting our interactions with the world in the light of our theory. The theory is our shield against bewilderment."

Schema theory is very important for listening theory for several reasons. First, selection, interpretation, and retrieval of information are components of listening. When listeners are provided with a message, they are thought to engage in selective processes that permit them to attend to some parts of a message more than others. They then interpret the message subjectively and remember a stored or incomplete version. Schema theory provides one explanation for these effects. Second a database involving orally administered tasks already exists in schema theory research. Subjects in experiments have listened to messages and then have responded to them using both oral and written formats.

B. The Definition of News

What is news? It is necessary to answer this question first.

Professional news reporter is "precise and neutral", thus eliminates all subjectivity and constructs texts where "the only things on show are the raw facts". Carter and Nash (1990) said that, "After all, newspaper reports should ideally report the facts in as core a vocabulary as possible". Lu Dingyi states that news report is the report of facts that happened recently. It has the primary function of keeping people informed of the facts. These words clearly show that

the position of news report should be objective, factual and neutral. The English news broadcasts are rich in content and easy to get. Listening to English news report very often can not only improve the listeners' pronunciation, intonation, but also make them know about what have happened in the world recently, and broaden their horizon.

II. AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY ON ENGLISH NEWS LISTENING

A. Research Objective

We try to answer the following questions: 1) what are the problems students confront in the process of English news listening? 2) Do the three schemata have any effect on students' English news listening and how? 3) What are the problems teachers encounter in the teaching of English news listening?

B. Subjects

The subjects are 130 students at Taishan College who major in English. They were sophomores from three classes. And we also chose 3 teachers who have taught English news listening for several years to receive an interview.

C. Instruments

We carried out the questionnaire among the students and an interview with the teachers. The questionnaire is a closed one in Chinese. It consists of twenty multiple-choice questions. There are three categories for these questions. The first one is about the students' relevant concepts and evaluations. The second one is students' experience of English news listening. And the last one is to what degree students need the support of schema theory. There is only one choice for these questions. And there was no limit of time for them to answer these questions.

After 130 copies were collected, seven of them were found invalid. Then the data of 123 questionnaires were used and analyzed as samples for this study.

The interview was carried out among the three teachers. The interview also consists three parts: teachers' comments on students; common problems in English news listening; teachers' concepts on schema theory, their evaluations of the effects of three schemata; teachers' comments on their problems in the teaching of English news listening.

D. Results and Discussions of the Questionnaire and the Interview

From the answers of question No.1 and No. 2 we can know the current situation of students' listening comprehension and English news listening.

Q No.	Answer	A	B	C	D
1		12.0%	21.0%	25.0%	42.0%
2		---	---	22.1%	77.9%

When the students are asked to evaluate their own level of listening, 12% of them think they are excellent in listening. 21% of them think they are good and 25% OK and 42% bad. According to this result we can see that although they have practiced listening for one year, nearly half of them are not satisfied with their listening ability.

When they were asked to evaluate their ability on English news listening, the result is more dissatisfying. 77.9% of them choose badly. 22.1% of them choose OK and none of them choose excellent or good. From this result we can know how difficult the English news are for them and they showed the low confidence on English news listening.

Then how important do they think schema theory in English news listening is? Question NO.3, 4, 5 Can give us some clues on students' concept of schema theory.

Q No.	Answer	A	B	C
3		20.0%	70.0%	10.0%
4		70.0%	20.0%	10.0%
5		---	2.0%	98.0%

When they were asked if the listening including news listening should be taught, 70% of them think they want to be taught and guided by some theories, not merely to be mechanically drilled. But little of them know schema theory.

Question No. 6 to 18 are from the angles of language, content, and structure of English news listening which is in accordance with the three schemata of the schema theory. Question No 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 are from the angle of linguistic schema.

Q No.	Answer	A	B	C
6		82.1%	17.9%	---
7		59.0%	36.8%	3.2%
8		73%	27.0%	---
9		42.8%	40%	17.2%
10		31.0%	42.0%	27.0%

When the students were asked if they can follow the speed of English news, the majority of them can not keep up. It shows a big problem the students confront in English news listening. If the students can not keep up the speed, they can not understand the news. When asked if they could get used to different announcers' pronunciation and intonation. 59% chose the choice "no". As to the vocabulary, 73% of the students confronted many new words in English news listening. This is understandable, because news covers a wide range of topics. In the last chapter we have mentioned, it covers economy, military, politics, arts and so on. And many news words appeared continuously. So the vocabulary in English news is one of the students' obstacles to understand the news. So the students should enlarge their vocabulary especially grasp the Journalistic English.

As to the students' opinions towards the length of sentences in news, the students who think sentences are long are 42.8%, which are slightly more than the students who think sentences are short. Only 17.2% of them think the sentences are short. It seems the length of the sentences influence some students' comprehension. For some students it does not matter too much. It is the same with the grammar. Nearly one third of them think it is simple, which is in accordance with the character of English news that is simple in grammar.

In addition to linguistic schema, content schema is also very important in English news listening. It can not only provide the students background information but also help the students to predict and infer. Question No.11, 12, 13, 14, 15 are aimed to find out students performance on content schema.

Q No.	Answer	A	B	C
11		35.0%	70.0%	---
12		25.5%	74.5%	---
13		27.0%	40.0%	33%
14		24.0%	40%	36.0%
15		31.0%	69.0%	---

From the answer of question No.11 and No. 12, we can know that about two thirds of the students are not familiar with the topic, and don not know the background of the listening materials. It shows that the students paid no attention to the background knowledge of listening materials. Deficiency in background knowledge is one of the obstacles of English news listening.

From the answers of Question No. 13 and 14, we can conclude before listening that most students can use clues to predict often or occasionally, but when listening many of them can not readjust their prediction. This means during the process of listening, they are much more passive than before listening. The answer of the question No. 15 is more surprising. Nearly two thirds of the students said they had a vague idea on what they listened to.

Questions No 16, 17, 18 are about the formal schema of English news.

Q No.	Answer	A	B	C	D
16		16.0%	84.0%	---	---
17		20.0%	11.0%	32.0%	37.0%
18		14.0%	14.0%	7.0%	65.0%

From No 16, we can know that most students do not know the structure of news, and two thirds of them do not know the news lead, but fortunately more than half of them will pay attention to the news lead though some of them don't know what is news lead. Because most students do not know much about the English news, as is shown in question 16 and 17, when answering question 18, most students chose D. To sum up, that most students know little about the relative knowledge of news, which becomes the obstacle of English news listening. If they learn more about news, for example the structure, the news lead, they will improve their ability of English news listening.

The above data show the students' difficulties in English news listening. Though the students know little about schema theory, they actually need the help of schema theory to improve their listening ability, which is reflected from the answers of question 19 and 20.

Q No.	Answer	A	B	C	D
19		---	18.0%	82.0%	---
20		70.0%	23.0%	3.0%	4.0%

From No.19, only 17% of the students know some characteristics of language, content, and structure of English news listening. Most of them think the teaching of these characteristics of news will give them much help and they also show their desire to learn more about the news.

This questionnaire is a self-evaluation on the students' current situation of English news listening. From the answers of the questionnaire, we can conclude the students' problems in English news listening, which mainly fall into 3 kinds: linguistic knowledge, background knowledge and structural knowledge of news listening. The speed, the accent, vocabulary, sentence and grammar become the obstacles of the English news listening more or less. And they are also lack of background knowledge and at the same time they can not use the content schema to predict and make inference

effectively. What's more, they are also deficient in structural knowledge. All these become the obstacles of English news listening. So to improve their ability of English news listening, schema theory is very important and from themselves they also expect to apply schema theory to their news listening.

The questionnaire is a self-evaluation of the students' current situation of news listening. From it we know the problems the students confront in the English news listening with the eye of the students. In order to validate the results of the questionnaire with the eye of teachers, three teachers who have taught English news for several years participate in the interview. They were asked to answer 3 questions, which are open in Chinese.

When they are invited to list the students' problems in English news listening, they listed the following problems: when listening to English news, the students shows low confidence and nervousness; they know little about listening strategies; they can not remember what they listened to; when listening, they can not focus on what they are listening; they are lack of interest and so on.

For the second question, all the three teachers answered they have heard the schema theory, and know it more or less. But none of them have never applied the schema theory to English news listening. About the three schemata, all of them think linguistic schema is most helpful to improve the students listening ability. As to the content schemata and formal schemata, they think content schema is more helpful than formal schema.

When they were asked to list the problems they confront in the teaching of English news listening, they listed 2 major problems. One is the problem of time. They complained that there were only two periods of listening class in one week. On the one hand, they had to finish the textbook, on the other hand they had to save time for Band 4 and Band 8, and they are too task-overloaded. They seldom have time to apply some listening theories in class. Another major problem is the textbook. News is changing, so they need a textbook which is not too old for the news or too difficult for the students to listen to.

III. MAJOR FINDINGS

Through the above experimental study, we can find the problems the students confront in English news listening.

A. *Poor Linguistic Ability*

Deficiency in linguistic schema is the biggest obstacle for the students in English news listening.

1. **Poor Phonetic Knowledge**

A large number of students have a large vocabulary and are good in grammar. They can understand written articles well, but they even hardly understand the Special English. What's the reason? It is because that they haven't received enough sound training in the process of study. They can't distinguish basic phonetic knowledge (intonation, word stress, sentence stress, and the tone group) and the speech changes (loss of plosion, sound linking, strong and weak forms and assimilation). They are not accustomed with the standard speech, intonation, speed and the tone group, which are different from their own ways of reading. For example, in the following sentence "Many people mistakenly believe that old age is a time of increased illness and loneliness." In fact, people do not suddenly change." In the tape's reading "is" and "a" are sound linking. The pronunciation of "s" is a Weak Form. In "do not", it's hard to hear "do" clearly due to Weak Form. So it is impossible for them to know "do" and "is" clearly. If students have poor phonetic knowledge, they can't recognize every phonetic unit well and they had a false listening. Another example there is a sentence in a piece of news "there are still seven American hostages being held in Lebanon by different political groups." Many students mistook "several" for "seven" because "seven" was read too quickly and "n" was pronounced too weakly. In another sentence "Officials say it is an act of self-defense", as a result of sound linking students will hear "active" instead of "an act".

2. **Lacking a Large Vocabulary**

The vocabulary is a significant feature of English news. The news report covers many topics like culture, science, economy, politics, and military. It is necessary for the listeners to grasp a large vocabulary. According to VOA's Magazine-Voice, the vocabulary of Special English in common use is about 1500 words, and the vocabulary of Standard English is about 4,000 words

There are proper nouns about government office's name (the White House, No.10 Downing Street and Pentagon), country's name, the capitals (Afghanistan, Rome, Israel, Seoul.), people's name (George Walker Bush and Tony Blair). There are also many proper nouns and acronyms in the vocabulary of English news including religion, arms, media, organization (EEC, OPEC, WHO).

Besides, in order to make his article lively, the reporter always uses some new words or some reduced forms (space sickness, crib death, and beatnik).

However the students usually grasp many simple basic words, and most of them know less new words. So during the process of English news listening when the students encounter these unfamiliar words, their attention will be interrupted by those words and they can't be coherent. The vocabulary is a big obstacle for most students, so it is difficult for them to do the English news listening well.

B. *Deficient Schema and Background Information*

Content and form schema are very important for the students to improve the listening ability to English news.

1. Lacking Schema

Schema is a philosophical conception, which was raised by Konda. Pearson regarded schema as “the vision or the association in one’s mind which is produced when people listen to or read something.” Cook described schema as “the knowledge previously stored in one’s mind.” In the 20th century, with the generation and development of Modern Cognitive Philosophy, the concept of “schema” got fuller definition. Schema is the basic material of cognition and the necessary part of understanding all kinds of information. So the listener can receive and understand the information depending on the “schema”.

Usually the construction of schema which the students accumulate is about the material which is closely related to daily life. So when listening to English news, most of the students will become vacant because the listening materials of English news cover different topics of western society, like economy, politics, culture, military. Students lack the schema related to these materials so it is difficult for them to comprehend the English news. It is also a big obstacle for news listening comprehension.

2. Lacking Background Information

According to the interview, there are always two phenomena in English news teaching process. One is that the students often mistake the background information as the reality of the news when they are asked to tell the main idea of English news; the other is the students always feel confused when they are asked “why did this matter happen?”. It clearly shows that students don’t have enough background information of English news.

In the book *Writing Theory and Practice of News Broadcasting*: “the background information refers to the related facts of the explanations of the news.” From it we know the background information is not the reality of the news, it is to explain the news. If the listener doesn’t know the necessary background information, to English learners who’re not very familiar with the western society and culture, it is difficult for them to understand the listening materials. For example, there is a sentence “It provides 800 telephone service.” in a piece of news which introduced the telephone net of America. According to the literal meaning, people will think this sentence means “this net supply people 800 telephone services.” It is right in grammar. But in fact, it is completely wrong. The meaning of the sentence is “this net provides 800 telephone services for free.” Because in America, if people want to have a long distance call for free, they need to dial 800. If the students don’t know this background information, they will understand the news mistakenly.

Another example, in America, after the report of the pop of the White House, Treasury Secretary deals with the matter by himself. When listening to this, they will feel surprised if the listeners don’t know the background information that “American Treasury Secretary” is responsible for the president’s safety.

C. Psychological Obstacle

In the process of studying foreign language, if the students can’t create a linguistic atmosphere to practice it just like their mother tongue, and the chance of practicing foreign language is small, it is easy for them to feel anxious and fearful while they are listening.

Usually, the scared psychology widely consists in the process of student’s listening. Its main reflection is that the mind is much nervous and the attention is not focused on. While there is a test or a quiz, the students will become very nervous. If one feels nervous, the reason is that some students are eager to win, this kind of mind increases students’ pressure and makes them feel intense; or because of insufficient preparation, some students are afraid of being asked a question. These two situations result in vacancy of one’s mind, which influences the continuity and the accuracy of listening. If one doesn’t focus his attention on listening, maybe this is because he has listened to the material for a long time; or the listening material is too difficult, this will made students feel very tired.

All of these problems would have a bad effect on students’ normal studying and training; sometimes the problems will let the students have no confidence with them.

Although the study has some limitations, it gives some implications in the teaching learning in English news listening.

IV. THE IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ENGLISH NEWS LISTENING

A. Improving Student’s Linguistic Ability

Linguistic schema is the most important for English news listening. The built of linguistic schema is helpful for the students.

1. Knowing the Phonetic Difference and Overcoming the Phonetic Obstacle

If the students want to have a good understanding of the news, they need to practice English news listening more. But if students haven’t learnt some basic phonetic knowledge well, they will not do well in the listening. Students should pay much attention to phonetic differences, especially when listening to English news. If they don’t give enough attention to them, after a long time, they will form false pronunciation. That is the reason why they can easily understand a sentence, but while listening, they are not able to understand the same sentence.

In China, English education always follows the phonology of RP (Received Pronunciation) that is the British teaching system. BBC always uses this phonology of RP. There is also another kind of phonology of GA (General American), which is also known as Standard American English (SAE). The American radio broadcaster often uses GA. RP and GA are quite different from each other, for example:

	RP	GA
Fast	/fɑ:st/	/fæst/
Tomato	/tə ʔnɑ:təu/	/tə ʔneitəu/
Either	/ai ðə/	/iðə/

The teachers should teach the students some basic knowledge of phonetics such as stress, sound linking, and intonation. Another thing students need to remember is they should insist on practicing everyday in order to overcome the obstacle.

2. Memorizing the News Vocabulary

The news report is the newest message and its content covers all kinds of social affairs. The main characteristic of English news is its vocabulary. Most of its vocabulary is concerned with politics, economy, military, science, technology and nature.

If students want to understand English news well, they have to pay great attention to these news words and accumulate these words to enlarge their vocabulary. This can help students to listen to the news without the teacher's instruction. In addition, students ought to learn more the words such as main city's name, country's name, and famous people's name, and abbreviations of organizations.

For example proper nouns, some students don't want to memorize them because they don't think the proper nouns are English words. But in order to improve their listening, it is necessary for them to do so. If students are not familiar with these proper nouns which appear frequently in the news, it will be difficult for them to understand the English news. Here is a piece of news:

"Another American has been kidnapped in West Beirut. Fifty-three year old Frank Reed was abducted by four gun men this morning. Islamic Jihad claimed responsibility, accusing Reed of being a spy. The pro-Iranian group already holds at least three other Americans and three Frenchmen."

There are about forty or fifty words, including proper nouns like "Beirut, Islamic, Jihad, Iranian, American", and words such as "abduct, claim responsibility, accused of", are all words or phrases that are commonly used in English news. If students don't know these words, it will be difficult for them to understand the news.

B. Having Rich Background Information

The cultural tradition and customs are quite different in China, Great Britain and America. Chinese learners usually analyze and understand English sentences with "Chinese-style mind" because they are influenced deeply by their own countries' culture and their mother tongue. As a result of shortage of sensibility for the difference between Chinese culture and English culture, students can't understand the actual meaning and the real main purpose of the information.

If students don't know the background information of western world, such as the social customs, local conditions, thinking modes, social systems, and value ideas, there will be a big obstacle in the listening comprehension. So it is very helpful for students to know a great amount of background information, which is proved by the research of Chiang, Dunkel and Schmidt-Rinehart. Take the following sentence as an example: The congress which assembled Monday for its last session is full of what they call "Lame Ducks". In America, after the presidential election, the new president and officials feel very happy, but the former president and government officials all become disappointed. "Lame duck" refers to lame duck, which can't fly. If the listener doesn't know the allusion of "Lame Ducks", they would not understand the sentence well.

There is another example: *"The path to November is uphill all the way."* If students don't know what "November" refers to, it is impossible for them to understand the sentence. Here, "November" refers to "the presidential election to be held in November".

Background information has a close relation to English news listening so it is important for students to know more about western countries. There are many ways for students to accumulate background information, like reading Chinese, listening to radio programs (VOA and BBC) and English newspapers and magazines, and watching TV programs of CCTV-9.

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The Application of Schema Theory in Teaching College English Writing

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Abstract—Improving English writing ability is always a difficult task confronted by Chinese teachers and students. In this essay, the author presents the results of an empirical study, which verify the application of Schema Theory is effective in improving Chinese students' English writing competence.

Index Terms—Schema Theory, English writing, activate schemata

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing has always been viewed as a significant skill in studying English, since it involves a process of selecting, combining, and arranging individual words to develop ideas. Containing such a complex process, a qualified essay is an organic organization of words, form and content. Host of teachers have spent much time and energy in teaching English writing, while many none-English majors still fail to accomplish satisfying English compositions.

In China, improving students' writing ability is one of the most significant tasks for English teachers, who have done lots of research in this field. Currently, much research has been carried out to study second language writing. Wang Wenyu and Wang Lifei have conducted research on second language learning in 2004. In the past 10 years, the studies on second language mostly concentrate on the following fields: native thinking patterns and second language writing, native thinking patterns and their relationship with second language competence, language features of second language essays, the factors influencing second language competence, second language teaching, testing of second language writing. Wang Wenyu and Wang Lifei (2004) have pointed out that finding out a good way to teaching English writing is crucial. Yao Lan and Cheng Lini drew a similar conclusion on second language research in 2005. They claimed that the number of empirical studies based on qualitative and quantitative analysis had been rising, but empirical studies on college English writing is not sufficient. When it comes to the research on English writing teaching, much of it has been done on assessment of product approach and process approach, genre-based approach and task-based approach. Unfortunately, finding a satisfying teaching method for college English writing still cannot be achieved.

With the development of psycho-linguistics and artificial intelligence, schema theory has increasingly aroused interest of English teachers. A new field in English writing research thus appeared. Schema refers to a collection of knowledge related to a concept and it contains background knowledge of content, text structure and hierarchical organization of the text. During the writing process, students need to activate their previous schemata stored in their long-term memory and they also have to obtain new knowledge which helps them create good essays. Schemata supply the necessary knowledge of phrases, content and organization forms, which have much influence on writing planning, revising and editing process. Most of the teachers, however just study the relationship between the schema theory and writing, and at best they offer some suggestions about how to improve students' writing ability. As for some quantitative research, teachers just choose one or two classes as subjects in the traditional teaching environment.

With the revolution in communication technology, computers has become increasingly important in English teaching especially in teaching writing, because its open-ended environments supply individuals with tools and materials to develop their own learning habits and the modern technology can offer innovative solutions to problems which cannot be solved in traditional classrooms. Concerning how to enhance students' writing ability with high technology, especially by multi-media technology, researchers in China have made their studies as follows: Yang Yonglin has developed three-dimensional, digital, and open writing practice system; Wang Dong and Zhang Xinhua work on the design of writing teaching system in an website; Liang Maocheng and Wen Qiufang contribute to the automatic rating system of writing, and Wang Lifei studies about writing by using Writer's Workbench. However, doing research in teaching English writing in classrooms with a certain theory is still necessary.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

This research focuses on a method to teach English writing, namely, the application of schema theory in teaching English writing with the assistance of computers and Internet. To find out whether the schema-oriented teaching method assisted by computers and Internet is effective in improving students' writing ability, the research is carried out to answer the following questions.

1. What problems exist in students' essays in terms of schema theory?
2. Is the schema-oriented teaching method assisted by CALL effective to solve these problems and to improve students' writing ability?
3. Why this teaching method is effective in improving students' writing ability?

B. Subjects

The present research involves 60 non-English majors in the experimental class and 60 in the controlled class in Qingdao University of Science and Technology. Students in these two classes come from the same major. 67 male and 53 female students are included respectively. Since the subjects are sophomores, they have already been familiar with the college life after a year and the author finds out many of them are low-proficient in English writing.

C. Instruments

The method in the research consists of both qualitative and quantitative analysis, in which experimental research is dominant and descriptive study served as an important supplement. There are four kinds of instruments used in the research: questionnaire, tests, email interview and the Jacob's rating standards.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire is designed to find out what factors affect students' writing ability and their attitudes towards writing. To avoid any misunderstanding of the questions, the questionnaire is presented in Chinese.

D. Pre-test

The pre-test is aimed to check students' proficiency in writing before the experiment. All subjects were required to attend the pre-test on 2nd September and they were asked to write an essay entitled "We shouldn't totally turn to Internet" in about 150 words in half an hour.

E. Post-test

At the end of the semester, the post-test is conducted with the writing task entitled "Opportunity and success", aiming to find out whether students are better at writing and in which aspects they gain improvement.

F. Interview

The interview is carried out by email to get students' attitudes towards the schema-oriented writing instruction assisted by computers.

G. Rating Standards

The rating standards used in the research are standards of Jacob et al, 1981, which indicates: content accounts for 30%, organization 20%, vocabulary 20%, language use 25%, and mechanics 5% (classified as linguistics in the thesis). The author also rates students' essays based on the rating standards of CET.

H. The Teaching Methods in the Research

The teaching method in the study is schema theory-oriented instruction in the context of CALL. The teacher is committed to improving students' writing ability by the usage of computers and Internet in writing activities. With the assistance of the Internet and computers, students can actively participate in the teaching activities both in and out of class, so the English writing teaching in this thesis not only refers to teacher's teaching in class, but refers to students' self-teaching after class, which extends the traditional meaning of teaching and learning to some extent.

As the research is carried out in the college English writing teaching class, semantic mapping is applied to enrich students' vocabulary and the author makes full use of intensive reading materials to develop students' awareness of English genre. In the meanwhile, more related culture knowledge is shown to students to train their ability to tell the distinctions in culture. A single research procedure lasts for three weeks consisting of the following three steps.

1. Activate students' previous existing schemata

In the first week of the research, the teacher organizes activities to activate students' schemata in the pre-writing stage. The teacher will analyze sample essays by branching and schematic analysis of the structure in order to acquaint students with the structure of English essays, and introduce cultural knowledge by showing video materials and asking open questions. What's more, topics will be given to students to search online for related information and materials after class.

