Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

The Use of iPad and Applications for English Language Education

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Abstract—This article examines the importance of the iPad use and presents numerous useful applications employed in the field of education, especially in the field of English language teaching and learning. This topic is of great importance as educators and students alike, these days, live in the digital era, which entails new technological advances that may positively benefit the instruction of varied school subjects. Additionally, the use of new technologies (e.g., iPad and educational applications) in the classroom setting may motivate and foster the acquisition of necessary twenty-first century abilities among students. With the aim of achieving the aforementioned objectives, first and foremost the role of digital technologies and m-learning in education is analyzed, since these two aspects have a direct relationship with the main topic of this work. In addition, a conceptualization and main characteristics of the iPad are provided. Then the use of this device in different educational settings at the international level is highlighted. Finally, the use of this device as a didactic tool in the language learning classroom is discussed and a selection of meaningful applications for English language teaching and learning is provided. As educators, in the digital era, is our responsibility to remain constantly updated to provide our students with an education aligned with the new technological advancements and, above all, to enrich their learning inside and outside the classroom. Consequently, this will promote a more autonomous and lifelong learning among our language students.

Index Terms—technology, m-learning, iPad, educational applications, English education

I. INTRODUCTION

Figure 1: A word cloud of the iPad and education (Source: Watters, 2011)

Since the iPad was released in 2010, its use in the classroom has gradually increased throughout the years. The iPad's use for educational purposes has had a greater impact in