2. Construct new schemata in the composing process

In the second week, the teacher offers the related materials about the topic to students by PowerPoint texts. Students are asked to discuss and verbalize their ideas in pairs or groups. Group discussion and brainstorming are two effective methods to activate their schematic knowledge. After the discussion, students decode information through schema knowledge and write the essay at class. Self-correction and peer-correction are also conducted at class. The author will offer students rating standards to help them correct their classmates' essays and asks students offer some suggestions as well.

3. Consolidate students' schemata by revising essays

In the third week, tutor-feedback and assessments are given. The students email their essays to the teacher after

self-correction and peer-correction as required, and the teacher revises and rates the texts according to the same rating standards. Samples are chosen for whole-class comment. By using the computer, it is easy for students to participate in correcting samples. Students are asked to refine the text and thus they can further understand the problems in their English writing.

Writing topics are confined to argumentation owing to the time limit. Since one important reason of learning English is to express ideas, argumentation is essential in showing one's ideas. Writing topics in the research are chosen from New Horizon College English (reading and writing, second edition) and from the CET topics. Topics include: we shouldn't totally turn to Internet; the craze of pursuing graduate studies; on the low-carbon life; how to deal with sub-health; opportunity and success.

I. Data Collection and Analysis

Samples used in the analysis are chosen based on the following rules: students attend each of the class in the research; students email every requested essay to the teacher. The number of all valid samples is 56 in each class.

All the samples of students from both the experimental and the controlled class in the pre-test and the post-test are rated according to the standards of Jacob Scale of Rating and CET rating scales. To guarantee the objectivity of the assessment, the author grades the samples together with the other teacher who is also a college English teacher. The author and the colleague serve as two raters and the scores the author uses in the analysis are the average of the two scores. After the grading, the author makes a contrast analysis of samples in the pre-test and post-test from the experimental class with the help of SPSS 11.5. The author also makes a contrast analysis with the controlled class to find out whether students are better in writing.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

With the help of multi-media and computers, and the application of schema theory, the research is done successfully. Data is collected and analyzed by SPSS 11.5, and findings are presented in the following part.

A. Data Analysis of the Questionnaire

A questionnaire is conducted to understand the subjects' writing problems. The following table 4.1 reveals the number of subjects choosing different the answers to each question in the questionnaire, and the following results are presented.

TABLE 3.1
THE QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONNAIRE

	A	B	C
1	0	52	68
2	73	47	0
3	79	41	0
4	81	12	27
5	29	75	16
6	62	40	18
7	20	56	44
8	48	51	21
9	21	73	26
10	25	28	67
11	83	37	0
12	23	76	21
13	39	43	38

It can be indicated that the following reasons cause the poor performance in English writing: (1) lack of interest, (2) lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge, (3) lack of knowledge of English text structure, (4) lack of awareness of coherence methods even they have already acquired some, (5) lack of culture background knowledge, (6) lack of revision after writing.

From the above analysis, the conclusion can be drawn that the reasons why students lack interest in English writing is that they do not accumulate adequate vocabulary or textual structure knowledge or proper coherence means to produce an essay. This disadvantage makes them reluctant to read English materials, and in turn, this unwillingness impedes their grasp of relevant culture knowledge for writing, while teachers' instruction plays an important role in improving their writing ability and peers' discussion is also helpful. From this questionnaire, the author decides to adopt the schema theory in the teaching practice and explores an effective way to improve students' writing ability.

B. Data Analysis of the Pre-test and the Post-test

In the wake of the pre-test and the questionnaire, schema-oriented teaching method is implemented in the writing instruction within a span of 16 weeks.

The analysis of the pre-test and the post-test is aimed to find out whether students in the experimental class are better in writing than those in the controlled class.

TABLE 3.2
GROUP STATISTICS OF ORGANIZATION SCORES OF TWO CLASSES IN PRE-TEST

	class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
score	experimental	56	1.4308	.27648	.03173
score	controlled	56	1.4975	.34094	.04330

TABLE 3.3
GROUP STATISTICS OF ORGANIZATION SCORES OF TWO CLASSES IN POST-TEST

	class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
score	experimental	56	1.8153	.25641	.03214
score	controlled	56	1.5036	.25873	.03245

Table 3.2 reveals the mean and standard deviation for the analytic organization scores of the two classes in the pre-test, while Table 3.3 presents data in the post-test. In the pre-test, the mean of the experimental class is 1.4307 with the standard deviation of 0.27648, while the mean of the controlled is 1.4975 with the standard deviation of 0.34094. The mean difference of the two classes is 0.0667, which indicates there is little difference of organization scores in the pre-test. In the post-test, the mean of the experimental class is 1.8153 with the standard deviation of 0.25641, while the mean of the controlled is 1.5036 with the standard deviation of 0.25873. The mean difference of the two classes is 0.3027 which is about 4.5 times of that in the pre-test, which indicates students in the experimental class improve a lot in composing the structure of English essays.

TABLE 3.4
GROUP STATISTICS OF LINGUISTIC SCORES OF TWO CLASSES IN PRE-TEST

	class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
score	experimental	56	3.6703	.53906	.06734
score	controlled	56	3.6213	.38792	.04913

TABLE 3.5
GROUP STATISTICS OF LINGUISTIC SCORES OF TWO CLASSES IN POST-TEST

	class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
score	experimental	60	4.1873	.43464	.05611
score	controlled	60	3.6667	.80605	.10406

Table 3.4 reveals the mean and standard deviation for the analytic linguistic scores of the two classes in the pre-test, while Table 3.5 presents data in the post-test. In the pre-test, the mean of the experimental class is 3.6703 with the standard deviation of 0.53906, while the mean of the controlled is 3.6213 with the standard deviation of 0.38792. The mean difference of the two classes is 0.049, which indicates there is little difference of linguistic scores in the pre-test. In the post-test, the mean of the experimental class is 4.1873 with the standard deviation of 0.43464, while the mean of the controlled is 3.6667 with the standard deviation of 0.80605. The mean difference of the two classes is 0.5206 which is about 10 times of that in the pre-test, which indicates students in the experimental class improve a lot in vocabulary when writing English essays.

TABLE 3.6
GROUP STATISTICS OF CONTENT SCORES OF TWO CLASSES IN PRE-TEST

	class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
score	experimental	56	1.9058	.18681	.02316
score	controlled	56	1.9472	.16592	.02046

TABLE 3.7
GROUP STATISTICS OF CONTENT SCORES OF TWO CLASSES IN POST-TEST

	class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
score	experimental	60	2.4407	.34557	.04461
score	controlled	60	2.0250	.55560	.07173

Table 3.6 reveals the mean and standard deviation for the analytic content scores of the two classes in the pre-test, while Table 3.7 presents data in the post-test. In the pre-test, the mean of the experimental class is 1.9058 with the standard deviation of 0.18681, while the mean of the controlled is 1.9472 with the standard deviation of 0.16592. The mean difference of the two classes is 0.0414, which indicates there is little difference of content scores in the pre-test. In the post-test, the mean of the experimental class is 2.4407 with the standard deviation of 0.34557, while the mean of the controlled is 2.0250 with the standard deviation of 0.55560. The mean difference of the two classes is 0.4157 which is about 10 times of that in the pre-test, which indicates students in the experimental class improve a lot in the content when writing English essays.

C. The Contrast of the Experimental Class in Post-test and Pre-test

TABLE 3.8
 PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF ORGANIZATION

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	VAR0001(post)	1.8140	56	.25620	.03340
	VAR0002(pre)	1.4307	56	.26358	.03473

TABLE 3.9
 PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF LINGUISTIC SCORES

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	VAR0001(post)	4.1973	56	.51517	.07289
	VAR0002(pre)	3.5723	56	.52916	.06734

TABLE 3.10
 PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF CONTENT SCORES

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	VAR0001(post)	2.4307	56	.19473	.05128
	VAR0002(pre)	1.9057	56	.27691	.02316

From the analysis above, it can be concluded that the empirical study has achieved a significant success. The analysis of questionnaire and the pre-test proves that lexical schematic problems, syntactic and textual problems do exist in students' essays. Thus, the schema theory is adopted in the empirical study, and computers and the Internet is applied to teach college English writing. After a span of 16 weeks, the author finds that students in the experimental class get much higher scores in the post-test than in the pre-test. Their essays are much better in the aspect of organization, linguistic and content, which matches the analysis of paired samples t-tests. Therefore, from the data in this part, the teaching method under discussion is effective to improve students' writing proficiency.

D. *The Analysis of the Email Interview*

In order to find out students' attitudes towards the schema-oriented writing instruction assisted by computers, the email interview is conducted since students are busy at the end of the semester. The interview lasted for a week, and all the 56 students from the experimental class took part in it. The author catalogues the students into three groups: high-level group, intermediate-level group and low-level group. Six questions were talked about as follows:

- (1) Do you think your writing ability is improved after the semester? If it is, in which aspects?
- (2) Do you think it is important to explain some relevant culture and background knowledge in the pre-writing phase?
- (3) In the revising phase, do you like peer feedbacks?
- (4) If your essay is chosen to be the sample for whole-class revising, will you feel stressed?
- (5) Do you rewrite your compositions after revision?
- (6) Do you have any suggestions for teaching English writing?

After analyzing the students' answers, the conclusion can be drawn that students hold positive attitudes towards this teaching method, and virtually they have made great progress in their English writing. Firstly, with the help of computers and the Internet, a friendly learning environment is set up in which students can interact with teachers easily. Secondly, the interesting activities in the writing class can arouse students' interest in writing. Thirdly, original teaching methods like new revising methods, new writing habits and thinking patterns, and massive materials used in teaching are essential in composing good essays.

As for the negative sides, the teacher believes it is partly due to students learning motivation or strategies, since they are reluctant to re-write and re-read their essays and it is hard to change their previous writing habits and thinking patterns in a short period. It is worth noticing and paying more attention to them in teaching.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

From the results and analysis above, it is clear that students make great improvement in their English writing after experiencing the schema-oriented instruction and many factors can account for the obvious change.

A. *Enrich Students' Schemata*

Students' schemata can be built and enriched continuously, since schemata change moment by moment when new information is received. In this teaching study, group discussing, materials searching, ideas sharing, semantic mapping, brain storming even the teacher's and peers' feedbacks can modify students existing schemata, which is vital in improving students' writing ability. Schema theory points out that prior knowledge is packaged into organized structure but it is not only a storage unit for data, it is also a dynamic, flexible, and ever-changing resource of prior knowledge and experiences. In class, the teacher provides many fixed phrases and uses semantic mapping to enrich students' vocabulary, which enlarges students' linguistic schema. Through their searching new materials online and intensive reading, students read more English articles. As a result, this reading acquaints students with more culture related information, which expands their horizon and enriches their content schema. When it comes to formal schemata, the teacher analyzes many structures make students familiar with English essays' organization and the characteristics of

different genres. In the meanwhile, teacher offers many coherence phrases, which are helpful in making their essays more coherent.

B. Combine Content Schema, Linguistic Schema and Formal Schema

Schemata can be divided into various kinds and contain various kinds of schema, however, in writing, all the schemata should be integrated since it is a complex process. That is, in writing, linguistic schema, content schema and formal schema should be combined to work.

In this study, during the pre-writing period, students were asked to search materials online and try to understand the materials and the culture differences. As a result, students' content schema is enriched. In the planning period, semantic mapping and brainstorming is adopted to enrich students' linguistic schema. The author also focused on the comparison and contrast of the structures of English and Chinese essays in order to set up and activate students' formal schema. According to the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the research, we can see that students make great improvement in their writing, which means the combination of all these schemata is helpful and effective in enhancing students' writing ability.

C. Pay More Attention to the Cognitive Writing Process

In writing teaching, schema theory is the one paying much attention to students' writing cognitive process. Writing begins with observation, which means the writer notices something and is willing to write about it. Writing involves description, which means the writer has to present concrete details with his own words. Writing also relates to finding common links between things and explaining those links. Writers select the type of thinking to focus on in their writing unconsciously and their way of observing, thinking, recording, and structuring may alter from situation to situation. In a word, writing is a thinking process unique to each individual.

Schema theory focuses on cognitive processes and serves as guidance in teaching. In the research, students' thoughts are dug out by brainstorming. Students have the chance to express their ideas freely, which is good to restore and activate their existing schemata. Through peer revision, students get more chance to use their schemata and modify their existing schemata sometimes, because the student raters have to interpret the information from their classmates' essays and judge if that information is right. If they lack such corresponding schemata, they will turn to dictionaries so that to enrich their existing schemata. Therefore, the schema-oriented instruction assisted by computers and the Internet can strengthen students' awareness of writing process.

D. Improve Students' Competence in Information Processing

Writing is a cognitive process in which students have to understand what to write and how to write. During this process, finding ways to restore the previous knowledge and enriching their knowledge is essential, which means teachers need to activate students' schemata. The schema-oriented instruction used in this study may help students activate their schemata and guide them in processing information. Though teachers apply different activities in different periods in writing, which does not mean writing can be divided into parts. On the contrary, it is an integrated process and students need to understand this point. Likewise, different schemata are introduced and enriched respectively at class, which does not mean they can be independent from each other. On the contrary, the schemata can be operated interactively to make a qualified writing. Therefore, activities in the pre-writing phase can improve students' cognitive ability in understanding what to write and how to write.

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Pathological Interaction in Edward Albee's *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?*

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Abstract—Edward Albee's *Who's afraid of Virginia Woolf?* is the portrayal of one of the forms of entrapment in relationships, one of the forms of pathological interactions the anti-psychiatrists explore in their work. Studying this play, the reader asks himself, how come that two people who are quite nice when considered on their own can be such devils when put in each another's company? George and Martha are entrapped in their relationships and there is no vent out of it for them. The more they try to set themselves free the more the noose tightens and this is truly because of their pathological interaction. They are engulfed in an untenable situation since once a person entrapped in it he should choose between “badness” and “madness” which seem to be the only explanation and whatever he chooses is a failure for him. Employing communication theory, this study tries to investigate George and Martha's pathological interaction and the game of collusion they play upon their guests.

Index Terms—Edward Albee, *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?*, paradoxical interaction, collusion, spiral perspective

I. INTRODUCTION

Games of deceit and betrayal are very much seen in the plays of modern dramatists. In other words, modern plays, especially those which are considered as family plays are about different forms of pathological relationships, deceitful games and frauds between a husband and a wife, or generally speaking, the members of a family. Pinter's plays, such as *Caretaker*, *Betrayal* and *The Birthday Party*; Tennessee Williams's *A Streetcar Named Desire*; Eugene O'Neill's *Long Day's Journey into Night*, and *Recklessness*; Lars Noren's *Silence*, to name a few, are all portraying different forms of entrapment in pathological relationships. Investigating these forms of pathological interactions is at the center of attention of anti-psychiatrists, such as Watzlawick, Laing, Phillipson, Lee, Bavelas, and Jackson.

Watzlawick's *Pragmatics of Human Communication: A Study of Interactional Patterns, Pathologies, and Paradoxes* is the study of pragmatic effects of human communication, in which disturbed behavior is seen as a communicative reaction to a particular situation rather than the evidence of the disease of an individual mind. Communication theory is concerned with the reactions of an individual to the reactions of other individuals and is liable to alter from time to time, even without disturbance from outside. Gregory Bateson defines communication as “the study of the reactions of individuals to the reactions of other individuals” while we should observe “not only A's reactions to B's behavior, but we must go on to consider how these affect B's later behavior and the effect of this on A” (qtd. in Watzlawick, 1967, P.153).

Watzlawick categorizes all communications into three groups: symmetrical, complementary and metacomplementary. Based on his definitions, complementary pattern of interaction is the pattern employed by Martha and George. In this kind of interaction, one partner may occupy the position of the superior, primary or “one-up” position, and consequently the other occupies the inferior, the secondary or “one-down” position (Watzlawick, 1967, P.69). In Laing's view, in complementary relationships “collusion” is at the center and we observe a growing sense of frustration and despair in one or both partners. Delusion, as Laing says, implies total self-deception; illusion implies a capacity to deceive oneself under a strong wish, but does not involve as total as self-deception as delusion. Collusion is a “game” played by two or more people whereby they deceive themselves. It is a game involving mutual self-deception. So collusion is necessarily a trans-personal or interpersonal process (*self and others: Sanity and madness*, 1961, P. 98). Roudane suggests that *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?* Just says have your pipe-dreams if you want to but realize you are kidding yourself” (2006, P.109), Roudane is right but *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?* is more than just self-deception, it is a game of collusion as well.

Complaints of increasingly frightening feelings of self-estrangement and depersonalization are very frequently voiced by the individuals entrapped in collusion. They are perfectly capable of functioning satisfactorily when they are considered on their own but this picture often changes dramatically when these individuals are put in each other's company and when they are seen together with their “complements” (Watzlawick, 1967, P.109). They can become such devils when they are put in each other's company and the pathology of their relationship becomes patent.

Price believes that “Albee presents relationships in general and marriage in particular in terms of self-conscious, theatrical game playing in *Who's afraid of Virginia Woolf?*” (2007, P.257). What Price says is right but what Albee demonstrates in his play is not only a theatrical game playing but also a game-like interaction between four real

characters. In other words, it is not just theatrical, since it can happen in everyday life between two people who are interacting as devils when they are in each other's company while they are quite nice when they are considered on their own. Cohn stipulates that all the games included in this play "—Humiliate the Host, Get the Guests, Hump the hostess, and Bringing up Baby—suggest a miniature society" (2006, P.96). Toby Zinman argues that in *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?*, the plot shows "the dysfunctional family, a subject American drama has been in love with from the beginning" (2008, P.39).

II. DISCUSSION

George, Martha, Nick and Honey are the four people running the game of deceit in Albee's *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?* It is midnight, two o'clock in the morning, George and Martha have already come back from the ceremony held in the house of Martha's father who is the professor and headmaster of the department in which George and Nick are teaching as university professors. Martha has invited a young couple, Nick and Honey, with whom she has newly got acquainted. Pathological communication between George and Martha starts from the very beginning, even before the arrival of the two other prominent characters who augment the complexity and complication of the pathological relationships occurring in this play.

George and Martha are intermittently kind and cruel towards each other. Their love-hate relationship is truly the cause of their deceitful game without end, and their pathological relationship from which there is no vent out. From the very beginning of the play, Martha is introduced as a headstrong character running her deceitful games with her reckless and indifferent attitude towards her husband, George, and his desires. Before the arrival of their guests, George objects to Martha: "I wish you'd tell me about something sometime. ... I wish you'd stop *springing* things on me all the time." (Albee, 1963, p. 11) However, Martha enjoys George's anger; she says: "I like your anger. I think that's what I like about you most ... your anger." (Albee, 1963, p.14) Very trivial things can be the subject of their quarrel. They eagerly start quarreling with each other and each thinks that he is the winner of the game he plays. The first game of power starts with Martha's mentioning of her teeth which are more than George's. George, in return, reminds her that he is six years younger than her:

George: I suppose it's pretty remarkable ... considering how old you are.

Martha: YOU CUT THAT OUT! (Pause) You are not so young yourself.

George: I'm six years younger than you are ... I always have been and I always will be. (Albee, 1963, p.15)

The prominent subject of their quarrel turns round having a son which they have promised to keep secret. While the guests are behind the door, George constantly pleads Martha not to mention their son:

George: Just don't start in on the bit about the kid, that's all.

Martha: What do you take me for?

George: Much too much.

Martha (Really angered): Yeah? Well, I'll start in on the kid if I want to.

George: Just leave the kid out of this.

Martha (Threatening): He's mine as much as he is yours. I'll talk about him if I want to.

George: I'd advise against it, Martha. (Albee, 1963, p.18-19)

Martha is obstinate and thinks that she knows how to run the game against George; she thinks she is the manipulator of the game and can make barehanded George angry and wins the power game. George also thinks that he knows what she thinks and thinks that he is the manipulator of the game. Moreover, throughout the play, they are ostensibly playing in one team in the presence of "others", of their guests. Thus, two prominent games are running throughout the play. One between Martha and George and the other one is ostensibly between Nick and Martha, playing in one team and George and Honey, playing in the other. Very much like their love-hate relationship both George and Martha are playing for and against each other; sometimes in one team and sometimes in different teams against each other. The pathological relationship between these two people is a game without end. An example, given by Laing, may clarify this situation:

This is how many people describe their experience of being unable to leave 'home', or the original other or nexus of persons in their life. They feel that their mother or family is smothering them. They are frightened and want to run away. But the more frightened they are, the more frightened and frightening their family becomes. They cling for security to what frightens them, like someone with a hand on a hot plate who presses his hand harder against it instead of drawing it away; or like someone, who begins to step on a bus just when it begins to move away and 'instinctively' clutches the bus, the nearest and most dangerous object, although the 'sensible' thing to do is to let go. (*Selected Works*, 2002, p.130)

While Nick and Honey, a young couple, come to their house and Martha wants to show Honey the house, George reads Martha's mind and is worried about what she will say to Honey. He guesses that Martha will reveal the secret to Honey and will break the rule of their game:

Martha: Honestly, George, you burn me up!

George (Happily): All right.

Martha: You really do, George.

George: O.K Martha ... O.K. just ... trot along.

Martha: You really do.

George: Just don't shoot your mouth off ... about ... you know.

Martha (Surprisingly vehement): I'll talk about any goddamn thing I want to, George! (Albee, 1963, p.29)

The game Martha and George play before Nick and Honey, the third party, are very much reminiscent of the game Aston and Mick play with their uninvited guest, Davies in Harold Pinter's *Caretaker*. Nick, at first, estimates that George is tantalizing him, so he avoids taking part in any discussion with George. Unaware of George's collusion with Martha and the vortex in which he is assumed to plunge, Nick dodges George's questions. But even Nick's verbal refusal to take part in discussion with George paves the way for George to engage Nick in his indispensable game; though Nick is completely unaware of his tricky plot:

George: Don't you condescend to me! (Toying with him) I asked you how you liked that for declension: Good; better; best; bested. Hm? Well?

Nick (With some distaste): I really don't know what to say.

George (Feigned incredulousness): You really don't know what to say?

Nick (Snapping it out): All right ... what do you want me to say? Do you want me to say it's funny, so you can contradict me and say it's sad? Or do you want me to say it's sad and so you can turn around and say no, it's funny. You can play that damn little game any way you want to, you know!

George (Feigned awe): Very good! Very good!?! (Albee, 1963, p.33)

Then George continues:

George: Well, now ... let's sit down and talk, hunh?

Nick (Cool again): It's just that I don't like to ... become involved ... (An afterthought) uh ... in other people's affairs. (Albee, 1963, p.34)

George's attempts to involve Nick in his game is fruitful to the extent that when George asks him whether Nick and Honey have a son or not, Nick simply responds him and tells him "No", but when Nick asks George the same question in return, George cunningly says: "That's for me to know and you to find out." (Albee, 1963, p.39) While involving Nick in his game, George is also worried about another game, about his game with Martha. Like a chess game, his game is a game of reading his rival's thoughts. It is a game of deceptions, frauds, hoaxes, and generally speaking departure from reality; it is the game of pretension, insincerity, and from the view point of communication theory, a game of 'spiral perspectives' which is the cause of all these befuddlements and entrapments. Laing proposes a very concise formula of Spiral Interpersonal Perception: (*Self and Others*, 2002, p.99)

A(B)	how A sees B
A(B(A))	how A sees B seeing A
A(B(A(B)))	how A sees B seeing A seeing B

The algorithm is useful; it helps a spectator achieve a basic understanding of deceiving games the characters play against one another in the spiral interpersonal perception. Luc Gilleman also believes that this pattern, proposed by Laing, of interaction results in a "vortex" or system of interlocking spiral perspectives" (2008, p.83).

Paradoxically, the characters' very attempts at creating clarity lead to increased confusion. George moves his pawns the way that he can estimate what his rival's movement will be in return. In other words, he cunningly stimulates Nick and Martha and then dexterously planned his reaction; however, Nick and Martha still think that they are manipulating the game. George is one level ahead; he is in one-up position, though Nick and Martha mistakenly consider themselves as the wiser part of the game.

George is able to read her wife's mind and knows what she thinks and what her next movement will be in their game. While Honey and Martha are upstairs, George expresses his anxiety about what is happening upstairs between these two women; he tells Nick: "One of the things I do not know about them is what they talk about while the men are talking. (Vaguely) I must find out some time." (Albee, 1963, p.42) George has estimated that Martha has broken the rule of their game deliberately to make him angry and wins the game. George is right; Honey reveals to George that Martha has told her about their son. Hearing this from Honey's mouth, George, as the stage direction reads, wheels "as if stuck from behind" (Albee, 1963, P.44). He has verified his estimations and now he is ensured that he knows what Martha and Nick think about him and what they will do.

Martha who mistakenly thinks that it is she who manipulates the game tries to engage Honey in a game of frauds and deceptions of a wife and a husband. But she is not that much successful; she is not as successful as George is. Martha can engage Honey a little bit in the game when Honey is deceived and reveals the secret of her marriage with Nick to Martha. Every part and parcel of *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?* is a game embedded in the two prominent aforementioned games played mainly by George and Martha. This play is replete with pretensions, deceptions, collusions, and vortexes that all of the people in the play are entrapped in; in other words they are all entrapped in a pathological relationship from which there is no vent out. The more they try to set themselves free, the more the noose tightens.

The story Martha tells to Nick about George's game of boxing is very telling of the pattern of the game which is in her mind and the way she is playing with George. She knows that George is very much concerned about his muscles, and his body, so she puts forward the story of his defeat in boxing and the way she deceives him and makes him defeated and hit by his rival. She believes: "I think it's colored our whole life." (Albee, 1963, p.57) She knows that telling this story will surely make George mad and this is what she desires. George in return, takes from behind his back a short-barreled shotgun and calmly aims it at the back of Martha's head and pulls the trigger. "You are dead! Pow! You

are dead!" George says (Albee, 1963, p.57). Though from the barrel of the gun blossoms a large red and yellow Chinese parasol, what George does symbolically foreshadows Martha's defeat in the pathological game of power running between this couple.

The pathological relationship between George and Martha extends to other relationships as well. Collusion is at the heart of all relationships in this play. *Who's afraid of Virginia Woolf?* is divided into three parts; the name of each part is truly very telling of what is happening in that act of the play. The first part called "Fun and Games", not only portrays the game between George and Martha but also the game they establish to involve the young couple especially Nick who erroneously thinks he is so wise that he is not engulfed in the pathological relations of Martha and George. George, in the first act, reminds Martha to start blue games for the guests:

George: Oh-ho! That's what you're after, is it? What are we going to have ... blue games for the guests? Hunh? Hunh?

Martha (Angry-hurt): You ... prick!

George (A pyrrhic victory): Everything in its place, Martha ... everything in its own good time. (Albee, 1963, p.59)

The way George and Martha behave the guests is very much like the way Mick and Aston treat Davies, in *Caretaker*. Nick, very much like Davies, is entrapped in a game of which he is unaware. He really thinks that he knows what George and Martha think, but he really is unaware of their plan. Ostensibly, George and Martha are fighting against each other but it is just the veneer of the matter. He does not know, though he mistakenly thinks he knows, that he is a puppet in the hands of George and Martha. As the surface structure of the game represents, Nick thinks that the more powerful person in this game is Martha, so Nick takes side with Martha, very much like Davies who takes side with Mick against Aston. In "Fun and Games", Martha and George decide to entertain their guests by entrapping them in their pathological relationships.

A kind of Strindbergian quarrel between George and Martha makes Honey mad and makes Nick a bad character who at the end of the game or the play, very much like Davies, understand the true nature of the game they are engulfed in. When Honey asks George to talk about their twenty-one year old son, George asks Martha to talk about this subject since it was she who brought the secret up, so she is the one who should take the responsibility of talking about the forbidden matter, their son. On the other hand Martha tries to change the subject to an issue which is disgusting for George, to the extent that it makes George mad or sad. Very much like Strindberg's *The Father*, Martha—like the captain's wife, Laura—tells the guests: "George's biggest problem about the little ... ha, ha, ha, ha! About our son, about our great big son, is that deep down in the private-most pit of his gut, he's not completely sure it's his own kid." (Albee, 1963, p. 71) Unlike Captain in *The Father*, George is the stronger and wiser person in the deceitful game; he not only does not doubt about his fatherhood, but he also shifts the fraudulent plan towards Martha and introduces her as the liar.

The pathological interactions these people are entrapped in lead them to badness or madness. A person caught in paradoxical injunction or double bind is in *untenable position* from which his chance of stepping outside is very slim. Watzlawick suggests different examples to clarify this situation which ultimately leads to the untenable situation no one wants to be engulfed in. This situation is called untenable, since a person entrapped in it should choose between "badness" and "madness" which seem to be the only explanation and whatever he chose is a failure for him. Thus, he gets befuddled and cannot solve this very complicated problem (1967, pp.212-13).

Actually, the pathological game is a game without end and nothing from within can change this relationship, these people are hopelessly entrapped in it and the only remedy is the death of one of the partners of the interaction. By mentioning the secret, the son, Martha tries to make George mad. On the other hand, George breaks a bottle to intimidate Martha and control her game; in other words to defeat her by making her a mad or a bad character. The first act of the play ends while George and Martha have established their fraudulent game to which the guests are introduced and also somehow enmeshed in while they really do not want to.

George, Martha, Nick and Honey's pathological interactions are significantly exposed in the second act. They are entangled more in the net of pathological relationships and the noose tightens more in the second act of the play. Though Nick again, in this act, insists that he does not want to be engaged in the interaction between George and Martha, he unknowingly gets involved much more than the previous act in the pathological relationships between the couple. George tells Nick a story of a fifteen-year-old boy who killed his mother with a shotgun completely accidentally, "without even an unconscious motivation, I have no doubt, no doubt at all" (Albee, 1963, p. 94) and who killed his father in a car accident when he swerved the car, to avoid a porcupine, and drove straight into a large tree. This story—in the hands of these people—in different colors and forms, is a tool for deceiving and bothering one another. Schechner believes that "there is no real, hard bedrock of suffering in *Virginia Woolf*—it is all illusory, depending upon a "child" who never was born: a gimmick, a trick, a trap" (2006, p.77).

Nick is entrapped in a pathological game to the extent that he tells George about the secret of his marriage with Honey, about her sickness, pregnancy and even about his father-in-law. Nick is still completely unaware of his entrapment in the game, though George tries to let him know that he is entrapped. George in the beginning of the second act, the act of the peak of deceptions and frauds, advises Nick, though Nick laughs at him, belittles him and does not consider him serious:

George (Like a father): I wish I were ... I'll give you some good advice if you want me to ...

Nick: Good advice! From you? Oh boy! (Starts to laugh)

George: There's quicksand here, and you'll be dragged down, just as ...

Nick: Oh boy ...!

George: ... before you know it ... sucked down ...

(Nick laughs derisively)

You disgust me on principle, and you're a smug son of a bitch personally, but I'm trying to give you a survival kit. DO YOU HEAR ME? (Albee, 1963, p.115)

Reckless to George's admonition, Nick plunges into a game of deceit running between George and Martha. George accuses Martha of making Honey sick; she, in return, accuses Martha of making their son sick. They call each other liar; Martha puts forward the problematic issue, the story of killing a father and a mother but this time in the form of a novel written by George. Another secret is revealed by Martha. Martha carries out the game well. George tries to stop the game, but the relationship is pathological, the more they try to set themselves free, the more the noose tightens. George decides to retaliate to stop her. "George and Martha are attuned to one another, and they need one another" (Cohn 91). George tells Martha: "It's just I've got to figure out some new way to fight you, Martha. Guerilla tactics, maybe ... internal subversion ... I don't know. Something." (Albee, 1963, p.125) As Watzlawick believes nothing from within can stop the game. It is a game without end and the only remedy is death of one of the partners.

While dancing with Nick, Martha brings up the story of George's novel again to arouse Nick and engage him in their game. She knows how to arouse George's anger and how to carry out the game. George warns Martha that "THE GAME IS OVER" (Albee, 1963, p. 136), but Martha heedlessly continues and tells Nick and Honey: "Imagine such a thing! A book about a boy who murders his mother and kills his father, and pretends it's all an accident!" (Albee, 1963, p. 136). George is wiser than Martha. She does not know that she is not the one manipulating the game but it is George. She does not know George's rules, so she is defeated by him physically and mentally several times. He plans another game in which Martha, Nick and Honey are the puppets while all of them are unaware of it.

George addresses Martha as "book dropper! Child mentioner!" (Albee, 1963, p.140); he retaliates by proposing a new game which he has fabricated. "We've played Humiliate the Host ... we've gone through that one ... what shall we do now?" (Albee, 1963, p.138); "there are other games. How about ... how about ... Hump the Hostess?" (Albee, 1963, p.139). Martha mistakenly addresses him as "a portrait of a man drowning"; she does not know that it is she who is drowning; even in a game called "Humiliate the Host", she was the loser not George; since she could not wisely manage "Humiliate the Host", it reversely paves the way for her defeat. When George sees that none of them are satisfied with his suggestion, he changes the game and proposes: "We'll play a round of Get the Guests. How about that? How about a little game of get the guests?" (Albee, 1963, p.140). George knows what he is doing and knows how to control Martha, Nick and Honey. Any of these games proposed by George well corresponds to his purpose: the entrapment of both Nick and Martha in his game.

Since he is annoyed by Martha's mentioning of the story of his novel, he, as the wiser partner of the game, who is in one-up position and who can read his rival's mind tries another plot. George mischievously asks Martha if she has told the guests about his second novel. Honey who has been very little entrapped in their interactions, enthusiastically asks George to tell them his story while she is unaware of George's plan. Hearing George's second novel, Honey understands that the secret of her marriage with Nick has been revealed to George by Nick. A young couple's quarrel, Honey and Nick, indicates how much George has been successful in engaging the guests, the third party, in his pathological interaction with Martha. All of them are deceiving and betraying one another. No one can trust the other one. It is like a chess game full of fraud and deception. George is on one side of a chess game and the three other characters who are manipulated by him are on the other side. George says: "this is my game! You played yours ... you people. This is my game!" (Albee, 1963, p.142). Even Martha who ostensibly plays in the same team with Nick, is not honest with Nick and is the accomplice of George, deceives him and plays an important role in the game of "Get the Guests" fabricated and proposed by her husband, George, against Nick and Honey.

Seeing Nick and Honey struggling in a net to make themselves free, George becomes sure that his game runs well and it is still controlled by him. Abruptly and with some disgust, as the stage direction reads, George states: "and that's how you play Get the Guests" (Albee, 1963, p.148). George advises Nick pick up the damaged pieces and plan some new strategy. Nick who anxiously finds himself in the trap and can find no way to get out of it, decides to take revenge, but what is ridiculous is that he does not understand it from the very beginning though George did warn him of what was happening to him. Both Martha and George deceive Nick and Nick very simply takes Martha's side; he thinks that he is playing in one team with Martha. Completely unaware of this fact that no two people are playing in one team in this game set by George and Martha. Nick intimidates George:

Nick: I'll play the charades like you 've got 'em sset up ... I'll play in your language ... I'll be what you say I am.

George: you are already ... you just don't know it.

Nick (shaking within): No ... no. not really. But I'll be it, mister ... I'll show you something come to life you'll wish you hadn't set up. (Albee, 1963, p.150)

Nick is befuddled, shakes within, and now understands that he is engulfed in a game which is like the charades. He relied on George and very dexterously he was entrapped; now he understands that he is mistaken but he again trusts Martha another partner of the game of deception. While Nick is struggling in their trap, George smiles at Martha and both thank each other for artistically carrying out the plan:

Martha: Very good George.
 George: Thank you, Martha.
 Martha: Really good.
 George: I'm glad you liked it.
 Martha: I mean ... you did a good job ... you really fixed it.
 George: You bring out the best in me, baby. (Albee, 1963, p.151)

But appreciation does not last much and syncopation happens again here. The love-hate relationship between this couple shows itself very sharply here when Martha in reaction to George's thanks and admiration, surprisingly, calls him miserable, a bastard, the one who makes her sick. The paradoxical reaction is not limited to Martha, George also behaves paradoxically. He tells Martha that what he does is just for her; "I thought you'd like it, sweetheart ... it's sort of to your taste ... blood, carnage and all. Why, I thought you'd get all excited" George says (Albee, 1963, p. 152). On the other hand, very cunningly, he suggests Martha that she make her own rules if she cannot stand his. He complains that he cannot stand her behavior when she tears him apart all the time, but Martha believes that he can stand it sine he married her for it. Watzlawick stipulates that there is something in the nature of paradox which makes it pragmatically and existentially crucial in the relationships. "Paradox not only can invade interaction and affect our behavior and our sanity, but also it challenges our belief in the consistency, and therefore the ultimate soundness of our universe" (1967, p.187).

George—as he warned Nick, before—warns Martha that she is getting mad and is deluded, but Martha, very much like Nick, thinks that she is the manipulator, thus she carries on the game. The quarrel between George and Martha, the schizophrenic people, never ends and none of them can stop the game. Based on Laing's theory, people engulfed in schizophrenic interactions are constantly puzzling over what is meant by any statement, for any statement can function in innumerable ways (*Self and Others: Sanity and Madness*, 1961, p.158). The following is a model of their pathological interaction leading nowhere. It is one of the examples of the vicious circle they are engulfed in. They both desire to stop it, to get rid of it, but there is no way out it:

Martha: my arm has gotten tired whipping you.
 George (stares at her in disbelief): You're mad.
 Martha: For twenty-three years!
 George: You're deluded ... Martha, you're deluded.
 Martha: It's not what I've wanted.
 George: I thought at least you were ... on to yourself. I didn't know. I ... didn't know.
 Martha (Anger taking over): I'm on to myself.
 George (As if she were some sort of bug): No ... no ... you're sick.
 Martha (Rises—screams): I'LL SHOW YOU WHO'S SICK!
 George: All right, Martha ... you're going too far.
 Martha (Screams again): I'LL SHOW YOU WHO'S SICK. I'LL SHOW YOU.
 George (He shakes her): Stop it! (Pushes her back in her chair) Now, stop it!
 ...
 George (Emphasizing with his forefinger): And you'll wish you'd never mentioned our son!
 Martha (Dripping contempt): You ...
 George: Now, I said I warned you.
 Martha: I'm impressed.
 George: I warned you not to go too far.
 Martha: I'm just beginning. (Albee, 1963, pp.154-55)

Thus, after so much quarrel and argument, the game starts from the very beginning by Martha, "I'm just beginning". George also announces: "you try it and I'll beat you at your own game" (Albee, 1963, p. 158). Therefore, as both George and Martha mention, the total war begin again; in other words, they are much more entrapped and they plunge deeper into the ocean of deception. As George tells Martha: "we get misunderstood" (Albee, 1963, p.157) and "there is no moment any more when we could ... come together" (Albee, 1963, p.158). There is actually no moment any more when they could get out of the pathological game and quarrels.

Martha now tries to hurt George by engaging Nick, who takes side with her, in her game against George. Nick is again a puppet controlled completely by Martha. Like the first act of the play when she was somehow successful to make George sad and angry—though she was eventually defeated and beaten by George—she guesses that she would make George angry by necking with Nick. Several times she tells George what she is doing but George, who is busy reading a book, deliberately reacts calmly. However, George tells Martha quietly as if she were in the room: "I'm going to get you, Martha" (Albee, 1963, p.175). George is one step ahead while Martha is unaware of it. She leaves the room with Nick, George and Martha are with each other. George plans another game for Martha. George tells Honey that their son is dead and asks her not to let Martha know about it.

Honey, who is alone with George now, is not that much entrapped in George's plot. Actually what differs Honey from three other people of the ply is that she does not want to know anything and she has no claim of controlling and manipulating the game. When George asks her whether she knows what is going on there, she simply says: "I don't

want to know anything." (Albee, 1963, p.178) The second act ends while an idea triggers in George's mind. He happily cries out: "I'VE GOT IT! I'VE GOT IT, MARTHA ...!" (Albee, 1963, p.180). George happily talks to himself:

Good ... good ... you go right ahead.

(Very softly, so Martha could not possibly hear)

Martha? Martha? I have some ... terrible news for you.

(There is a strange half-smile on his lips)

It's about our ... son. He's dead. Can you hear me, Martha? Our boy is dead.

(He begins to laugh, very softly ... it is mixed with crying). (Albee, 1963, p.181)

The name of the third act, "The Exorcism", very aptly foreshadows what is going to happen. As the title symbolically shows, it is supposed that the third act unfolds the essence of the whole play. The happenings of this act symbolically unfold the true nature of the pathological interactions. The third act, "The Exorcism", begins while Martha is talking to herself. She confesses her defeat to herself. She is reviewing with herself the cause of her failure. She acknowledges: "Martha, I've misjudged you. And I've misjudged you, too, George." (Albee, 1963, p.185) She also symbolically points to the game they played, the game without end:

I cry all the time. And George cries all the time, too. We both cry all the time, and then, what we do, we cry, and we take our tears, and we put 'em in the ice box, in the goddamn ice trays (Begins to laugh) until they're all frozen (Laughs even more) and then ... we put them ... in our drinks. (Albee, 1963, pp.185-6)

They cry and make the tears frozen and then they drink the tears and this cycle continues very much like the cycle of their pathological interactions which never ends. Nick also acknowledges that Honey "is lying down on the floor again, the tiles, all cured up, and she starts peeling the label off the liquor bottle, the brandy bottle" (Albee, 1963, p.187). It is as if everything is coming up to the surface, is peeled off and revealed truly as it is. Nick calls Martha and George crazy; Martha unfolds the cause of their madness and asserts that "'tis the refuge we take when the unreality of the world weighs too heavy on our tiny heads. Relax; sink into it; you're no better than anybody else" (Albee, 1963, p.188).

Martha calls Nick a flop as she calls George. Then she, surprisingly, appreciates her husband, "the only one man in my life who has ever ... made me happy" (Albee, 1963, p. 189). She believes that it is George "who keeps learning the games we play as quickly as I can change the rules; who can make me happy and I do not wish to be happy, and yes I do wish to be happy. George and Martha, sad, sad, sad." (Albee, 1963, p. 191) Martha accuses Nick of being seduced by appearances for one of the people who has deceived Nick is herself. Martha's paradoxical attitude towards George makes Nick very much puzzled. Nick unbelievably echoes: "sad". Martha suddenly changes her attitude towards George whom she will not surprisingly forgive for having seen her, and as she says for "having said: yes; this will do; who has made the hideous, the insulting mistake of loving me and must be punished for it" and then she repeats herself: "George and Martha: sad, sad, sad." (Albee, 1963, p.191)

Nick again finds himself helplessly entrapped in a game this time manipulated by Martha. Nick is totally befuddled by paradoxical deeds and sayings of Martha. After her ambivalent attitude towards George, she starts taking paradoxically: "who tolerates, which is intolerable; who is kind, which is cruel; who is understands, which is beyond comprehension" (Albee, 1963, p. 191). She again accuses Nick of not seeing the realities. Nick is a scientist but cannot see the realities happening around him, she believes: "you see everything but the goddamn mind; you see all the little specs and crap, but you don't see what goes on, do you?" (Albee, 1963, p. 192). However, it is not just Nick's problem it is the problem of all the characters; Zinman asserts that "over and over George and Martha accuses each other of being unable to distinguish the facts from the fantasies of their lives, the most crucial of which is an imaginary child who has lives at the center of their marriage" (2008, p.41).

As George says, Nick is trapped in truth and illusion game. He cannot distinguish between truth and illusion. Consequently, he also entrapped in collusion. This is the problem of all the people of the play, however George is wiser and it is he who sets the rules of the power game and it is he who controls and manages the interactions, so he is the winner of the pathological game; he is the character who knows what other people think what he thinks. Nick, on the other hand, who does not want to get involved is so much entrapped that he has no other choice than being a mad or a bad character. He is the puppet not only in the hands of George but also in the hands of Martha. In "The Exorcism", when George and Martha play the last game of "bringing up baby", Nick much more understands the nature of the pathological game between Martha and George.

Despite Martha's persistent refusals, George brings up his last game called "bringing up baby". Like Nick who has two ways of getting out of the game, Martha has two ways as well, to become a mad or a bad character. And this is really what George wishes to accomplish his deceitful game; to make Martha mad or to defeat her as a bad or a weaker character. "Martha may have downed George with boxing-gloves, but he outpoints her with words" (Cohn, 2006, p. 91). The last game is like boxing for George:

George: pull yourself together! (Again) I want you on your feet and slugging, sweetheart, because I'm going to knock you around, and I want you up for it. (Again he pulls away, releases her; she rises)

Martha: All right, George, what do you want, George?

George: An equal battle, baby; that's all.

Martha: You'll get it!

Martha, the victim of these pathological interactions, approves her madness:

George: I want you mad.

Martha: I'm mad!

George: Get madder!

Martha: DON'T WORRY ABOUT IT! (Albee, 1963, pp. 208-9)

George tackles the last game and asks everyone to take part in the last so-called "civilized game". He symbolically points to peeling the labels since this game is a game of "bringing up baby" embedded in a game of "The Exorcism". Actually all the characters try to lose the ties, though the more they try, the more the noose tightens. George the manipulator of the game symbolically refers to disclosing the secrets and rules of the games they played: "when you get through skin, all three layers, through the muscles, slosh aside the organs and get down to bone", "you haven't got all the way, yet. There's something inside the bone ... the marrow ... and that's what you gotta get at" (Albee, 1963, p. 213).

George and Martha are cooperating with each other to run the last game. Again Nick is the toy in their hands; again he takes side with Martha who is reluctant to perform the last game. George reminds Nick that he is not in a position to set the rules and again reminds all the people that it is he who runs the power game forward. He asks Martha to prepare the guests for the last game by reciting about her son. After her recitation they start quarreling with each other; they call themselves liars and they accuses each other of not paying enough attention to the son. George eventually reveals that their son is dead; he finally shoots the last bullet. The plot of his first novel incarnated in his last game and in the story of his son's death. The son, very much like the son of his novel, swerved to avoid a porcupine, and drove straight into a large tree. Martha cannot believe that George decides to run the game this way: "NO! NO! YOU CANNOT DO THAT! YOU CAN'T DECIDE THAT FOR YOURSELF! I WILL NOT LET YOU DO THAT!", "I WILL NOT LET YOU DECIDE THESE THINGS" (Albee, 1963, p.232).

Nick is still involved in the pathological interaction between this couple. He tries to mitigate Martha: "He hasn't decided anything, lady. It's not his doing. He doesn't have the power" (Albee, 1963, p. 233). But Martha cannot believe that she has defeated by George, the thing Nick has not understood completely, yet. "YOU CAN'T KILL HIM! YOU CAN'T HAVE HIM DIE!" Martha told (Albee, 1963, p.233). Martha asks George to show her the death telegram, but George, exploding with laughter, acknowledges that he ate it. George also involves Honey in the game and asks her to testify that he ate the telegram and she does.

It is at the end of the play that both Nick and Martha understand the true nature of the relationship between George and Martha. The following conversation between George and Martha is worth mentioning since this conversation causes Honey and Nick understand the true nature of love-hate relationship, the power game, the pathological interaction between these two characters:

George (With disgust): YOU KNOW THE RULES, MARTHA! FOR CHRIST'S SAKE, YOU KNOW THE RULES!

Martha: No!

Nick (With the beginning of a knowledge he cannot face): What are you two talking about?

George: I can kill him, Martha, if I want to.

Martha: HE IS OUR CHILD.

...

Martha: AND I HAVE KILLED HIM!

Martha: NO!

George: YES!

Nick (Very quietly): I think I understand this.

George: Good for you, buster.

Nick (Violently): GESUS CHRIST I THINK I UNDERSTAND THIS!

Martha (Great sadness and loss): You have no right . . . you have no right at all.

George (Tenderly): I have the right, Martha. We never spoke of it; that's all. I could kill him any time I wanted to.

Martha: But why? Why?

George: You broke our rule, baby. You mentioned him ... you mentioned him to someone else. (Albee, 1963, p.236)

III. CONCLUSION

It is not love, it is not hatred; it is a love-hate relationship. It is a game they run and at the same time do not like to run. It is a power game that although they try to stop, it goes on and on and it also gets more complicated and the more the characters try to set themselves free, the more the noose tightens. It is a pathological interaction, the third party, Honey and especially Nick are entangled in. This is the time of revelation for Nick and Honey; the time they understand that they shouldn't have taken side with any of them since they have also been entangled, although it had nothing to do with them.

Getting out of the pathological game of Martha and George, Honey decides to have a child, a baby; Nick several times cries out that he understands this. They get out of the game, they leave George and Martha but the game continues for Martha and George and nothing from within can stop the game. Martha, who wrongly thought that she was the winner and manipulator of the game, is found herself deceived by George in their chess-like game. When George recites "Who's afraid of Virginia Woolf?" Martha cries out: "I ... am ... George ... I ... am" (Albee, 1963, p.242). "Martha admits that she is afraid of Virginia Woolf—a woman afflicted with a madness that drove her to suicide"

(Cohn, 2006, p. 94), very much like Virginia Woolf, Martha is afflicted with George's deceptions driving her to madness. The play ends with Martha's uncertainty about everything even about her feelings:

George: Are you all right?

Martha: Yes. No. (Albee, 1963, p.24)

The only remedy for stopping the game and the pathological quarrel between them is the death of one of the partners, George or Martha, otherwise even by the death of their son, and the absence of the third party, Nick and Honey, the game of power, the love-hate interaction pathologically continues. The paradoxical interaction, the love-hate relationship between Martha and George, and also the spiral perspectives are the cause of their pathological interaction from which there is no vent out for the characters. They are interacting as devils when put in each other's company and each of them thinks that he is able to read the mind of the other party and this causes a "vortex" or system of interlocking spiral perspectives in this play which leads to a pathological interaction, a game without end.

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Samira Sasani (PhD., English Literature, Shiraz University) presently works as a full-time faculty member at the Department of Foreign Languages, as an assistant professor of English literature at Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran. She has received her B. A. in English Literature from Shiraz University in 2006, her M. A. in English Literature from Shiraz University in 2008, and her Ph. D. in English Literature from Shiraz University in 2012.

Cultivating Intercultural Communication Competence through Culture Teaching

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Abstract—Applied linguists and language teachers have been increasingly aware that a second or foreign language can hardly be acquired or learned without addressing the culture of the community in which it is spoken. A second language learner's understanding of a second culture is fundamentally affected by his or her culturally-defined world of view, beliefs, and presuppositions. The beliefs and presuppositions have important pedagogical implications and need to be considered in second or foreign language teaching and learning. In cross-cultural communication, linguistic knowledge alone is not enough in guaranteeing successful interaction with native speakers. Cultural mistakes are worse than linguistic ones because they tend to create misjudgment, or ill feeling between native and foreign speakers. EFL teachers should stress the cultivating of learners' cross-cultural awareness while they pass on linguistic knowledge. The study of communicative competence has received more and more attention in the field of English learning and teaching, and a great deal has been discovered about the culture teaching and communicative competence. I take these findings as a starting point and develop the discussion in the context of English teaching and learning in China. Accordingly, my discussion in the thesis aims to bring together some of the varied facets of the whole picture for the reader and present a brief analysis of how to cultivate learners' communicative competence through cultural teaching.

Index Terms—language, culture, culture teaching, intercultural communication competence

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, almost all the countries in the world have a close relationship with each other. With the development of economic globalization, English is becoming more and more important and is now the world's most widespread language existing and functioning as a world language. It functions as an international communication tool. Nowadays, almost all the countries in the world have a close relationship with each other. With the development of economic globalization, English is becoming more and more important and is now the world's most widespread language existing and functioning as a world language. It functions as an international communication tool. Therefore, it does not work well if we are just acquainted with its grammar and vocabulary. It is essential to know the cultural background because it is well known that language and culture are inseparable from each other. When we study English, we will not only develop language skills, that is, the competence in listening, speaking, reading and writing, but try to understand the significance of behaviors, values and other cultural background of the English-speaking countries as well. Because any language is part of a certain culture, the acquisition of a foreign language is also the acquisition of a foreign culture. (Jiang, 2003)

The aim of this thesis is to make a study of cultural teaching of the college students in order to find out whether it is feasible to cultivate college learners' intercultural communication competence through cultural teaching and offer some suggestions for incorporating culture into language teaching.

II. THEORETICAL FOUNDATION OF THIS THESIS

A. Language, Culture, and Communication

The cultivation of ICC competence is based on the inseparable relationship among language, culture and communication. To give theoretical support to the thesis, this chapter will undertake the exploration of the nature and relationship of language, culture and communication. Additionally, the definition of intercultural communication competence is introduced.

1. Language and Culture

Both language and culture are so elusive and complex that defining them is not an easy job at all. With about 500 definitions of language, it seems that there are as many definitions as there are scholars. Thus a unanimous definition of language and culture is simply out of the question and also unnecessary. Instead of attempting to add to a list of definitions of the both, this section draws upon the definition proposed so far and describes the general nature of each. It is hoped that this general description of language and culture will serve as the conceptual basis on which this thesis will operate throughout.

a. Defining Language

Language is considered to be a system of communicating with other people using sounds, symbols and words in

expressing a meaning, idea or thought. Language can be used in many forms, primarily through oral and written communications as well as using expressions through body language. Modern linguists have proposed various definitions of language, some of which are quoted below:

“Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotion and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols.”(Sapir, 1921, p.221)

Language is” the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols.”(Hall, 1968, p.158)

“From now on I will consider language to be a set (finite or infinite)of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements.”(Chomsky, 1957, p.26)

Each of these definitions has its own special emphasis, and is not totally free from limitations. However, there are some important characteristics of human language that linguists have agreed on; these are embraced in the following generally accepted definition:

Language is a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols used for human communication. Short as it is, this definition has captured the main features of language.

First of all, language is a system, i.e., elements of language are combined according to rules

Secondly, language is arbitrary in the sense that there is no intrinsic connection between a linguistic symbol and what the symbol stands for. The fact that different languages have different words for the same object is a good illustration of the arbitrary nature of language. This also explains the symbolic nature of language: words are just symbols; they are associated with objects, actions and ideas by convention.

Thirdly, language is vocal because the primary medium for all language is sound. All evidence points to the fact that writing systems came into being much later than the spoken forms and that they are only attempts to capture sounds and meaning on paper.

Finally, the term “human” in the definition is meant to specify that language is human-specific, i.e., it is distinguished from means of communicating which other forms of life may possess.

b. Defining Culture

It is known that culture is ubiquitous, multidimensional, and complex. The term culture has been defined by many researchers and scholars from their own points of view. E.B.Tylor (1920, p.9), a nineteenth-century anthropologist, first defined culture as” that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits by man as a member of a society”. In 1925, A.L.Kroeber and Kluckhohn listed 164 definitions of culture that they found in the anthropology literature (Samovar & Porter, 1994, p.47).Since then, more different definitions have appeared.

Since our goal is to understand the interaction between people from different cultural backgrounds, we will adopt the anthropological view of culture in our study of ICC competence. A simple definition offered by Ferraro (1995) well serves our purpose. He defines culture as” everything that people have, think, and do as members of a society.” We take this as a working definition because it is both instructive and inclusive; it covers all of the three components of culture: material objects, belief systems, and behavior patterns. According to Ferraro, everything that people think refers to what people have in their mind; what people have refers to their material possessions; and what people do refers to their behavioral patterns.

c. The relationship Between Language and Culture

The relationship between culture and language has been studied by many scholars (such as Byram, Brown and Malinowski) and different opinions about it have been put forward. In spite of different perspectives on the relationship between culture and language, it has been widely accepted that language and culture are inextricably linked to one another.

On the one hand, Language is an integral part of a culture and plays a very important role in it. Language influences culture by affecting perception and thought patterns and by helping to categorize cultural information and people’s ideas.

On the other hand, language is influenced and shaped by culture; it reflects culture.

Language structure, communication patterns, rhetoric rules, etc. are influenced or ever restricted to a large degree by its superstructure—culture.

The relationship between culture and language can be clearly revealed in the powerful argument made by Malinowski (1944, p.305) that an understanding of a language is impossible without constantly relating it to the culture in which it is operative. The intimate link of language and culture implies that learning a foreign language is inseparable from learning its culture. Byram (1989, p.22) stated, “as learners learn about language they learn about culture and as they learn to use a new language, they learn to use a new culture”. Therefore, it is of great necessity to teach language and culture simultaneously in foreign language teaching. If we teach language without teaching, at the same time, that culture in which the language operates, we are teaching meaningless symbols or symbols to which the students attaches the wrong meaning.

To sum up, language and culture are inseparably interwoven.

2. Culture and Communication

Culture and communication, two different concepts, are directly linked to each other. They are so inextricably bound

that some anthropologists believe these two terms are virtually synonymous. Smith (1996) noted “Whenever people interact they communicate. To live in societies and to maintain their culture, they have to communicate.” And just as Hall reminds us, “culture is communication and communication is culture.” Culture is learned, transmitted and preserved through communication. Communication and culture are inseparable.

Since culture is defined succinctly as “the totality of beliefs and practices of a society,” nothing is of greater strategic importance than the language through which its beliefs are expressed and transmitted and by which most interaction of its members takes place.

Before we turn to elements of culture, it is important to understand the overall reasons why culture influences communication.

First of all, each culture encourages a particular communication style expected within each culture. A specific culture expects an “ideal” communication style. The contrasts are striking. For instance, an American speaking in a “normal” conversational voice seems loud to a “quiet” Thai national, who interprets the American to be angry. This case illustrates the ideal cultural communication styles in conflict, a conflict rooted in each culture’s communication expectations.

In addition, culture has the power to shape perception. However you describe it, culture shapes perception by exercising the human tendency to categorize others. These stereotypes engendered are not always accurate but they persist as powerful images, feelings, and beliefs our culture impresses.

In sum, culture is something like glue that bonds people together. There are some tendencies that typify some group members and areas where individual differences persist.

B. ICC Competence and Its Components

Studies on intercultural communicative competence were driven by practical needs such as sending personnel abroad to perform political and commercial tasks in the early 1960s. The notion of intercultural communicative competence has been proposed as one of the main goals of English teaching since the late 1970s. With increasing intercultural communication, intercultural communicative competence has been studied by sociologists, psychologists, sociolinguists, etc. and a considerable amount of literature was produced. To enhance intercultural communicative competence, it is necessary to know what intercultural communicative competence means and what its components are.

1. Defining ICC Competence

Intercultural communicative competence has been defined by many researchers in a variety of ways. It has been investigated under different labels, such as cross-cultural adjustment, intercultural understanding, intercultural effectiveness, cross-cultural awareness (Guthrie & Zektick, 1967; Harris, 1975; Ruben & Kealy, 1979; Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984). In the past two decades, there has been a growing consensus on the conceptualization of ICC competence. Many scholars agree that appropriateness and effectiveness are key words to define ICC competence. Spitzberg (2000, p.259) defines ICC as “an impression that a behavior is appropriate and effective in a given context”.

According to Chen and Starosta (1998), intercultural communication competence is defined as “the ability to effectively and appropriately execute communication behaviors to elicit a desired response in a specific environment”. Similarly, Rogers and Steinfatt define ICC as the degree to which an individual is able to exchange information effectively and appropriately with individuals who are culturally unlike others. Therefore, with these dual standards, communicator will be competent in an intercultural context when the desired objectives are fulfilled in a manner that is appropriate to the context and relationship.

In general, researchers have studied the concept of ICC from three approaches: cross-cultural attitude approach, behavior-skill approach and developmental approach.

III. DEVELOPING INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE THROUGH CULTURE TEACHING

From the previous parts, it can be seen that language and culture are inseparable. Therefore, language teaching is, in a sense, can not go without cultural teaching.

A. The Aims of Culture Teaching

Based on the theories of the above chapters, we suggest the following culture aims established by Tomolin and Steemplesik (1993, p.8) with Chinese context of foreign language teaching in view:

1. To help students to develop an understanding of the fact that all people exhibit culturally-conditioned behaviors.
2. To help students to become more aware of conventional behavior in common situations in the target culture.
3. To help students to increase their awareness of the cultural connotations of the words and phrases in the target culture.
4. To help students to develop an understanding that social variables such as age, sex, social class, and place of residence influence the way in which people speak and behave.
5. To help students to develop the ability to evaluate and refine generalizations about the target culture, in terms of supporting evidence.
6. To stimulate students’ intellectual curiosity about target culture, and to encourage empathy toward its people.
7. To help students to develop the necessary skills to locate and organize information about the target culture

B. *The Principles of Culture Teaching*

Teachers should follow the following cultural teaching principles for the development of students' intercultural communication competence in the teaching activities:

1) Use target language as the primary vehicle to teach culture

We have discussed in the previous chapters that language is inseparable from culture and language is the most important symbolic representation of a culture. Therefore, of all the elements of the target culture, the target language is the most typical, the most unique and the most readily available. Its authentic use in the classroom from the beginning of instruction is the primary cultural objective. Teachers can create a classroom cultural environment for the learners by using the target language.

2) Prevent the negative effects of native culture on target culture teaching

Cultural teaching is affected not only by native language but also by the native culture. The learners will always attach the contents and meanings of the native culture on the target culture unconsciously because of the vast differences between the native culture and target culture. This will severely affect the accuracy of the understanding and expressing. This kind of phenomenon is called negative effects of native culture on communication. Therefore, we must prevent this kind of negative effects. The effective measures we can take are as follows: firstly, related cultural knowledge is necessary to be taught; secondly, the explanation of the related cultural knowledge should be fulfilled through the comparison and contrast between the native culture and target culture especially when we teach a new word with special cultural background. Besides the definition of the word, cultural background must be explained clearly in order to avoid misuse of the word.

3) Suitable level of difficulty

The teachers should always keep in mind what level their students are at. It is important to know about the students. If the material is too easy, the learners will not have the desire to go on with the learning and otherwise if the content is of extreme difficulty, the learners will lose their confidence and interest in learning. Suitable level of difficulty is of great importance in the cultural teaching.

4) Limited cultural coverage

As we have showed in the above chapter that a culture is a unity of history, beliefs, values, cultural activities and so on, so a culture is enormous. It is neither realistic nor necessary for us to teach and learn all the aspects of a culture. Therefore, we can not cover everything of the culture. What we should focus on are the elements which would influence our cultural teaching and the most important is that we should cultivate the communicative competence through cultural teaching.

5) Employ cultural comparison method

Culture plays an instrumental role in shaping speakers' communicative competence, which is related to the appropriate use of language (e.g. how native speakers make an apology and what kind of form the apology is to take). Generally, appropriateness is determined by each speech community. In other words, it is defined by the shared social and cultural conventions of a particular group of speakers.

Therefore, it is essential to recognize different sets of culturally determined rules in communication. Teachers can present situation in which there is cultural misunderstanding that causes people to become offended, angry, and confused. Then, thought-provoking information and questions can follow each description or anecdote for in-class discussion. Learners can be asked to analyze and determine what went wrong and why, which will force learners to think about how people in the target culture act and perceive things, and which will inevitably provide a deeper insight into that culture. (Kang, 1997)

This kind of exercise can strike a healthy balance between the necessity of teaching the target culture and validating the learners' native culture, which will gradually sharpen learners' culture awareness, thus improving people's intercultural communication competence.

1. *The Strategies of Culture Teaching*

The main purpose of cultural teaching which aims at enhancing the learners' communicative competence is to produce certain language forms in an acceptable way.

The learners are generally prompted to use these forms by the teacher's instructions (as in a drill). Alternatively, the teacher may have not designed the activity so as to provide an opportunity for learners to produce language that they have recently learnt (e.g. through open or cued dialogues). The teacher's overall purpose is to prepare the students with the necessary linguistic forms and the necessary links between forms and meanings. Based on this theory, the strategies of cultural teaching should be as follows:

1) Arouse learners' interest in cultural teaching

It goes without saying that interest is the best teacher. But we have to admit that because of the constraints of CET-4 on the English teaching, the Chinese college students attach excessive importance on the study of linguistic competence but often ignore the importance of cultural teaching. Few of them have a strong interest in cultural teaching and learning. Therefore, the first step to conduct cultural teaching is to arouse their interest and widen their insight into this language and its culture.

2) Set cultural context for vocabulary

There are abundant culture-loaded words in English. Chinese learners often understand these words according to the

native culture. The result is that they are often confused about these words, make mistakes using them or even confronted with culture shock. For example, many Chinese learners understand “adult books” as the books for adults. In fact, if we reveal the cultural connotation of the word, we know that it is the euphemism for pornographic books. Learning new words with the help of cultural knowledge is the solution for creating cultural context for vocabulary. In our English teaching and learning we find that lack of cultural knowledge is a key barrier to the understanding of an article. Therefore, teaching and learning pronunciation, words and grammar merely is not sufficient in our study task. We have to cultivate learners’ cultural awareness to help them study and understand the language of another culture.

3) Create a cultural context for teaching activities

Chinese learners tend to have an over-reliance on the native language, which is not beneficial for the teaching activities to be carried out. The classroom atmosphere is a vital element influencing learners’ activities. It is necessary to create a suitable atmosphere that would allow learners to express themselves freely and make them feel eager to communicate in the foreign language. Interactive activities should be based on authentic or naturalistic source material.

4) Select and arrange the teaching content properly

Researchers have put forward such principles for the selection and arrangement of teaching content.

a. Need-based foreign language teaching

The aim of needs analysis is to determine the type of situation in which learners will be using English, the English tasks and activities they are expected to carry out or take part in, and their existing language abilities with respect to those tasks. In order to define the need of a group of learners, the situations in which they will need the foreign language must first be specified. For example, the specification of a situation concerning the register means stating the settings, the roles a language user has to play, and the topics to be dealt with. Communicative activities and topics can be selected in which all learners should take part to organize foreign language teaching.

b. The notion of authenticity

One way to enable learners to be competent in communication is to experience the target language in real situations. But how do teachers set about devising procedures which will bring about? Since our aim is to enable them to produce and process actual language use, then, the answer is that learners should be exposed to authentic language material. According to Widdowson (1999), the authenticity has to do with appropriateness, which is the interpretation by reference to the accepted rules, linguistically and socially, which are associated with a particular register. As a result, learners will become actively involved as participants in authentic language use. Teachers take the responsibilities to prepare teaching material to the point where the learners are capable of responding to the genuine discourse they have selected in authentic fashion. Learners should be guided to an awareness of the communicative rules operating in the kind of register they will be concerned with. When teaching “invitation”, for example, the teacher not only deals with inviting, but also accepting and declining an invitation. What is provided is a set of semantic options for the network of invitation. Once this is provided, practical selections from real life can be implemented: Learner A can invite (selecting from the various exponents provided), and Learner B can select whether to accept or decline (again choosing from various exponents, and at the same time his exponent is situationally appropriate to the exponent of invitation he or she hears). It will be the material producer’s task to provide techniques by which this process of selection can be meaningful. For example, it can be related to a created context by providing realia, such as a diary in which the learner fills in appointments. The learner then accepts invitation at times when he or she is free and declines when he or she is not.

2. *The Contents of Culture Teaching*

Based on the above principles and strategies, cultural teaching in English classes shall accommodate the following contents:

1) Cultural connotation of words

Words are the most basic elements of a language and vocabulary is a mirror of language. Therefore, cultural teaching should first of all focus on the teaching and learning of the cultural connotation of words like the demonstrative category, affective meaning and associative meaning of words, and the application of the usage for them which embody cultural backgrounds. For example, “breakfast” seems to be a simple word, but in fact the breakfast for the Chinese people is quite different from the breakfast for the Western people. A contrast between the Chinese breakfast and Western breakfast is, therefore, needed to create a cultural environment for the learners.

2) Expressions and idioms with distinct target culture features

There are abundant expressions and idioms with distinct target culture features in a foreign language. Learning these expressions and idioms is a vital task for us. For example, Britain is a country with a lot of islands and some idioms are in a close connection with water. “over head and ears” was created by the sailors, which means “the water inundates the head and ears”. Later this idiom became popular and was used on many other occasions. And a lot of expressions with it are formed such as “over head and ears in debt”, “over head and ears in love”, and so on.

3) Cultural factors affecting verbal and nonverbal communication

Verbal communications and nonverbal communications are greatly affected by cultural factors. The former includes the standard functions of greetings, thanks, apologies, farewells, phone calls, requests, and invitations, choice of topics, euphemisms, social conventions and etiquettes. The latter refers to gestures, body motions, customs, and varying attitudes towards time and space.

4) General knowledge of the English-speaking countries

Even though the college learners have studied English for about eight years, some of them still cannot speak out the full name of the country—Britain. This reveals that learning a language cannot be isolated from the learning of the history of that country. In other words, the teaching and learning of the cultural background information in the classroom teaching is quite important and necessary, which is of great help in cultivating learners' cultural awareness and therefore becomes the basis of improving their communicative competence.

5) Differences in cultural values and thinking patterns

The Chinese people and Western people hold quite different cultural values and therefore they have formed different thinking patterns. This aspect exerts an important influence on the writing task. For example, a Chinese teacher has done a survey in a college. When the students are required to write an article with the title "Turn off the TV for an Hour", most Chinese college students begin the article with such a sentence "With the development of the society, more and more households in China possess a TV set". But the Western people prefer to begin the article directly with such a sentence "I suggest turn off the TV for an hour because of the following reasons". The difference of cultural values and thinking patterns will influence communication severely and therefore is an important cultural teaching content

IV. CONCLUSION

The learning and teaching of a foreign language is a complex process, involving seemingly infinite number of variables. The intricate web of these variables that are put together influences language learning as well as teaching. Rather than yielding to the temptation of making a quick, haphazard choice of a stance, it is necessary to scrutinize many variables and relationships that come to bear on foreign language teaching.

Generally speaking, language teaching is known as one of the most important aspects in applied linguistics, and at present, communicative language teaching (CLT) is widely adopted by the foreign language teachers, especially English teachers, in China. It is well admitted that the purpose of language learning is to use it for communication. Therefore, the fundamental task for language teaching is improving learner's communicative competence.

The original idea of communicative competence is that speakers of a language have to have more than grammatical competence in order to be able to communicate effectively in a language; they also need to know how language is used by members of a speech community to accomplish their purposes. Communicative competence has its own background, that is to say, communication always occurs on a certain occasion. And a qualified communicator should choose a proper language to express himself according to the variation of the occasion, which requires that the learners should get to know and master the communicative strategies, which are useful to improve their communicative competence.

This thesis has conducted a study of the effects of cultural teaching on the development of intercultural communication competence thorough theories and suggests some teaching methods and teaching materials. Through the analysis, we can conclude that cultural teaching is an appropriate and feasible way to develop college students' intercultural communication competence.

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Fuzzy Language Translation in the Scenery Depiction—With Special Reference to Zhang Guroo's Translation of *The Return of the Native*

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Abstract—Language fuzziness is one of the features of human languages and the fiction language is no exception. This paper aims to analyze fuzzy language translation in the scenery depiction of *The Return of the Native* translated by Zhang Guroo. The three-character principle of translation formulated by Liu Zhongde functions as the yardstick to evaluate the translation referred to in this paper. The translation of personification and the proper use of addition are the two aspects expounded in this research.

Index Terms—fuzzy language, scenery depiction, the translation of personification, the proper use of addition

I. INTRODUCTION

Language fuzziness is one of the features of human languages. Bertrand Russell holds in his paper “Vagueness” that all language is more or less vague. (Wu, 1999, p.98) Just as Joanna Channell indicates, ordinary language leaves room for people to be vague, to avoid precision and the commitment associated with it. (Channel, 2000, p. x viii) Wang Peizhuang maintains in the preface to *Fuzzy Linguistics* written by Wu Tieping that language fuzziness¹ is the intrinsic property of non-artificial languages². (Wu, 1999, p.1) It is certain that language employed in fiction, one of the most essential and important form of literature, is no exception.

Bearing in mind that fuzziness is the inherent feature of language, this author focuses upon the translation of fuzzy language in scenery depiction in *The Return of the Native* as a research topic. Moreover, the three-character principle of translation formulated by Liu Zhongde, which is viewed as a useful criterion in evaluating the translated materials, will be an examiner in evaluating the translation exemplified in this paper.

II. LIU ZHONGDE'S THREE-CHARACTER PRINCIPLE OF TRANSLATION AND *THE RETURN OF THE NATIVE*

The three-character principle of translation formulated by Liu Zhongde, which is viewed as a useful criterion in evaluating the translated materials, will be the basis of the evaluation of the translation referred to in this paper. In the recent decades, whenever the translation criterion is under discussion, the three characters “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” formulated by Yan Fu are thought of and hailed as the one and only maxim all translators observe. According to Liu Zhongde, the three principles formulated by Yan Fu for translation, especially some of the methods related to them, do not seem to be one hundred percent applicable to the translation works today. Liu, nevertheless, keeps the first two characters of Yan Fu's translation principle. He holds that what he means by being faithful to the content of the original amounts to what Yan Fu means by “the translation conforming to the original in meaning”. (Liu, 1991, p.25) That is to say, the translator ought to convey the author's ideas faithfully and accurately. He has no right to alter the meaning of the original to suit his own taste. Having achieved faithfulness to the content of the original, the translator must aim at making his translation as expressive as the original, for it is intended for the reading public. In other words, the translation should be readable and understandable. It's just as Yan Fu said, “Without expressiveness, mere faithfulness would mean work to no avail.” (Liu, 1991, p.25) Liu substitutes “closeness” for “elegance”, because in his eyes elegance is actually one of various styles. A French naturalist, Buffon (1707-1788) makes the well-known statement that style is the man, meaning that style varies with authors. (Liu, 1991, p.26) Hence, translators should not make all their translations elegant in style. The original style must be exactly reproduced as it is. As a result, Liu employs the word “closeness”, a neutral term which may be applied to all kinds of style. Liu also adds in his work that the Trinity Principle of Faithfulness, Expressiveness and Closeness constitutes an organic entirety. To put it another way, closeness always exhibits itself in the style. In “closeness” lie “faithfulness” and “expressiveness” and vice versa. “Faithfulness” is the prerequisite of “expressiveness” and “closeness”; “expressiveness” the representation of “faithfulness” and “closeness”; and “closeness” the very picture of “faithfulness” and “expressiveness”. The three-in-one principle can never be overemphasized. (Liu, 1991, p.30-31)

¹ This author must proclaim in advance that the two concepts in the paper are treated almost the same.

² According to Webster's Online Dictionary, language that is deliberately created for a specific purpose is artificial language. <http://www.webster-dictionary.org/definition/%20artificial%20language>

The scenery depiction abounds in literary works, particularly in some classic British fiction. This author will discuss the translation of fuzzy language in the scenery depiction in literary works with special reference to Zhang Guroo's translation of *The Return of the Native*.

The Return of the Native is one of the masterly written works of Thomas Hardy. The great British novel in the 19th century combines all of the great themes of Thomas Hardy's works. Wonderful descriptions of the English countryside underscore a rural tale of doomed love, passion, and melancholy. The whole story is dominated by the brooding presence of Egdon Heath and possibly in no other books does Hardy's extraordinary feeling for landscape blend so perfectly with his austere, stoic vision of human fate. That is the reason why Thomas Hardy categorizes *The Return of the Native* as "novels of character and environment". The novel opens with the famous portrait of Egdon Heath, the wild, haunted Wessex moor that D. H. Lawrence calls "the real stuff of tragedy" of the book. The heath's changing face mirrors the fortunes of the farmers, innkeepers, sons, mothers, and lovers that populate the novel. As a matter of fact, the first chapter of the novel is quite particular in style, that is, the depiction of scenery permeates all through every corner of it, no characters appearing. The scenery depiction of Egdon Heath in the first chapter demonstrates to readers the environment in which the story is set and drops readers a hint what is to happen to the main characters in the story. Nie Zhenzhao maintains that the portrait of Egdon Heath, together with the portrait of the Mississippi river by Mark Twain and London by Charles Dickens, is eminent delineation of environment in literature. (Li, 2000, p.11) The study of this chapter enables readers to believe that the art of the delineation of scenery in the literary works is largely the art of fuzzy language. As a result, this chapter will be excerpted in particular to illustrate the fuzzy language translation in the scenery depiction.

III. THE TRANSLATION OF PERSONIFICATION

The most remarkable feature of the portrayal of Egdon Heath is the application of the personification, one kind of rhetoric. As already noted, personification is one form of fuzzy language, for it blurs the boundary between the human race and animated beings. The depiction of scenery in this chapter enables fuzzy language to exert its power and makes it possible for readers to allow full play to their imagination. Hence, readers can reconstruct the scenery of Egdon Heath in their mind. The first sentence of the first paragraph can help readers catch a glimpse:

A Saturday afternoon in November was approaching the time of twilight, and the vast tract of unenclosed wild known as Egdon Heath embrowned itself moment by moment. (Hardy, 1994, p.3)

Like the description of other novels, the first chapter opens with the setting of the story, that is, the time and the place. However, the distinction lies in the fact that the time and the place here are endowed with life and provided with consciousness and actions as well. In this sentence it is the two words "approach" and "embrown" that enliven the lifeless time and place. The time can approach "the time of twilight" and the place is able to make itself brown "moment by moment". In this sense, they possess the capacity of human beings. Regarding the translation of this sentence, another eminent translator has given the following rendering:

十一月一日一个星期六的下午, 黄昏时分, 那一片没有界篱隔断的广阔旷野——人们叫它“埃格登荒原”——也渐渐黯淡下来。(Li, 2000, p.12)

Ostensibly the above translation is perfect, if measured using the yardstick of Liu Zhongde's three-character principle. But the actions which the two words "approaching" and "embrowned" are meant to convey are out of sight. Back to Zhang's translation, however, readers will marvel at the great translator's profound comprehension and excellent rendering.

十一月里的一个星期六的后半天, 越来越靠近暮色昏黄的时候了; 那一片没有垣篱界断的广大旷野, 提起来都管它叫爱敦荒原的, 也一阵比一阵的凄迷苍茫。(Zhang, 1958, p.1)

In Zhang's translation, to retain the action which the first word is intended for, the fuzzy word "approaching" is put into Chinese as "靠近". Seemingly, it is a pity that the other fuzzy word is translated as the Chinese fuzzy expression "凄迷苍茫", which lacks the sense of motion. However, the Chinese phrase properly extends the implication of the English word "embrowned". In addition, taking the original as a whole, not only does Zhang's translation faithfully convey the original idea, but also impresses readers with the charm of symmetry and balance of the sentence.

Another example is in the latter part of the second paragraph:

...it could in like manner retard the dawn, sadden noon, anticipate the frowning of storms scarcely generated, and intensify the opacity of a moonless midnight to a cause of shaking and dread. (Hardy, 1994, p.3)

Undoubtedly, the above sentence using the skill of personification can be regarded as a fuzzy one. It is employed to serve the depiction of Egdon Heath, enabling readers to have a vivid picture in their mind that the "vast tract of unenclosed wild" is terrific and surly. Zhang faithfully renders this sentence as follows:

它能在同样的情形下, 使曙色来的迟缓, 使正午变得凄冷; 狂风暴雨几乎还没踪影, 它就预先显示出风暴的阴沉面目; 三更半夜, 没有月光, 它更加深那种咫尺难辨的昏暗, 以至使人害怕发抖。(Zhang, 1958, p.3-4)

A most typical instance can refer to the first two sentences in the fourth paragraph:

The place became full of a watchful intentness now; for when other things sank brooding to sleep the heath appeared slowly to awake and listen. (Hardy, 1994, p.4)

No wonder that by using the underlined phrases everything including the heath is endowed with the characteristics of

human beings. To retain the personification of the original, Zhang renders with success “became full of a watchful intentness” as “全部都显出专心一志、聚精会神的样子来”, “sank brooding to sleep” as “两眼朦胧,昏昏欲睡”and “slowly to awake and listen” as “慢慢醒来,悄悄静听”.

Another wonderful instance of personification in this chapter can refer to the latter half of the third paragraph.

The spot was, indeed, a near relation of night, and when night showed itself an apparent tendency to gravitate together could be perceived in its shades and the scene. The somber stretch of rounds and hollows seemed to rise and meet the evening gloom, in pure sympathy, the heath exhaling darkness as rapidly as the heavens precipitated it. And so the obscurity in the air and the obscurity in the land closed together in a black fraternization towards which each advanced half-way. (Hardy, 1994, p.4)

这块地方实在和夜是近亲属;只要夜一露面,就显然能看出在夜色的苍冥里和荒原的景物上有一种相互凑合的趋势:那一片郁苍连绵的圆阜和空谷,好像以十二分的同情,起身迎接昏沉的暮色似的;因为荒原一把黑夜吐出,天空也就把黑暗倾下,两种动作都同样迅速。这样一来,大气里的暝味和大地上的暝味,就各走一半路凑到了一起,仿佛同枝连理,结成一气氤氲。(Zhang, 1958, p.4)

In Zhang's version, such renderings as “近亲属”, “相互凑合”, “十二分的同情”, “起身迎接”, “各走一半路凑到了一起”, “同枝连理” give readers an impression that the heath and the night portrayed in the novel possess the characteristics of human beings. They have their own feelings and emotions. Compared with the original, readers will notice that Zhang's translation is not only very close to the original in meaning but also brilliant and precise in the diction of the target language.

As Liu Zhongde noted, “true translation demands that the translator be faithful to the content, language and style of the original at the same time. By faithfulness to the content and style of the original, the translator must be true to its whole text, not to paraphrase individual phrases or sentences. Only by thus doing, can he come up to the standard of translation which conveys not only the meaning but also the spirit of the original work.” Evidently, to achieve the aim of faithfulness, translators should contrive to retain the images in the target language. Zhang has just set an excellent example in translating the third sentence in the fourth paragraph:

Every night its Titanic form seemed to await something; but it had waited thus, unmoved, during so many centuries, through the crises of so many things, that it could only be imagined to await one last crisis—the final overthrow. (Hardy, 1994, p.4)

它那泰坦一般的形体,每天夜里老仿佛在那儿等候一样东西似的。不过它那样一动不动地等候,过了那么些世纪了,经历了那么些事情的危机了,而它仍旧在那儿等候,所以我们只能设想,它是等候最末一次的危机,等候天翻地覆的末日。(Zhang, 1958, p.4)

In the above sentence, “Titanic” is used as an adjective, meaning “of great force or power”. It stems from the word “Titan”. The following is the definition of “Titan” from *Webster's Online Dictionary*:

(Greek mythology) any of the primordial giant gods who ruled the Earth until overthrown by Zeus; the Titans were offspring of Uranus (Heaven) and Gaea (Earth).

This word, evidently, is meant not just to be a modifier conceiving the meaning “forceful or powerful”. Its overriding importance rests upon the fact that it is assimilated to Egdon Heath. Therefore, “Titanic” is rendered as “泰坦一般的形体”. In this sense, readers can perceive the fate and future of the heath, which functions as the metaphor of the society at that time. The last two words “the final overthrow” are a very good proof.

Actually, as far as the Heath is concerned, it does not merely serve as the background of the tragic story, but to a great extent it has become an embodiment of the powerful and eternal force of the nature, which is antagonistic to all human attempts to intrude upon it. It is generally recognized that the Heath is as strong a character as any in the novel—probably the strongest. It is the unique force that touches and molds all the lives dwelling upon it. Zhang's translation has justified his accurate comprehension. The above renderings convince readers to applaud the common belief that every living thing under Hardy's pen is endowed with flesh and blood.

IV. PROPER USE OF ADDITION

As for the various concrete fuzzy language techniques in Zhang Guroo's translation of *The Return of the Native*, there are, of course, too many to enumerate and exhaust. Here, this author is going to introduce the most typical one—proper addition.

In many cases, it is neither possible nor necessary to translate word for word. Owing to the rich connotation of fuzzy expressions, in the process of translation, translators will, more often than not, have to make proper addition of some individual words in accordance with the corresponding laws inherent in the two languages concerned. Proper addition means supplying necessary words in the translation on the basis of an accurate comprehension of the original. According to Liu Zhongde, proper addition aims to retain and better express the original meaning. It is quite different from “random translation”, which is subjectively and irresponsible to the original text. As has already been pointed out, a translation could not add any meaning to or subtract any meaning from the original work. However, this does not mean that a translator should refrain from supplying the necessary words to make his version both accurate in meaning and in keeping with the usage of the language to be translated into. In actual fact, it is just for the purpose of “faithful

reproduction” that “proper addition” as a translation technique is frequently called for. For one thing, Chinese and English are two entirely different languages, with many a characteristic of their own, some being similar with each other, others different in form and content. For another, so far as fuzzy language translation is concerned, its rich connotation and blurred referential boundary make it possible to apply the technique of addition to fuzzy language translation. In Zhang’s translation of the first chapter in *The Return of the Native*, the technique of addition is properly put into use. The second sentence in the first paragraph merits quoting:

Overhead the hollow stretch of whitish cloud shutting out the sky was as a tent which had the whole heath for its floor. (Hardy, 1994, p.3)

抬头看来, 弥漫长空的灰白浮云, 遮断了青天, 好像一座帐篷, 把整个荒原当作了它的地席。(Zhang, 1958, p.3)

Regarding the translation of the word “sky”, apparently it is arbitrary to add a Chinese character “青”. But in fact it will be reasonable to render the word “sky” as “蓝” or “青”, for the “whitish cloud” is floating over the sky. Although the two fuzzy words “青” and “蓝” belong to neighboring color, to substitute “蓝” for “青” will totally change the original meaning. That is because the Chinese term “蓝天” matched with “the whitish cloud” tends to remind readers of a buoyant, lively and picturesque scenery. Bearing in mind that the depiction of the scenery in the first chapter is to unfold a tragic prelude for the reader, the version of “青天” will not whatsoever supply people with such a beautiful view and wonderful imagination. Similarly, “the whitish cloud” is translated as “灰白的浮云”. The Chinese fuzzy word “灰” is added to darken the tone of the depiction, which echoes the translation of “sky”.

In actual fact, a scrutiny of Zhang’s translation will convince readers that Zhang Guroo successfully practices two strategies for translating fuzzy language discussed in the this section, namely, fuzziness to fuzziness and preciseness to fuzziness. Examining the original and the Chinese version comparatively, this author, however, concludes that in most cases fuzziness to fuzziness strategy is frequently adopted. The following instance can make readers appreciate the translator’s profound comprehension and the first-class translating skill:

Twilight combined with the scenery of Egdon Heath to evolve a thing majestic without severity, impressive without showiness, emphatic in its admonitions, grand in its simplicity. (Hardy, 1994, p.4)

苍苍的暮色和爱敦的景物, 共同联合起来造出一种风光, 堂皇而不严峻, 感人而无粉饰, 有深远的警戒性, 有浑厚的纯朴性。(Zhang, 1958, p.4-5)

As far as preciseness to fuzziness strategy is concerned, to put “pure” into Chinese as “十二分” is an excellent demonstration. In the following sentence from the sixth paragraph, the same fuzzy word “changed” is rendered respectively as “改易” “变迁” and “消长”. It can serve as another fantastic instance:

Distilled by the sun, kneaded by the moon, it is renewed in a year, in a day, or in an hour. The sea changed, the fields changed, the rivers, the villages, and the people changed, yet Egdon remained. (Hardy, 1994, p.7)

日光把它改易, 月华把它荡漾, 它的情形一年一样, 一天一样, 一时一刻一样。沧海改易, 桑田变迁, 江河湖泽, 村落人物, 全有消长, 但是爱敦荒原, 却没有变化。(Zhang, 1958, p.8)

V. CONCLUSION

As has been exemplified above, not only does Zhang Guroo’s version faithfully and expressively convey the meaning and the idea of the original, but it is quite close to its style. The Chinese version reads smoothly as if it was from the pen of a Chinese writer. It is universally acknowledged that the application of domestication is bound to harm the faithfulness. However, Zhang’s version of this chapter convincingly proves the truth that both domestication and faithfulness can be gained provided that the translator is a well-cultured master of both the source and target languages.

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Chaos/Complexity Theory in Language Learning: An Ideological Look

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Abstract—Traditionally the process of learning is assumed to be a linear process; there exists a cause-and-effect, logical, and deterministic view of the world's system. In science and scientific realm, we are searching for the cause-and-effect connections while in chaos/complexity theory such a connection is not that much straightforward, as it seems to be unpredictable. Chaos/complexity scientists are interested in how disorder gives way to order in order to find, at least, one mind map for every single phenomenon, and how complexity arises in nature. With the advances in science, especially in meteorology, we have movements towards more uncertainty and unpredictability (Larsen-Freeman, 2002). The authors in the present paper provide some evidence to support that there are many striking similarities between chaos/complexity theory and language learning. In fact, chaos/complexity theory can be used as a metaphor in language learning, but more importantly it can replace the discourses which dominate and inform much of our current practice (Mallows, 2002). As Gleick (1987) holds the theory is a science rather than state, of becoming rather than being. In this paper, we will tend to outline the main ideas behind this theory, and relate them to language learning.

Index Terms—chaos theory, complexity, dynamicity of language, interlanguage

I. INTRODUCTION

Chaos theory and the studies on complexity have been influencing many different research fields, including Applied Linguistics. The emergence of the notion of chaos/complexity is rooted in the Big Bang era when the systematic nature of the universe was founded out of a chaotic act of God. In many religious books, the issue has been touched upon in a neat fashion. In the holy Quran, it is mentioned this way:

اللَّهُ الَّذِي رَفَعَ السَّمَاوَاتِ بِغَيْرِ عَمَدٍ تَرَوْنَهَا ثُمَّ اسْتَوَىٰ عَلَى الْعَرْشِ وَسَخَّرَ الشَّمْسَ
وَالْقَمَرَ كُلَّ يَوْمٍ تَجْرِي لَأَجَلٍ مُّسَمًّى يُدَبِّرُ الْأَمْرَ يُفَصِّلُ الْآيَاتِ لَعَلَّكُمْ بِلِقَاءِ رَبِّكُمْ تُوقِنُونَ (٢)

Ref.: The Noble Quran, Sureh Ar-Ra'd [13], Verse (2)

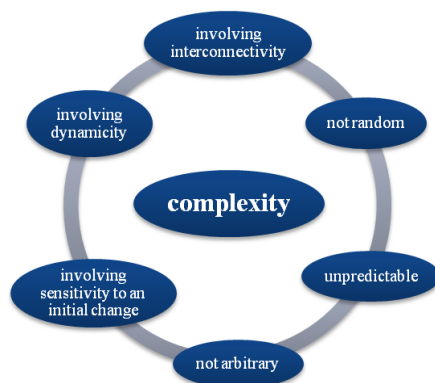
Translation - Allah is He who raised the heavens without any pillars that you see, and He is firm in power and He made the sun and the moon subservient (to you); each one pursues its course to an appointed time; He regulates the affair, making clear the signs that you may be certain of meeting your lord.

If one wants to trace the survived documents, what is taken for granted is that the notion of chaos/complexity is dated back to 1960s, when Edward Lorenz, a meteorologist, noticed that a very small difference could lead to large changes in the weather which make long-distant weather forecasts impossible to predict. The phenomenon which is the cornerstone of chaos theory is known as *sensitivity to initial conditions*. It holds that a small change in the initial conditions may bring about a dramatic change in the long-term behavior of a system (de Bot, 2008 cited in Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Later, the concept has been applied to other areas of study like physics, mathematics, chemistry, and even sports. Regarding the importance of chaos/complexity theory, McAndrew (1997) implies that no one can find any reality without chaos. In effect, the popularity of studying complexity is fast becoming a new fad in the intellectual scene. In different fields of study, there is somehow an interest in the use of computation and other means, in order to study any complex phenomena. Then, what are the promises in such enticing fad about studying complex phenomena?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Chaos/Complexity Theory

The notion of chaos/complexity science, according to some scholars is a paradoxical notion. Larsen-Freeman (1997) believes that the two portions of chaos/complexity and science do not go together as the concept bear a contradictory paradoxical connotation. The term science is meant to convey any orderly systematic and complex body of knowledge within which each embodying element could be traced to its source of occurrence. Hence, chaos/complexity does the other way round. The connections exist within and among elements in a chaotic system are not traceable in a scientific fashion. In simple words, there exists a dynamic connection which cannot be determined or stated straightforwardly. To better appreciate the concept of complexity, let us first, elaborate on the significant features of it: (1) complexity involves interconnectivity; (2) complexity is not necessarily random; (3) complexity is unpredictable; (4) complexity is not arbitrary; (5) complexity involves sensitivity to an initial change; and (6) complexity involves dynamicity.



Larsen-Freeman (2000) sees complexity as “a metaphorical lens through which diverse perspectives can be accommodated, indeed integrated” (p.173). In order to spotlight the true sense over the concept of complexity to its real depth, some related issues should be highlighted here. The term complexity is usually mistaken with complicatedness, whereas the connotations are different or even divergent. Once a system is complex, it is for sure not independent, while complicatedness connotes not being simple.

To better appreciate the concept of interconnectivity in a complex system, let us delve into the issue first. In a complex system, there are numerous independent elements that are continuously interacting with each other, thereby simultaneously organizing themselves into a more multifaceted system (Harshbarger, 2007). According to McAndrew (1997, cited in Alemi & Daftarifard, 2011), something is complex if a great many independent agents are interacting with each other in many ways, the richness of these interactions allowing the system as a whole to undergo spontaneous self-organization. In fact, the agents in the system are all the components of that system. These agents interact and connect with each other in unpredictable and unplanned ways. But from this mass of interactions, regularities emerge and start to form a pattern which feeds back on the system and informs the interactions of the agents. For example, in an ecosystem if a virus starts to deplete one species, this results in a greater or lesser food supply for others in the system which affects their behavior and their numbers. A period of flux occurs in all the populations in the system until a new balance is established.

There is one important point to be taken into consideration, and that is the notion of interacting which implies a very organized and understandable event following a preplanned designed, but the point here is that in a complex, or in a multifaceted system, there is no preplanned interaction. The notion of multifaceted system can be planned and predicted, but the triple effect of changing one connection to other connections’ feedback is hard to estimate; in fact, this feature would make complexity distinguishable from complicatedness.

Secondly, being complex does not necessitate being random, where being random is the property of a variable which possesses a range of probable distribution of occurrences. Sometimes, being random may indicate a process which entails an unpredicted outcome far from the probability distribution. Either case could never ever necessitate equating randomness and complexity. This randomness is unpredictable and irregular in the sense that the time of occurrence is not known to us (Alemi & Daftarifard, 2011). It also seems that a complex system, sometimes considered as a system with implicit principles, is not known to the audience except to its creator, whereas nothing is accidental in nature. The focus in randomness is mostly on the product phase while complexity is highlighting the process phase, both the process of building a phenomenon and the process of its analysis. There is the common ground that the chaos existing in the process layer of complexity might lose its peculiarity through the passage of time. This is mainly because noble entities do follow a chaotic fashion. Chaotic fashion to the extent that the noble entities are new ones and through the elapse of time, their chaotic fashion would be discovered and known to everyone. Along the same line, in the holy Quran, it is stated that:

أَوَلَمْ يَرَوْا إِلَى الْأَرْضِ كَمْ أَنْبَتْنَا فِيهَا مِنْ كُلِّ زَوْجٍ كَرِيمٍ (٧)

Ref. : The Noble Quran , Surch Ash-Shu'ara' [26], Verse (7)

Translation - Do they not see the earth, how many of every noble kind we have caused to grow in it?

The unpredictability issue may have cumulative effect and results in a sudden highly-organized system. This is in no way an indication that complexity is arbitrary, because as the concept of complexity could be well-defined regarding its units, changes of state, interactions, and surroundings, so being arbitrary does not fit the definition of a complex system. It is worth emphasizing that the non-arbitrary nature of a complex system is for sure sensitive to the feedback it receives, while the output of a subsystem is utilized as the input of another subsystem in a chain reaction mode of occurrence. Many scholars in the literature specify a certain form of *emergence of a major overall effect from a slight initial change* as a common characteristic of complexity models in general (Baofu, 2007). The sensitivity to initial conditions, according to Harshbarger (2007), means that small variations inherent in a complex system at a given time can result in large differences in the system's behavior over time. Alemi and Daftarfard (2011) insist "Edward Lorenz's (1993) butterfly metaphor in chaos/complexity indicates the importance of minor changes which lead to great changes at the end" (p. 37).

What deems important here to pinpoint is that the nature of the universe and whatever happens across the globe is indicative of a dynamic interconnected entity. The events happening every now and then are interconnected and ongoing. So there is no at the end position for any event. Any end position is a new initial condition for another event. Ahmadi (2011) in line with the sensitivity to initial conditions in chaos theory argues, "a small and seemingly unimportant initial condition may create a big and unexpected outcome" (p. 296). Along the same line, Gleick (1987) further states "tiny differences in input could quickly become overwhelming differences in output" (p. 8). It could be concluded in this way that, due to the potentiality of the input elements which *will* or *will not* be triggered because of the randomness of their nature, our predictions of the output of a chaotic system may be inexact and uncertain, for it might follow a binary fashion of zero and one mode; that is, at the most probable moment of possibility in a chaotic system, it turns out to give out a reverse output, and that is exactly due to the randomness in the behavior of the chaotic system.

B. Dynamic/Chaotic System and Language

To Larson-Freeman (1997) language is a complex nonlinear system. It is dynamic in nature because it changes overtime, or it may change overtime because it is dynamic in nature. In fact, the term dynamic equates growth and change. Dynamicity involves non-linearity. It is nonlinear because there is no one-to-one correspondence between form and function. Also it is dynamic in the sense that there is no difference between the current use and change/growth of language; they are the same. Messages emerge as the result of speaker and listener's collaborative effort. Alemi and Daftarfard (2011) maintain fractality of language results in the existence of infinite number of behavior within a finite system.

The dynamicity of language is mostly due to the dynamicity of its users. Human beings have been proving, during the long course of history, their brilliant feature of creativity (or smart applications) which makes them distinguishable from other creatures. Since language and its users are, both, dynamic phenomenon in nature, consequently the result is a weird dynamic system but at the same time, chaotic one, namely as language system. In sum, any system in the universe has got a counter system which acts as the complementary portion of the process of the chaotic phenomenon. This notion is prevalent in each and every master system across the globe. In religious books, such notion has been highlighted in a neat fashion that for instance the sun and the moon, or day and night are not competing each other but interacting in a chaotic fashion. In the holy Quran, such systematic maneuverability of chaotic phenomenon is spotlighted this way:

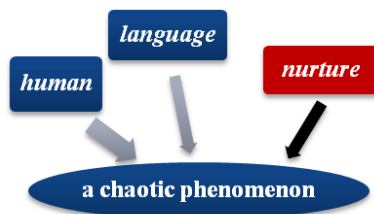
لَا الشَّمْسُ يَنْبَغِي لَهَا أَنْ تُدْرِكَ الْقَمَرَ وَلَا اللَّيْلُ سَابِقُ النَّهَارِ وَكُلٌّ فِي فَلَكٍ يَسْبَحُونَ (٤٠)

Ref. : The Noble Quran , Surch Ya-Sin [36], Verse (40)

Translation - Neither is it allowable to the sun that it should overtake the moon, nor can the night outstrip the day; and all float on in a sphere.

Traditionally, it was considered true that by being exposed to the forms of one language, the linguistic competence was triggered, so it is easy to learn, or even acquire, that language. However, due to the dynamic feature of language and human beings, the social, and strategic competences are introduced. Then there exists a covering notion of *nurture*

which embodies all the above mentioned issues interconnectedly. In a sense, the deficiency or poor performance in one variable is compensated by other adjacent variables.



Feignbaum (1978, cited in Thietart & Forgues, 1995) shows that a system passes from a stable to a periodic and from a periodic to a chaotic situation when the strength of the link between variables changes. In fact, a dynamic system is a system whose time-dependent variables are non-linear.

Another characteristic of dynamic systems, according to Thetart and Paiva (1995), is that it is deemed to be as a dissipative system; that is, such a system dissipates its energy. The chaotic evolution may get organized around structures that we find at different scales, named the *strange attractors*. A new form of order is found out of chaos. The apparent random behavior gets attracted to a given space and remains within its limits. These attractors were first called strange because of their unexpected and strangely regular shape, such as the butterfly wing shaped attractor of Lorenz. Winter (1994, cited in Larsen-Freeman, 1997) argues that all information systems used to be fractal in shape, in order to make them comprehensible and thus shareable. In fact, the attractor creates an implicit order within chaos. Inside the attractor space, the system behavior is highly complex and unstable (Thietart & Forgues, 1995).

C. Nurture in Dynamic/Chaotic System

Schneider and Somers (2006) maintain, “dissipative structures may react disproportionately to an environmental change” (p. 356). A small exogenous event may trigger a change in the fundamental character of a system. The phenomenon of large, disproportionate change is referred to, as mentioned earlier, as the butterfly effect. Accordingly, properties of the system may emerge from its parts, rather than being imposed by the environment (Holland, 1998). The butterfly effect could be deemed compatible to the language learning environment, classroom settings for instance, through which the dynamicity of language learning phenomenon is spotlighted. Here the notion of nurture in language learning realm is highlighted as one of the fundamental elements that can affect the rate of dynamicity, in other words, chaoticity, in every linear or non-linear system. This notion provides the language learning realm with more dimensions in which interconnectivity in learning system is strengthened.

The notion of nurture, in simple terms, context, is known as the turning point for each and every system in order to manifest its rate of dynamicity. This is mainly because, as mentioned above, every system is dynamic in nature, but it is not true in every nurture domain, whereas the appropriate nurture lets a system activate its own features of dynamicity in its own trend of occurrence.

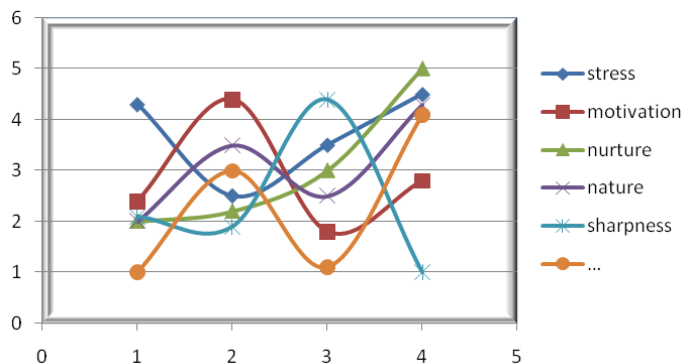
Aside from all the justifications above, dynamic systems are attracted to paths that can be traced in the two axes of time and space. It could be highlighted here that a complex system does not follow a predictable pattern; that is, the reaction and reflection of a chaotic system would vary in various time and space. Along the same line, Larsen-Freeman (1997) insists that a complex nonlinear system does have a strange attractor in the sense that there dominates cycle which repeats itself, but at the same time, there are no identical cycles which follow the same path of development. The point to be emphasized here is that along the course of the development, a chaotic system may shows a distinguished pace of modification, which is in turn identical and unique.

D. Chaos/Complexity Theory and Language Learning

Chaos/complexity theory offers a lens for anti-reductionist thinking that language itself is an aggregation of static units or products which are combined in speech in a dynamic process (Mallows, 2002). Accordingly, Mallows (2002) argues:

The dynamic patterns of complex systems display feedback loops. There's nothing driving that system since the dynamics come from within the system itself, and the system uses feedback to move on, to evolve and to develop. These complex systems are adaptive; they take in external influences, and change their internal structure to take advantage of the new circumstances. (p. 5)

The existence of such feedback loops provides the opportunity of having a dynamic system. In language learning realm, such loops could not have been designed due to the high rate of changing factors of either affecting or affected ones.



It is worth mentioning that all facets in every segment are interconnected with each other; in fact, any degree of change in one, due to any cause, would alter the proper manifestation of the output. No matter how these facets are connected to each other, or how much the degree of the changes are, the result, as the consequences of the butterfly effect mentioned above, is hard to estimate, or predict to some extent.

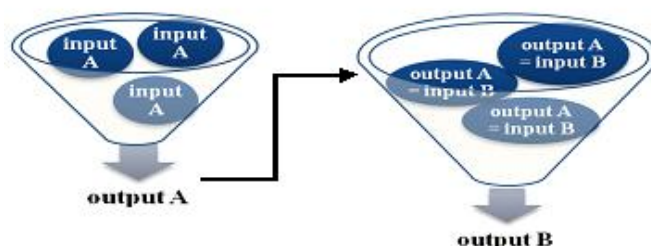
Larsen-Freeman (1997) also insists that these feedback loops accepted as agents of biological evolution can be applied to learning. Whereas, in biology, the feedback is provided by natural selection, and the improvement of the models is called evolution, in cognition the feedback comes from teachers and direct experience, and the improvement called learning.

As pointed by van Lier (1996), “we can neither claim that learning is caused by environmental stimuli (the behaviorist position) nor that it is genetically determined (the innatist position) (p. 170). It is worth regarding the classroom as a complex adaptive system in which “it is fruitless to search for causal relations” (van Lier, 1996, p. 38). In fact, "learning is the result of complex (and contingent) interactions between individual and environment." (van Lier, 1996, p. 170). It goes without saying that there seems to be much in common between language and complex non-linear systems. Languages go through periods of chaos-and-order, as do other living systems (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). Moreover, language growth occurs at the border between these two — chaos and order — which has been termed the edge of chaos by Waldrop (1994). As Larsen-Freeman (1997) puts it, languages undergo non-linear changes diachronically. New forms, for instance, enter and leave the language in a no-additive and non-predictable way (Hadidi-Tamjid, 2007). Indeed, different speakers may use different forms to mean the same thing. The best thing we can do is to explain a change after its occurrence, without making exact predictions of what that change will occur next.

E. Dynamicity of Language

Finch (2002) argues that language acquisition can be said to be chaotic process if it is non-linear, iterative, and sensitive to initial conditions. The concept of non-linearity implies that the output is disproportionate to its input (Mallows, 2002); there exists no cause-and-effect relation between these two actions. It is hard to say that there is no sign of cause-and-effect between the input and the output, it is better to put it in this way that, there is no fixed and linear cause-and-effect relation between input and output. In other words, as the nature of causing elements is dynamic, the results and also the process of approaching the results will definitely be dynamic.

By iterative, we mean the learning output becomes the input of the next cycle. The concept of sensitivity to initial conditions also proposes that minor changes at a process may result in different and unpredictable outcomes. However the noticeable point here is that, one single input is not triggered at one moment, and then waits for obtaining the output, desired or otherwise. In fact, a wide range of inputs will, simultaneously, be triggered in a fraction of a second, and a wide range of outputs will be sensed consequently. Hence, no one may be able to make the slightest image of such bunch of inputs and outputs in order to make a fixed paradigm for them.



As is true of other dynamic non-linear systems, language satisfies both the criteria of complexity and dynamicity. It is complex since it is composed of various subsystems: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantic, pragmatics, and all of which are interdependent. A change in any one of them can result in change in the others (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). In

other words, the behavior of the whole results from the interactions of the subparts.

Complex nonlinear systems exhibit sensitive dependence on their initial conditions, and language is no exception (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). The initial conditions might be called Universal Grammar which contains a set of principles that apply to all languages and whose function is to constrain the shape of language. These principles have a huge impact on defining the ‘strange attractor’ of human language (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). Hadidi-Tamjid (2008) believes that complexity is a two-folded concept. It is related to the fact that “language is a collection of static units but their use in actual speech involves an active process” (p. 11).

By dynamicity, as mentioned earlier, we mean a nonlinear system in which everything is interconnected. Also the system is dynamic in the sense that it changes by time. In fact, language is not a static object, but a system which is in constant movement and its interacting elements influence and is influenced by each other. As language is in evolution, so is learning. Phonological systems tend to change systematically but unpredictably. Contact with other languages can bring about catastrophic changes in syntax. For example, the loss of case endings on nouns in Old English is thought to be due to contact with Old Norse (Lightfoot, 1999, cited in Mitchener & Nowak, 2004, p. 701). Mitchener and Nowak (2004) argue, “language change is unpredictable and highly sensitive to perturbations”. (p. 703) Many changes, particularly those associated with borrowed vocabulary, are triggered by language contact. Larsen-Freeman (1997) argues, “The changes which language undergo diachronically are nonlinear” (p. 147). She also adds, “New forms enter and leave the language in a non-incremental fashion” (p.147). Changes in languages are isomorphic (Larsen-Freeman, 1997).

Larsen freeman (1997) claims, “every time language is used, it changes” (p. 148). Moreover, that the user’s grammar is changed may lead to change at the global level. The act of using the language meaningfully has a way of changing the grammar system in the user (Diller, 1995, cited in Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 147). Besides, as the user’s grammar is changed; this would set in motion a process which may lead to change at the global level.

In sum, the concept of dynamic as applied to language refers to the fact that language can be described as an aggregation of static units or products, but their use in actual speech involves an active process, usually referred to as parole or performance (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). Gleick (1987) holds that one of the major tenets of complexity theory is that it is a science of process rather than state, of becoming rather than being.

F. Culture: The Milestone of Dynamicity

Regarding the issue of dynamicity of chaotic systems, there are a mass of variables affecting the output of a system. Since language realm is the one which best fits the chaos/complexity theory and is regarded as a dynamic system, there are a number of elements affecting its dynamic nature, namely as the notions of nurture, typology of language, and human beings as the major decisive and pivotal element. Once the dynamic nature of language as a chaotic system is involved in the process of learning a language, the elements affecting the dynamicity is multiplied by the seconds of engagement in the process. As a result, there are multitude of factors, important of which is the issue of culture. Culture is the common ground for the dynamicity of language as the system of system and at the same time, human beings as the most unpredictable creatures of God. The unpredictability of human beings is rooted in the major distinction between human beings and other creatures, i.e. mind.

Culture is the manifestation of the development of mind, and its importance is so high that learning a new language is learning a new culture. Culture is what a group of people think, and how they think; because of that, some scholars believe in the equilibrium of thought and culture because culture is what people think. These issues are in line with one another and in turn would result in a major homogeneous phenomenon. That is to say, the dynamicity of mind would strengthen the dynamicity of culture, whereas the dynamicity of culture would be decisive and in direct proportion to the dynamicity of language as a complex chaotic system. There is one more point in this regard worth knowing. Being dynamic is known as the source of any change, and is an undeniable rule for all creatures all over the world, but what is eye-catching about them is the pace of change, which is just different among them. This is exactly the border line of the notion of creativity in language learning which is human-specific and is manifested through the application of culture. Furthermore, it should be noted here that the notion of culture is a dynamic notion. It might be quite true that through the axis of time, there is not static entity in the world. All entities across the globe are dynamic. In the same lane, the holy Quran has stated that even mountains could not be considered as solid and static. It is mentioned:

وَتَرَى الْجِبَالَ تَحْسَبُهَا جَامِدَةً وَهِيَ تَمُرُّ مَرَّ السَّحَابِ صُنْعَ اللَّهِ الَّذِي أَتَقَّنَ
كُلَّ شَيْءٍ إِنَّهُ خَبِيرٌ بِمَا تَفْعَلُونَ (٨٨)

Ref. : The Noble Quran , Sureh An-Naml [27], Verse (88)

Translation - And you see the mountains, you think them to be solid, and they shall pass away as the passing away of the cloud-the handiwork of Allah who has made everything thoroughly; surely He is aware of what you do.

G. Chaos/Complexity Theory and Interlanguage

Through the process of learning a new language, and out of chaos existing in the whole process, a new language would emerge, namely as the interlanguage, which oscillates between the first and second language as the main attractors present at the scene of consolidation. In the course of the development of the interlanguage, there happens a tune-in game of adjusting the attractors. An attractor is “a region of a system into which the system tends to move” (Larsen & Cameron, 2008, p.50). Once the movement is towards one of the two attractors namely as the first and second language, there is not always attraction at work. Sometimes the repulsion force wins the game and would in turn make a better adjustment, a better adjustment regarding the appropriateness and promptness. The chaotic nature of language paves the way to restructure the interlanguage system in the long process of restoration. Due to marching the self-organizing rhythm of chaotic system, along with the prevalent sensitivity to initial condition, the interlanguage system would manifest the whole matrix into a tuned language, and this is mainly because the interlanguage system is “feedback sensitive” (Hadidi-Tamjid, 2008). The feedback received by the chaotic interlanguage system would be processed both as the initial condition of a strange attractor, and at the same time, as the follow-up feedback of a developing system.

One more point to be brought to great consideration is that, the idea that the strange attractors affect the interlanguage system is quite right. But what count here is that not all strange attractors belong to the target language domain. According to Larsen Freeman (1997), there is a plethora of similarities in the interlanguages of speakers with different L1, but the points of departure lies in the strange attractors of their L1s. This could be in turn a good example of the non-linearity of the interlanguage system.

Mallow (2002) argues, “there are many interacting factors at play which determine the trajectory of the developing interlanguage” (p. 5). Of course, no one of these factors, according to Larsen-Freeman (1997), by itself is a determining factor, the interaction of which, however, has a very profound effect. There is an interaction between the language forms in a learner’s system: when a learner starts to learn a new form, formerly mastered forms will become destabilized (Mallow, 2002).

A learner’s interlanguage is also self-referencing in that it grows organically. While it can to a certain extent be described by rules, it is not produced by them. It is constantly changing and reacting to the feedback it receives; it is an open system, and moves to the strange attractor which gives it both impetus and order. Indeed, the phenomenon of fossilization, probably, occurs as a result of the interlanguage becoming closed, and setting to a fixed-point attractor (Mallow, 2002).

III. CONCLUSION

Like any other revolution, chaos/complexity is a reaction to incapability of isolationist methodology of doing research. In the same vein, as what Larsen Freeman(2002) claims, to better digest the existing chaos/complexity agenda, having a reductionist view or even a mere holistic perspective would not suffice. There should exist an amalgamation of these two perspectives in a fuzzy fashion. The authors in the present paper believe that having a discourse-based rationale on understanding the complexity of language learning will contribute teachers to have a thorough comprehensive understanding which is conducive to the process of learning. As the final remake which is a new reformulation of what was implicitly mentioned in the present article, the authors aimed at the idea that chaos/complexity is the backbone of systems which are not homeostatic in nature, namely as open system (Larsen-Freeman, 2002). Language as an open system is dynamic in its existence and the presence of dynamicity in the whole process of learning and tuning such system would in turn raise the complexity level which would renders language as a more chaotic entity.

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On Establishing the Writer's Credibility in Persuasive Writing

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Abstract—Persuasive writing, also known as creative writing, or an argument, or “an essay that offers and supports an opinion,” is one of the most frequently used writing types in our life and work. It usually begins with “identity” between the writer and the audience and ends in the audience’s changing their mind or bringing their viewpoints closer to the writer’s. Whether a piece of writing is persuasive or not depends on a variety of factors, but the writer’s credibility is a very important factor that cannot be ignored. So this essay will mainly discuss how a writer’s credibility contributes to the persuasiveness of his/her writing and how to establish his/her credibility.

Index Terms—credibility, persuasive writing, emotionally, reasonably, accommodate, establish

I. INTRODUCTION

Persuasive writing, also known as creative writing, or an argument, or “an essay that offers and supports an opinion” (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Persuasive_writing), is one of the most frequently used writing types in our life and work. It seeks to convince the audience to adopt the writer's point of view or to do something through a strong voice, the writer's conviction, or the vivid examples and illustrations employed to support the stated position. So persuasive writing usually follows this pattern: beginning with “identity” between the writer and the audience and ending in the audience’s changing their mind or bringing their viewpoints closer to the writer’s. But more often than not, we find that one piece of writing may be more persuasive than another, even if both follow the same pattern. Then what makes the audience accept one writer’s views rather than those of another?

Undoubtedly, a variety of factors, such as how interesting the topic is, how the writer uses words, and phrases--- appropriately, exactly and idiomatically?, how the writer arranges the sentences, and how credible the writer is, determine whether a piece of writing is persuasive or not. But of the so many factors, the writer’s credibility is a key factor that cannot be ignored. In fact, it can be said without any exaggeration that credibility is the cornerstone of effective persuasion, or in other words, the persuasiveness of a piece of writing depends to a great extent on the writer’s credibility.

Then what is credibility? Why and how should a writer establish his/her credibility? These questions will be answered in the following, with special emphasis on the strategies for establishing a writer’s credibility.

II. CREDIBILITY AND PERSUASIVE WRITING

“Credibility,” which traces back to Aristotle, who coined the term “ethos” to describe qualities of the source that facilitated persuasion, refers to the degree to which the audience considers the writer believable, or simply put, what the audience thinks of the writer. It includes three core dimensions: expertise, which refers to the knowledge or ability ascribed to the writer; trustworthiness, which refers to the writer’s perceived honesty, character, and safety; goodwill, which means that the writer has the audience’s benefit at heart, shows understanding of others’ ideas, and is empathic toward his or her audience’s problems. Generally speaking, a writer perceived as an individual of integrity and character, and with rich knowledge and goodwill is more credible and therefore, more likely to work wonders in persuasion, gaining the audience’s trust and inspiring them.

Just as a speaker may have high credibility for one audience and low credibility for another and may also have high credibility on one topic and low credibility on another, a writer’s credibility can also be strengthened or weakened by his/her message and how he/she delivers it. If the audiences consider the writer sincere and competent, they will be much more receptive to his/her ideas and are more likely to change their attitudes or to do something.

Since the audiences are more likely to trust those who have personal warmth, consideration of others, a good mind and solid learning, to trust those with whom they share convictions about what is right and wrong, and to trust those who are sincere in purpose, well-informed about a particular subject and fair in arguing, it is fairly necessary for us writers to try every possible means to make ourselves appear capable and trustworthy. Specifically, we can employ the following strategies to establish and enhance our credibility.

III. STRATEGIES FOR ESTABLISHING THE WRITER’S CREDIBILITY

A. *Demonstrating Our Competence*

The more knowledgeable the audiences perceive a writer to be, the more likely and more willing they are to believe him/her. To demonstrate our competence, besides telling our audience of a special experience or training that qualifies us to write on a particular topic, and showing them that we have thoroughly researched the topic by citing a variety of research sources, we also need to do the following.

1. Presenting our ideas vividly

It is a common sense that in speaking we often take advantage of the audience's senses (vision, hearing, taste, smell and touch) to help express ourselves clearly. For instance, if we are describing the odor of an object, we may let the audience smell it; if we are describing a kind of food, we may let them taste it. Similarly, in writing we can also appeal to the audience's senses by using specific and concrete words and phrases or by providing details or by using figurative language to present word pictures.

On the one hand, employing strong specific and concrete words and phrases instead of general and abstract ones helps present our ideas vividly, because the former are much more informative, expressive and colorful and can help to make our writing so clear, exact, vivid, and striking that they seem to make the reader "see," "hear," or "feel" what we wish to describe. For instance, we may use "the flowers in the vase near the window" instead of "flowers," "Hurricane Katrina" instead of "hurricane," "the brownstone" or "the bungalow" instead of "the house," "pop up like corn" instead of "appear suddenly," "tiptoed to the window" instead of "went to the window" and so on and so forth. In the same way, we may use dynamic rather than static verbs, verbs that help to paint a picture. For example, if we want to describe Joe's anxiety and nervousness when he received a telephone, instead of saying "Joe was worried when the telephone rang," we can write this sentence: "When the phone finally rang, Joe leaped from the edge of his chair and grabbed for it." From such impressive terms of expression as "finally," "leaped from the edge of his chair" and "grabbed for it," the audience can inevitably "see" the anxiety and nervousness on Joe's face and "hear" the ringing of the phone and conjure up a clear picture of the worried Joe.

On the other hand, providing details is also a good way to help present our ideas vividly. For instance, if we intend to tell our audience that it is often windy and dusty here in spring, instead of telling them "it is often windy and dusty here in spring," which is too general a statement that they cannot imagine how windy and dusty it is here in spring, we can provide some details to help them "feel the wind and the fine dust flying here and there." The following group of sentences is a good example: "In spring there is often a very strong northwest wind. It carries so much fine dust with it that sometimes the sun becomes obscure. There is no escape from the fine dust; it gets into your eyes, your ears, your nostrils, and your hair. It goes through the cracks of closed windows and covers your desks and chairs." (Shi Jian, 2010)

Besides, figurative language, which produces pictures or images in the audience's mind, often by comparing something unfamiliar to something familiar, not only can help us present our ideas in clear, concrete, economical ways but also can make our paper more memorable--especially if the image or picture we present is a fresh, arresting one. Suppose we intend to tell the audience how the dust rose under the feet of a team of horses as they ran over a dirty road. Instead of providing a long and detailed description of the rising dust, we may make the following comparison: The yellow dust of the road rose like a cloud under the horses' feet. The phrase "like a cloud" calls up a mental picture which immediately enables the audience to see in their mind's eye the "yellow cloud of dust" boiling up from the road and dancing about the horses' feet. This example well illustrates that using figurative language benefits both the writer and the reader in that the former can take the short cut to paint a clear mental picture quickly and the latter can make sense of what is intended to convey without any difficulty.

However, although figurative language, like any spice, can spice up our paper, it can also be misused, thus spoiling our soup. Generally, too many images or too many stale ones, like "snake in the grass," "as busy as a bee," "quiet as a mouse," "poor as a church mouse," etc., are not desirable because the former will confuse the audience while the latter may bore them. So, only when it is absolutely necessary do we need to employ images, those that can catch our readers' attention with a fresh picture.

In short, whenever we write and whatever we write about, we had better write as specifically as the situation permits so as to appeal to the audience's senses as we do in our speaking as long as we do not overdo it.

2. Presenting our ideas emotionally

To persuade our audience, we may also appeal to their emotions, whose purpose is to make them "feel sad, angry, guilty, afraid, happy, proud, sympathetic, or nostalgic" (Lucas, 1989). By addressing their feelings about the subject, we can put the audience in a suitable mood. Nikos Kazantzakis' "A Night in a Calabrian Village" (qtd. in Yang, 1984) is a good example of using emotion-laden expressions:

The old lady had already risen and placed a saucepan on the fire to prepare the morning milk. I look at her now in the sparse daylight. Shriveled and humped, she could fit in the palm of your hand. Her legs were so swollen that she had to stop at every step and catch her breath. But her eyes, only her large pitch-black eyes, gleamed with youthful, waging brilliance ...

With graphic expressions the writer of the above paragraph hopes to stimulate the audience's emotional reactions, that is, to arouse their sympathy and respect for the young in spirit, but lonely old lady.

However, although emotional appeals often make a writer's feelings and ideas alive, we should never substitute emotional appeals for evidence and reasoning. If we employ too many emotion-laden expressions, the audience's attention can be distracted and as a result, the impact of the whole writing will be undermined. When using emotional

appeals, we must bear in mind that “the strongest source of emotional power is the conviction and sincerity of the speaker” (Lucas, 1989). It is all right to get our audience to receive our ideas by making them “pleased and friendly” or “pained and hostile,” but playing on their emotions in ways that make them mindless of concepts and consequences can corrupt the judgment of both individuals and the community (Henning, 1998). So we had better present our ideas intellectually and emotionally by using appropriate emotion-laden expressions when absolutely necessary.

3. Presenting our ideas with personal integrity

Besides presenting our ideas vividly and emotionally, we should try to employ ethical appeal, that is, to establish a credible persona worthy of respect and attention of the audience by presenting our ideas with integrity. We should try to project an impression to the audience that we are worth listening to, in other words, try to make ourselves as authors into authorities on certain subjects, as well as people who are likable and worthy of respect. To achieve the purpose, we need to do the following.

For one thing, we must show our audience that we are knowledgeable, that we are well informed about the subject in question, that we have experienced what we are talking about, or that we have made an exhaustive study of the subject. For instance, the writer Anna Quindlin (qtd. in Trimmer, 1988) reveals at the very beginning of her essay “Death Penalty’s False Promise: An Eye for an Eye” that she is well qualified to talk about the subject “crime and revenge” and that she is quite knowledgeable about this subject. She says,

Ted Bundy and I go back a long way, to a time when there was a series of unsolved murders in Washington State known only as the Ted murders. Like a lot of reporters, I’m something of a crime buff... But Ted Bundy has made me think about it all over again, now that the outlines of my 60’s liberalism have been filled in with a decade as a reporter covering some of the worst back alleys in New York City and three years as a mother who, like most, would lay down her life for her kids. ... The ones I have met in the course of my professional duties have either sneered at the justice system ..., or they have simply believed that it is the other guy who will get caught, get convicted, get the stiffest sentence.

For another, we must show our audience that we have good intentions, that we have considered their interests and needs as well as our own, and that they have more or less influenced our plan. Our intentions can determine the degree of trust and respect our audience will give us. Once the audience suspect that we are supporting a proposal because of the possibility of our profiting from it, they will reject our views without any hesitation. We should never say anything that might cause such suspicion.

What’s more, to make our audience believe that we are sincere, honest and trustworthy, and that we are not only truthfully presenting our evidence but also morally upright and dependable so as to elicit positive response from them, we should present facts, figures or other evidence accurately, refute the opposing views fairly, discuss the subject objectively and show them that our viewpoints allow for differences.

Besides the three ways mentioned above, we can employ some other ways to illustrate that we have good character and are reliable, such as using only credible, reliable sources to build our argument and citing those sources properly, acknowledging values and beliefs shared by both parties, and organizing our argument in a logical, easy-to-follow manner.

4. Presenting our ideas reasonably

Lucas (1989) says, “No matter how strong your evidence is, you will not be very persuasive unless listeners grasp your reasoning.” It is also true of writing. When we write to convince our audience of something, we are actually trying to change their attitudes, values or behavior. They want some justification for modifying their attitudes or behavior. They want to know “why.” To answer the question “why,” we must offer statements, which are also called reasons, that provide substantiation or justification. Let’s take Charles De Gaulle’s speech “Has the Last Word Been Said” (qtd. in Shi Youshan, 1989) for example. To support his proposition that the last word had not been said and that all hope was not lost, De Gaulle gave the following reasons:

For France is not alone. She is not alone! She is not alone! She has a vast empire behind her. She can form a coalition with the British Empire, which holds the sea and is continuing the struggle. She can, like England, have limitless access to the immense industrial power of the United States.

Reason can also be defined as “logical thought” (Young, 1970). Then reasoning is the process of drawing a conclusion based on evidence. There are several methods of reasoning such as deductive reasoning, inductive reasoning, causal reasoning and analogical reasoning, but the most commonly used are deductive and inductive reasoning.

Deductive reasoning, or deduction, moves from a general principle (assumed to be true) to the particular case. It introduces this principle up-front and then uses it to select and interpret evidence. Deduction, also called syllogism, consists of a general premise, a minor premise and a specific conclusion derived from the relationship of the two premises. When using deductive reasoning, we should pay special attention to the general premise and the minor premise. Only when both premises are soundly based will the audiences agree with our conclusion. For instance, in the essay “Death Penalty’s False Promise: An Eye for an Eye,” the writer Anna Quindlin (qtd. in Trimmer, 1988) advocates that killing a person cruelly be forbidden in a civilized society. To support her proposition, she uses implied deductive reasoning. She first puts forward the general premise that killing a person is cruel and debasing and then presents the minor premise that killing a murderer is killing a person. After that she arrives at her conclusion that killing a murderer as he kills others is cruel and debasing, and hence should be forbidden in a civilized society. She says,

I don't believe deterrence is what most proponents seek from the death penalty anyhow. Our most profound emotional response is to want criminals to suffer as their victims did. When a man is accused of throwing a child from a high-rise terrace, my emotional—some might say hysterical—response is that he should be given an opportunity to see how endless the seconds are from the 31st story to the ground. In a civilized society that will never happen. So what many people want from the death penalty, they will never get.

A good deduction is, however, “more than a mechanical application or matching exercise of general claim and specific details that are explained by it” (Rosenwasser & Stephen, 2008). The general principle and the evidence are reciprocal: the former explains selected features of the latter; the latter brings out implications in the former.

Whereas deduction moves by applying a generalization to particular cases, induction moves from the observation of individual cases to the formation of a general principle. Because all possible cases can obviously never be examined, the principle (or thesis) arrived at through inductive reasoning always remains open to doubt.

Nevertheless, the thesis of an inductive paper is “generally deemed acceptable if a writer can demonstrate that the theory is based on a reasonably sized sampling of representative instances” (Rosenwasser & Stephen, 2008). Suppose we find that our company is losing many valuable computer operators to other companies and we wonder why. After making surveys, we find the following main pieces of evidence: most computer operators are women who have preschool children; a nearby day-care center used by employees has closed because it lost funding from the local government; other day-care centers in the area are inconvenient and understaffed; other companies provide on-site day care for children of employees; on-site day care is beneficial to the emotional well-being of both preschool children and their mothers, because of the possibility of contact during the workday. With the evidence comes our conclusion, which seems warranted by the evidence we have collected: Therefore, our company needs to provide on-site day care to retain valuable employees.

In most cases induction and deduction operate in tandem. Whether the overall shape of our analysis is primarily inductive or deductive, we must appeal to the rationality of the audience by supporting our views with specific, strong, and novel evidence or with evidence from credible sources. The tangible evidence can not only strongly enhance our credibility and the long-term and immediate persuasiveness of the message, but also be especially helpful to refuting those who are skeptical about our ideas.

In a word, the more compelling our reasoning is, the sounder our ideas will turn out to be and the more convincing our writing will be.

B. Establishing Common Ground with the Audience

In persuasive writing, a very important step is to identify with the audience, to establish common ground with them and to show them that we share with them their values, attitudes and experiences, which in a sense means making some accommodation before presenting our points of view. But accommodating does not mean catering for the audience's biases or weaknesses. If we only write about something with which our audiences are very familiar without providing any new ideas, we are catering to them and debasing them and ourselves. In this case we are, in fact, assuming that our audiences can be manipulated easily and do not have the intelligence to think for themselves. If so, our writing will for sure antagonize the audiences and consequently make them resist our ideas.

As a matter of fact, accommodating appeals to the audience's legitimate interests and concerns. When we make accommodation, we can say honestly what is in our mind. But we had better express it in such a way that we show regards for their convictions and concerns as well as our own. Even if we disagree with them on certain subjects, we must recognize that some of their opinions may have validity. We should acknowledge the valid part that is consistent with ours and then present our viewpoints on the basis of it, by which we can make our writing more acceptable. Watt's essay “Drug Abuse in the Work Place” (qtd. in Trimmer, 1988) is an excellent example of accommodation. In the essay the author first presents his audience's viewpoint that employers are concerned about “the investments of their stockholders, the safety of their workers, and the credibility of their goods and services” and therefore “favor various forms of urine testing to identify drug abuses.” Then he continues to say that the workers are not only concerned about “the integrity of the work place” but also concerned about “their own integrity.” However, investigation shows that both pre-employment physical testing and testing when performance is being impaired cannot guarantee the integrity of the work place and that of individual workers. Instead, “the whole procedure, rather than increasing productivity, destroys the mutual trust between employers and workers so essential to quality performance.” Then what can be done to satisfy both the employers and the workers? At this moment, the author presents his own idea. It is evident that such accommodation will elicit positive response from the audience and facilitate their approval of the writer's point of view.

C. Revising for Correctness and for Style

After we have arrived at a reasonably complete draft, it is time for us to proofread our writing to make sure that it obeys the rules of grammar, punctuation, and spelling, because without correctness our writing is most likely to be unclear and incoherent and as a consequence, it will be unreadable and our credibility with the audience will be severely damaged. In this case, we ourselves inadvertently invite the audience to dismiss us and our writing.

Besides revising for correctness, we also need to create our own writing style. In the words of Rosenwasser and Stephen (2008), “style” refers to “all of a writer's decisions in selecting, arranging, and expressing what he or she has to say.” In their opinion, style to a writer is what a chisel to a sculptor. As a sculptor uses a chisel to “bring out” a shape

from a block of walnut or marble, a writer uses style to bring out the shape of the conceptual connections in a draft of an essay, which requires that we become aware of our words as words and of our sentences as sentences. Many factors, such as our aim and sense of audience, the ways we approach and develop a topic, the kinds of evidence we choose, and, particularly, the kinds of syntax and diction we characteristically select, affect our personal style. The decisions we make about how to phrase our meaning inevitably exert a powerful influence on the meaning we make. When revising for style, we should consciously reorient ourselves towards communicating to our audience the results of the dialogue we have with ourselves about our topic and make careful choices among more or less effective ways of formulating and communicating our meaning.

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, what has been analyzed above well demonstrates the importance of and the main strategies for establishing a writer's credibility in persuasive writing. Although we cannot use all the strategies in a single piece of writing, we can build up our credibility by effectively employing some of them so as to write clearly and eliminate contradictions within the text itself, or avoid any internal errors in syntax and mechanics as well as any factual errors in the subject matter. In a sense, what we say and how we say it determine the destiny of our writing: a success or a failure. So we should try every possible means, such as exploring a topic earnestly, admitting the valid points of the opposition, providing sufficient evidence, reasoning soundly and observing the writing mechanics, to make our papers appear written by capable and trustworthy people so as to win over the audiences and to achieve our writing purposes.

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An Interpretation of the Natural Scenes in *Sons and Lovers*

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Abstract—With the arrival of the 20th century, the industrial civilization enters a critical stage in its development. The blind chase of material wealth has resulted in more and more social problems. Furthermore, when Christian faith was wiped out along with the pastoral living style, a spiritual wasteland is resulted. Desperation becomes an incurable modern disease. As a responsible novelist, Lawrence attempts to find a cure to this modern disease. This paper explores the social, religious and emotional implications of the depictions of natural scenes in *Sons and Lovers*, and concludes that nature appears in this novel as a salvation force against the industrial distortion of human nature.

Index Terms—nature, industrialism, distortion, religion, sexual relations

I. INTRODUCTION

D. H. Lawrence lived in a time when the British society was experiencing a great change. Britain as the first imperial capitalist nation was beginning to lose its leadership in the world politics and economics. Its glory as the world factory seemed to have been withering all the time. As a result, British people's attitude towards life and the industrial civilization underwent a transition as well. The enormous wealth produced by the industrial civilization gradually lost its false glory, while more and more social problems of the industrial society began to plague the public nerve, such as the income gap, poor working conditions, the collapse of the Christian faith, the deterioration of the overall moral standard, and the environmental pollution, etc. In fact, negative reviews about the destructive impact of the industrial civilization on the moral foundation of the British society began long before Lawrence's age. In the works of many of the late 19th century realist novelists, the industrial civilization was given a very gloomy portrait, such as in the works of Charles Dickens, Hardy and Eliot. And such passion against the industrial civilization is densely located in Lawrence's works.

Here the wasteland spirit coined by T.S. Eliot in his modern epic "Waste Land" has to be mentioned in order to illustrate the damage on human soul caused by industrial civilization. As a civilization built on cruel exploitation of the workers' surplus value, and on cold-hearted robbery of natural resources, its development will definitely leads to regional conflicts, and ultimately to world wars. This is a theory proved by the two world wars, as a result of which the already greatly weaken Christian belief has been completely devastated, causing a vacuum in faith and a horrible wasteland in 20th century social mind. In order to restore faith in god, or to help people tolerate the postwar trauma, many literature man use their pen as a weapon to rebel against the social evils caused by the industrial civilization.

Lawrence is a very successful figure spending most of his effort in their respect, trying to help the world to regain their heavenly bestowed virtues and their good old faith. Different from the 19th century realist novelists, who focus more on the economic exploitations suffered by the workers, Lawrence cares more about the destructive influence of the industrial civilization upon human relations, upon the spiritual well-being of individuals. While his forefathers insist on nature's joint effect in causing the misery of industrial life, Lawrence regards nature as a victim of the industrial invasion as well. What's more, he regards nature as a force reacting against such invasions. And in his opinion, nature seems to represent the source of salvation. By returning to nature, and rediscover the divinity of nature, people will ultimately release their own bound nature, thus regain their spiritual integrity and sense of peace. Here *Sons and Lovers* is chosen as a typical example of how Lawrence makes his point about the importance of nature to the spiritual integrity of 20th century people. As his first successful novel, *Sons and Lovers* illustrates how the industrial civilization castrates the hero's family, making them incapable of love. Being contaminated by the industrialized value, members of this family along with their neighbors unknowingly apply a distorted love concept on their beloved ones; thus rather than help them prosper, they suffocate their dream, their love, and their life. The father yields to the conventional patriarchal role forced on him, and gradually lose his natural sense of humor. Deprived of the husband's love, the mother is forced to center all her love and hope on her sons, and eventually suffocates their life. Thus a tragic sense pervades the entire story. Only when nature steps in, will the light of hope temporarily pierce through the thick industrial clouds to alleviate the pain and sorrows of the characters, and help their soul wake up a while from their sound sleep.

Therefore, more than a mere passive background, nature in *Sons and Lovers* is a participant of the plot, sometimes even a mentor for human soul, and it is very human like. According to Lawrence, nature refers to the scene consisted by the farm, the crops, the woods and flowers, the rivers, the sun, the moon and the stars. In contrast to the dull, distorting, and ugly industrial society, nature represents the lively, harmonious and beautiful agricultural society before the

industrial civilization. Though some critics argue that Lawrence is a modernist writer and it is impossible for him to be sickly nostalgic, one can't deny his favor of the natural scene and the agricultural lifestyle which is more than closely related to nature than the industrial lifestyle. His favorable view of the country life is clearly presented in the opening scene where the background setting of the story is introduced. In this introduction he shows his disgust toward the industrial civilization obviously. Because of the industrial development, the beautiful countryside view has been destroyed. "Corns and meadows" are destroyed to make place for coalmines; people's labor has lost its dignity, and men work "like ants into the earth" (Lawrence, 1979, P7). As a product of the industrial civilization, the coalmines are like black studs, nailing "on the countryside" (Lawrence, 1979, P8) — or the healthy body of earth. The arrangement of the houses for the coilers indicates the industrial civilization has no regard for the beauty of nature, because despite of the pretty trees and flowers in the front garden, the living space—the kitchen where people spend most of their time is placed at the back part facing the ugly ash-pits. Anyone familiar with the Christian culture may agree that ash reminds one of death, while pits remind one of hell. Therefore, through the layout of the house's different functional zones, Lawrence implies that the industrial civilization is plagued with death, and has come to the edge of its fall.

II. DETAILED ANALYSIS OF THE NATURAL DEPICTIONS

The following is a more detailed analysis of the implications of natural depictions in the novel, which come in four aspects: nature and beauty, nature and religion, nature in contrast to industry, nature and sexual relation.

1. Beauty of Nature

Lawrence often uses very poetic language to portrait natural scenes and objects, and nature in his works seems to be the incarnation of beauty itself. Such beauty is very essential for people drowned by the industrial world. The beauty of nature becomes a source of power and it enables people to forget their physical miseries and reach a transcendental land of hope. The industrial production prevents workers from obtaining pleasure from their labor by making their work more and more dull and mechanic. The work in the mine extracts every bit of energy out of the coilers, and what's more, such work dulls the mind of the coilers. As a result, mutual communication cannot happen in the family, and this is just the case for the Morel family. Mr. Morel is always too tired and frustrated to appreciate his wife's taste in tidying the house; Mrs. Morel's pride and knowledge prevents her from understanding her husband's insensitivity. The family harmony is destroyed and hot and cold wars begin to take its place. And that's what happens in the Morel family. In the first chapter, after their fight, Mrs. Morel is locked out of the house. Once she is in the front yard, she comes to contact directly with nature and begins to draw power from it. Firstly, it's the moonlight that helps her to regain soberness by cooling "her inflamed soul". With the soberness, she begins to review her fight with her husband and feels something biting in her conscience. Secondly, she comes to a stage of sudden awareness. She begins to observe the white lilies in the moonlight.

The tall white lilies were reeling in the moonlight, and the air was charged with their perfume, as with a presence. Mrs. Morel gasped slightly in fear. She touched the big, pallid flowers on their petals, and then shivered. They seemed to be stretching in the moonlight. She put her hand into one white bin: the gold scarcely showed on her fingers by moonlight. She bent down to look at the binful of yellow pollen; but it only appeared dusky. The she drank a deep draught of the scent. It almost made her dizzy. (Lawrence, 1979, P35)

First of all, the above part of is a scene of natural beauty. The moonlight light is crystal clear, and all embracing; the lilies seem to be stretching because the air is filled with their fragrance. The moonlight, the perfumed air, and the lilies combine into a very strong power, and everything in its embrace slowly gets assimilated in it. Once assimilated into the nature, a person's own nature is turned on and he or she undergoes a process of purification. One's mind seems to be transcended to the sky level, and all the pains, sufferings of the human world cannot touch him or her. Besides the spiritual peace, the person's physical body also gets a profound rest under such circumstances. As is known, Lawrence thinks the satisfaction of sexual desire is very important for a happy life. The same message can be found in this contact between human and nature. The lily flower is often considered as a symbol of the female sexual organ, and Mrs. Morel's dipping into the flower cup is like the sexual intercourse. And the fact that Mrs. Morel feels dizzy and completely loses the sense of her body is an obvious reference to the ideal sexual orgasm, in which the two persons becomes one and there's nothing left except pure happiness.

The beauty of nature has such a powerful effect on things, that they become as beautiful as nature itself. All evils are purified, and man becomes all kind and understanding. And this is what happens to Mrs. Morel. Once she is in the moonlight, she becomes cool and begins to have her own fault examined and purified. Nature as a power of beauty is always outside there. What one needs is to step out of one's concrete enclosure and to appreciate such beauty. When Mrs. Morel does this, "the small frets vanish, and the beauty of things stands out, and she had the peace and the strength to see herself." (Lawrence, 1979, P50)

Some critics think that the "lily flower" in this scene indicates the death of love between the husband and wife, and it also foreshadows the death of William. And William's tragic engagement to the London girl, whose name happens to be Lily, seems to prove this idea. (Xu Jingzhen, 2005) In fact, there is still doubt of the truthfulness of such ideas. The love between husband and wife seems to have died long before the fighting scene. Instead of causing the death of a love, the lily flowers save the wife from breaking her heart over an already dead love. As to Williams' girl friend, she could not be simply understood as a true presentation of the Lily flower. On the contrary, she is a presentation of the flower

twisted by the industrial civilization. She has been raised in London, the center of the industrial civilization, so it is natural for her to be infected by some of the industrial plagues, such as vanity, shallow-mindedness, carelessness in spending money, etc. And these weaknesses in her characters can be attributed to the holy flower of lily. Suppose she lived in the countryside, she could have been as hard working and independent as Clara, or as faithful as Miriam.

2. Religious Sense in Nature

The Christian implication is another important aspect of the nature depiction in *Sons and Lovers*. After the birth of Paul, one day Mrs. Morel took the baby to the top of the hill. The meadows and the evening lights begin to influence her again.

The sun was going down. Every open evening, the hills of Derbyshire were blazed over with red sunset. Mrs. Morel watched the sun sink from the glistening sky, leaving a soft flower-blue overhead, while the western space went red, as if all the fire had swum down there, leaving the bell cast flawless blue. The mountain-ash berries across the field stood fierily out from the dark leaves, for a moment. A few shocks of corn in a corner of the fallow stood up as if alive; she imagined them bowing; perhaps her son would be Joseph. (Lawrence, 1979, P49)

According to the Christian belief, the world is created by God. And the sun, the moon, the earth, the sea and all the living things all are the creations of God, and they act as manifestations of the almighty of God. So when a Christian comes to appreciate nature, he or she feels the power of God. In this condition, Mrs. Morel feels she is very closely connected with god. And she becomes boasted about her son. In her imagination, he is going to a Joseph, the savior of the world, and the world is going to bow before him. So she calls him "my lamb", which is a term used to refer Jesus Christ. Under the stare of the baby savior, she feels the guilt in her and her husband. "And a wave of hot love went over her to the infant." This scene is a very powerful display of the salvation strength lying in the Christian tradition. And nature acts as the media through which people could get in touch with this salvation power. Through this media, we come to realize what is wrong with the modern society, that the industrial civilization is a civilization without love.

3. Industrial Scene against Nature

In contrast to the benevolent nature, the industrial scenes in Lawrence's depiction are often full of darkness, horror and death. A case in point is the depiction of Paul's first impression of Mr. Jordan's factory.

Suddenly they spied a big, dark archway, in which were names of various firms, Thomas Jordan among them.

And they ventured under the archway, as into the jaws of the dragon. They emerged into a wide yard, like a well, with buildings all round. It was littered with straw and boxes, and cardboard. The sunshine actually caught one crate whose straw was streaming on to the yard like gold. But elsewhere the place was like a pit. (Lawrence, 1979, P118)

This dwelling conveys nothing pleasant; instead, it resembles a prison in many ways. And the dragon mouth image symbolizes the all-swallowing nature of the industrial system. Once a person is in the system, he is going to lose his or her own nature. In another word, the evil creature kills his nature. The well image is a strong symbol of entrapment, and here freedom becomes a luxury. The beauty of nature is closed to the insiders, and litters become their only company. The allusion to the pit in the final sentence is a definite reference to the universally hell-like conditions of the working environment. Here the image of the golden sunlight beaming down the hole among the buildings overhead reminds people of the light of heaven. It summons people to break the industrial enclosures and return to nature.

4. Nature as a Sexual Language

Since nature is full of different images and objects, almost all people could find expressions for his or her own emotions in the natural world. And this is especially true in *Sons and Lovers*. In Paul's first love, his girl, Miriam, tries to keep their relation completely spiritual. But for Paul, the physical impulse is grow stronger and stronger within him, and the suppression of it becomes a torture to him. One day, when Paul and Miriam sat together at the sunset, Paul pointed at the pine-trunks embraced in the sunlight and said: "I wanted that. . . . There's God's burning bush for you, that burned not away." (Lawrence, 1979, P189) God's burning bush is an explicit allusion to the story of "Moses" in the Bible. When Moses is alone in the field one day, God reveal himself in the form of burning bush. And he tells Moses to go to Egypt, and save the enslaved Jewish people, and lead them out to Jerusalem. In the theory of Dr. Freud, any stick-shaped object may stand for male sexual organ in people's subconscious. Combined into one concrete message, the pine-trunks painted red by the sun stand for Paul's burning desire to have intimate body contact with Miriam and it's also a sign from God for them to fulfill that desire. So in his eyes, the lighted pine-trunks become the burning bush, which is used by God to deliver a message to Moses. By directing Miriam's attention to these trunks and by calling them God's burning bush, Paul is trying to reveal his sexual desire to Miriam. And he wants Miriam to feel that impulse too, and to answer the call of God just like Moses.

For Miriam, nature is also full of meaning. However, she only sees the holy side of it. The white rosebush in the dark woods tells us the image of nature in her eyes. "Point after point the steady roses shone out of them, seeming to kindle something in their souls. The dusk came like smoke around, and still did not put out the roses." (Lawrence, 1979, P198) And with the white roses, she intends to quench the sexual desire in Paul. Judging from this example, nature is like a symbolic language, which can be used by everyone to find an outlet for his or her particular emotions. Yet Lawrence seems to value Paul's interpretation of nature higher than that of Miriam. Because like his mother, Paul is able to let go of his nature, while Miriam always worships nature. She is looking up to nature from the place of a pilgrim. That is to say, nature, though admired in her eyes, could never find echo in her heart. And that's probably why she always tries to avoid sex with Paul. Her desire for Paul's body is always under suppression, and it's a part of her character that has

been distorted by the puritan doctrines.

Different from his relation with Miriam, Paul's relation with Clara is expected to be a healthier one. They both have desires for sensual pleasure and they don't deny that desire. Such mutual attraction joins them together. Nature also plays an important part in their relation. And this is especially true in their first love adventure in the riverside bushes after the rain. The day is wet because of the rain, and it is fit for the growth of things, including love. When they walk on the bank, the things that they see encourage their inner desires.

The cliff of red earth sloped swiftly down, through trees and bushes, to the river that glimmered and was dark between the foliage. The far-below water-meadows were very green. He and she stood leaning against one another, silent, afraid, their bodies touching all along. There came a quick gurgle from the river below. (Lawrence, 1979, P376)

Everything is washed by the rain, and radiates vitality into the surroundings. The earth becomes freshly red, and the meadow becomes very green. All the things seem to encourage them to take action to fulfill their desire. Leaning against each other, the desire inside their bodies make great noise as loud as the roaring river torrent behind the bushes. And their later descending to the river for a place of privacy is a clearly indication of their intention to answer their bodies' sexual nature's call. If they truly opens themselves to each other and take each other in themselves, this relation is bound to succeed. However, it fails again. And this time the fault lies in Paul. His special attachment to his mother makes him unable to accept another woman into his life, so when he makes love with Clara, it is not Clara that he sees, but an abstract woman. In this way, their love is not a natural love, but is twisted. It's the pursuit of pure sensual pleasure that connect them, and there is no spiritual communication at all. Their relation is like the twisted relation between individuals in the industrial society, where people's life is centered on money and material pleasure, so the love appears and disappears along with the material profit. Man is a creature with a soul according to the Christian belief, and the love without soul communication is no different from the activity of animals, and it is against human nature. Therefore Paul's relation with Clara is doomed to fail. And the same case is with the love between William and Lily.

III. CONCLUSION

From the above analysis, it is clearly noted that nature in the imaginary world of Lawrence could be very abundant in meaning. First of all, it is a perfect example of beauty and spiritual salvation. When contrasted with the ugliness presented by industrial constructions, nature as a mirror clearly reflects not only the physical damage cast on our living world by industrial production, but also exposes the distorted human relation in the industrial world. Hereby, the fragile nature is wielded by Lawrence as a powerful sword against the inhumanity of Puritanism and industrialism. In another sense, nature is also full of sensual and religious connotations, and it is used to signify the progress and frustrations in the development of human relations. By digging into these depictions of natural depictions, the readers can have a more explicit insight into the surging emotions and desires in the characters' mind. Finally, nature is far more than a mere passive witness of human activity. Instead, it has always been and still is an active participant of all human life. It is the beginning point of human life, and also the ending point of all human beings. When human society moves into the industrial age, we tend to pull further and further away from the natural world in which process we are becoming less and less human. We don't know how to love and protect our mother nature, and then we become cold and cruel to our fellow human beings. By pointing out the divinity in nature, Lawrence may not exactly calls for the returning to an idyllic life, but he surely is asking for a recovering sense of nature's beauty and a closer attention to it, in hope of restoring the declining moral standard and fraternity ideal between man and man.

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The Relationship between Implicit and Explicit Knowledge and Second Language Proficiency

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Abstract—Implicit and explicit knowledge as two important concepts have long been at the center of attention in second language research. In this paper, first of all some theoretical backgrounds about the nature of linguistic knowledge and implicit and explicit L2 knowledge, interface issue and its pedagogical implications, and operational definition of implicit and explicit L2 grammatical knowledge were presented. And then, previous studies about the two types of knowledge and L2 proficiency operationalized in different ways were discussed. The results showed that the relationship between explicit knowledge and L2 proficiency is still not clear and previous investigations have found mix results concerning this relationship. Therefore, future investigations are needed to better probe the relationship between explicit knowledge and L2 proficiency in second language learning.

Index Terms—implicit knowledge, explicit knowledge, language proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

Implicit and explicit knowledge as two important concepts have long been at the center of attention in second language research. Implicit knowledge of an L2 is defined as tacit, intuitive, procedural, which is target as well as non-target like, and is only observable when second language learners are communicating. On the other hand, explicit knowledge is conscious, declarative, is likely to be inaccurate, and can be verbalized. Language proficiency is defined as "a person's overall competence and ability to perform in L2 [Second Language]" (Thomas, 1994, p. 330). There is evidence in SLA research to consider grammar as one of the main components of L2 proficiency (e.g., Oller, 1979). Therefore, the purpose of present paper was to mention some theoretical backgrounds about implicit and explicit L2 knowledge and language proficiency, and also to qualitatively answer the question of the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge and L2 proficiency.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

There are two views concerning nature of linguistic knowledge as mentioned by Ellis (2005). The first view refers to Chomsky's universal principles which are applicable to all languages and some parameters which are language specific working one behind the other to give rise to a specific language from poor input. According to this view, positive evidence or input activates principles and parameters to drive a person's linguistic knowledge. The Second view which is related to the works of connectionist theories of language learning does not make a difference between language knowledge and other kinds of knowledge and considers linguistic knowledge as an outcome of bit by bit abstraction of rules manifested by frequency and likeliness of happening of from/ function mappings. The above mentioned rules are achieved by having a long term experience of learning a language.

Based on this approach "linguistic knowledge emerges gradually as learners acquire new sequences, restructure their representation of old sequences, and, over time, extract underlying patterns that resemble rules" (Ellis, 2005, p. 142). As a result, second language researchers have controversy over determining which two views authentically demonstrate the nature of linguistic knowledge. Learning a language needs both of these two types of linguistic knowledge. Although there is a big difference between the two positions towards the nature of linguistic knowledge, the distinction between implicit and explicit knowledge is a characteristic which both connectionist and Chomskian positions have agreement upon.

III. IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT L2 KNOWLEDGE

Second language researchers as well as cognitive psychologists have long acknowledged the value of implicit explicit learning and knowledge as an important and ongoing subject in second language research. Whereas, some cognitive researchers have rejected the authenticity of making differences between both implicit and explicit learning and knowledge, other researchers increasingly prefer different systems of learning and knowledge. Illumination of making a distinction between implicit and explicit learning as well as implicit and explicit knowledge is essential and necessary. The first one is related to the processes engaged in learning a language, but the second one is related to the product of language learning (Ellis et al., 2009). Both attention and awareness in learning a language lay claim of the distinction between implicit and explicit knowledge. As a result, implicit learning refers to the learning which comes about without

either attention or awareness. But, there is disagreement about the likeliness of such a learning to take place. For instance, Schmidt (2001) states that “people learn about the things that they attend to and don't learn much about things that they don't attend to” (p. 30). The distinction between implicit and explicit learning has kept being an important concept among most second language researchers, despite those debates. Although, up to now, there are few investigations aimed at probing the distinction between implicit and explicit knowledge which consider processes and devices engaged in second language acquisition, there are more studies by second language researchers that have examined the distinction between implicit and explicit knowledge. Second language researchers have used different testing instruments to probe the state and of implicit and explicit knowledge which are accepted to draw learners' implicit and explicit knowledge. Despite controversies concerning the validity of these test, some researchers tried to determine the construct validity of such tests to guarantee their use as valid and reliable measures of implicit and explicit knowledge. The testing instruments used by second language researchers are a timed and an untimed grammaticality judgment tests (TGJT)/ (UGJT), an elicited oral imitation test EIT, and a metalinguistic test (MKT). The TGJT and EIT were designed to draw learners' implicit knowledge and UGJT and MKT were designed to tap on learners' explicit knowledge. According to Ellis et al. (2009), it is assumed that TGJT taps on learners' implicit knowledge. In a usual TGJT, learners are given a number of grammatical as well as ungrammatical sentences and are required to find out grammaticality of sentences, that is, to determine which sentence is grammatical and which sentence is ungrammatical. Although in UGJT learners are asked to determine the grammaticality of each sentence with no time limit, in TGJT learners are required to determine the grammaticality of each sentence within time limit. In other words, this time limit prevents learners from using their explicit knowledge which needs ample time. Any testing instrument which puts learners under time pressure and requires learners to assess the language immediately and very fast has the probability of drawing learners' implicit knowledge and any testing instrument of the second language which gives learners lots of time to arrange their language knowledge and pay learners' attention to the language forms is likely to draw learners' explicit knowledge. In EIT first learners are required to say whether they agree or disagree with the content of each sentence and then are asked to produce each sentence in correct English. In this way, learners draw on their implicit knowledge. In contrast, UGJT causes learners to tap on their explicit knowledge mostly due to the fact that there is lots of time to determine the grammaticality of sentences and also learners are required to centre their attention on formal features of language. Likewise, a MKT, which asks learners to explain the reasons and the rules about the grammaticality of each sentence, must tap on learners' explicit knowledge. Based on Ellis et al. (2009), EIT can be considered as a measure of implicit knowledge because high correlation between scores on EIT and other measures of implicit knowledge has been found.

Krashen (1981) tried to distinguish between acquired and learned knowledge. Implicit knowledge is defined as the knowledge which is tacit and procedural and can be obtained without thinking about it in spontaneous tasks and cannot be verbalized. In contrast, explicit knowledge is conscious and declarative and is available by utilization of attentional processes and can be verbalized by individuals (Bowles, 2011; Ellis, 2005). Based on Ellis (1991) “implicit and explicit knowledge are held to be different in kind and to be stored separately in the brain” (p. 182).

IV. THE INTERFACE ISSUE

There are debates concerning the interface between implicit and explicit knowledge. The interface issue answers questions such as: Whether implicit and explicit knowledge are related to each other or not? Is it possible for explicit knowledge to be converted into implicit knowledge? There are three answers which have been given to the interface issue:

1. According to strong interface position, when learners practice and use explicit and declarative linguistic rules, explicit knowledge can be converted into implicit knowledge. That is, by practice and rehearsal learners are able to first learn a linguistic rule as declarative fact and then convert that linguistic rule to implicit knowledge (Ellis et al., 2009).
2. According to non-interface position, implicit and explicit knowledge are stored separately in different parts in the brain and demands strict different mechanism and, as a result, can't be converted to each other.
3. According to weak interface position, explicit knowledge can help the acquisition of implicit knowledge by causing some aspect of input more salient and outstanding to learners. There are three versions of weak interface position. One version posits that explicit knowledge can be converted into implicit knowledge when learners are developmentally are prepared to acquire the linguistic rule. The second version states that explicit knowledge can help the acquisition of implicit knowledge indirectly by assisting the required and necessary conditions for the acquisition of implicit knowledge. For instance, explicit knowledge can cause some parts of input more noticeable to learners and as a result facilitate the acquisition of implicit knowledge. The third version posits that “learners can use their explicit knowledge to produce output then serves as auto-input to their implicit learning mechanisms” (Ellis et al., 2009, p. 22).

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR THE INTERFACE POSITIONS

There are some pedagogical implications for the interface positions for second language learning and teaching. None-interface position suggests an empirical and analytical approach towards second language teaching which attempts to provide learners with lots of L2 input without any explicit teaching of grammatical rules. However, those

who argue in favor of strong interface position see a role for explicit language teaching and knowledge assuming that second language learners can change their declarative, conscious knowledge into implicit knowledge which is beneficial and can be used in real and on line communication. Weak interface position, in contrast, suggests that to some extent explicit grammatical teaching can be useful for second language acquisition through causing some features of the input more noticeable and outstanding to L2 learners.

VI. OPERATIONALIZING IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT L2 GRAMMATICAL KNOWLEDGE

Second language acquisition researchers have the problem of reliable and valid measures of both implicit and explicit knowledge as stated by Ellis (2005). According to Douglas (2001), lack of valid and reliable measures is general in SLA. As Douglas (2001) mentioned construct validity can be accomplished by “the construction of theoretical arguments linking hypothesized aspects of language ability to features of test task” (p. 447). As a result, having a theoretical framework which serves to the operational definitions of implicit and explicit knowledge is necessary.

There are agreements among SLA researchers in the field about the following criteria in order to differentiate between tacit and procedural knowledge (For example, Krashen, 1982; Ellis et al., 2009).

1. *Degree of awareness*: Learners are not normally aware of their implicit knowledge; however using explicit knowledge involves rule awareness.

2. *Times available*: when individuals are under time pressure to carry out a task immediately, Implicit knowledge can be derived, however tasks without time pressure would let individuals to tap both on their explicit and implicit knowledge.

3. *Focus of attention*: Using implicit knowledge involves a special focus on meaning and peripheral focus on language form; however utilizing explicit knowledge needs a particular focus on language form and a peripheral focus on message.

In this direction, according to Ellis et al. (2009), any operational definition of implicit and explicit knowledge should entail the following seven features:

(1) *Degree of awareness*: To what extent learners are aware of and know about their linguistic knowledge? This linguistic knowledge can be measured by questioning learners to mention whether their response to an item is born out of knowledge of rule or only by feeling.

(2) *Time available*: Tasks which are performed under time pressured do not permit learners to tap on their explicit knowledge and as a result call learners to utilize the knowledge which is accessible in terms of procedural knowledge without much difficulty.

(3) *Focus of attention*: Because of narrow processing capability, it is hard for learners to center their attention on both meaning and form. Implicit knowledge does not demand learners to form and put the processing capability to focus on message.

(4) *Systematicity*: There is more uniformity for learners in a task that asks them to utilize their implicit knowledge than in a task that asks learners to utilize their declarative knowledge.

(5) *Certainty*: There are learners who have more assurance in utilizing their declarative knowledge in answering a task, and also there are some learners who have more confidence in their procedural knowledge while doing a task.

(6) *Metalinguage*: Learners are only able to tap on their explicit knowledge to mention metalinguistic comments and rules.

(7) *Learnability*: Form-focused language teaching which benefits adult learners more than children normally leads to declarative L2 knowledge, while meaning-focused and communicative language teaching particularly when instructed at children leads to more implicit knowledge.

Therefore, by manipulation and use of the above-mentioned criteria it is likely to make testing instruments which draw learners' either procedural or declarative knowledge. To put it differently, a measurement instrument which taps on learners' attention to particular grammatical structures while giving them lots of time is probable to lead to learners' explicit knowledge. A test which, in contrast, leaves learners under pressure to convey the message under usual processing limitations most possibly draws learners' tacit knowledge.

VII. LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

There have been almost no agreements about the definition of second language proficiency among the researchers or the professionals in language assessment area. Not only is the definition of language proficiency independent of the language user, but also it is connected to the language user's background. For instance, Briere (1972) defines language proficiency as “the degree of competence or the capability in a given language demonstrated by an individual at a given point in time independent of specific textbook, chapter in book, or pedagogical method” (p. 322). According to Richards (1985, as cited in McArthur, 1992) language proficiency is the level of skill and capability that someone is able to use to perform in a language. In this direction, Clark (1975) mentions that LP is the use of language for real life purposes without any concentration to the way in which that the knowledge and ability is accomplished. Farhady (1983) criticized the above definitions for not taking into account some important parameters.

Based on Bachman (1990), the previous frameworks for describing language proficiency testing were skills and components model such as what has been offered by Lado (1961) and Carroll (1961) in the early 1990s. Such models differentiated between skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and components of knowledge (grammar, vocabulary, phonology), however did not realize language use's total contexts. Besides, Hymes (1972) suggested the inclusion of discursal and sociocultural factors into a definition of communicative competence. But, In the 1980s, the original study conducted by Canale and Swain (1980) was the turning point in all the debates of communicative competence. Canale and Swain (1980) and later Canale (1983), suggest a set of four subcategories, or competences, which constitute the concept of communicative competence. These include grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence.

VIII. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT L2 GRAMMATICAL KNOWLEDGE AND SECOND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

There is agreement about the role of implicit knowledge in second language acquisition. As for explicit knowledge, there are a number of studies that have investigated the relationship between explicit knowledge and second language proficiency. Sorace (1985) investigated the explicit knowledge of two intact groups of L2 learners of Italian and discovered that they did better in oral production tasks if they had a good command of explicit knowledge. Alderson, Clapham, and Steel (1997) in a study measuring L2 proficiency and explicit knowledge of French students, showed that there are low correlations between the two tests of explicit knowledge and L2 proficiency. This positive correlation was also discovered in a study by Renou (2001) who examined the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and French L2 proficiency of sixty-four university-level L2 learners whose first language was English. Although a positive correlation between explicit knowledge of third-person singular possessive determiners and performance in an open-ended oral production task was discovered by White and Ranta (2002) for both control group as well as treatment group before instruction, the correlation between explicit knowledge and the oral production task was not statistically significant for the treatment group after teaching of those grammatical structures. Hu (2002) discovered that learners function superior in spontaneous writing tasks if they had the knowledge of some English grammatical structures. In a study examining the relationship between performance and explicit knowledge, Elder and Manwaring (2004) uncovered that more metalinguistic knowledge resulted in better performance and functioning for some participants in their study. In a study investigating the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency of five intact groups of learners, three freshman groups and two senior groups, Roehr (2008) discovered that there is a strong positive correlation between the two variables. Elder (2009) examined that although different sections of Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) have significant correlations with a metalinguistic knowledge test, this correlation was not found between the Diagnostic English Language Needs Assessment (DELNA) and MLK. To explain the last result, Elder mentioned that because learners were of high language proficiency, it is likely that they used their implicit knowledge in last English proficiency test.

There are few studies that have investigated the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge and L2 proficiency. Han and Ellis (1998) probed the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge and L2 proficiency operationalized by the TOEFL and the Secondary Level English Proficiency Test – SLEP. They found that Secondary Level English Proficiency Test correlated with measures of implicit as well as explicit knowledge whereas Test of English as a Foreign Language correlated only with explicit knowledge. They attributed the results to the nature of TOEFL which is more likely to elicit explicit knowledge. In another two studies by Elder and Ellis (2009), they investigated the relationship between implicit and explicit L2 grammatical knowledge and L2 proficiency operationalized by TOEFL and IELTS. In the first study, they found that TOEFL correlated with all measures of explicit knowledge, but in the second study measures of explicit as well as implicit knowledge correlated with IELTS. Elder and Ellis suggested three explanations for the different result between the two studies. The first is that the two tests of TOEFL and IELTS elicit two different type of knowledge. The second one is that in the first study, they used only Timed Grammatical Judgment Test as a measure of implicit knowledge, but in the second study, they used both Elicited Oral Imitation Test and Timed GJT as measures of implicit knowledge. And the last one is that in the first study, they used total score for measures of both implicit and explicit knowledge, but in the second study, the scores for seventeen grammatical structures for all measures of implicit and explicit knowledge was calculated and used by the authors. Therefore, further research is needed to investigate the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge and L2 proficiency.

IX. CONCLUSION

Alderson et al. (1997) and Elder, Warren, Hajek, Manwaring, and Davies (1999) found low and moderate relationships between metalinguistic knowledge and language proficiency. However, Elder and Manwaring (2004) and Roehr (2008) found positive correlation between explicit knowledge and L2 proficiency, and Elder and Ellis (2009) also found that explicit knowledge correlated with the TOEFL test. In two studies done by Sorace (1985) and White and Ranta (2002) correlation was found between explicit knowledge and oral production. Concerning the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge and L2 proficiency, Han and Ellis (1998) and Elder and Ellis (2009) found that

in the case of SLEP and IELTS, implicit and explicit L2 knowledge correlated with these two Language proficiency tests. The results of previously done studies showed that although implicit knowledge is essential to the development of L2 proficiency, the relationship between explicit knowledge and L2 proficiency is still not clear and previous investigations have found mix results concerning this relationship. As a result, further investigation is needed to probe the relationship between explicit knowledge and L2 proficiency.

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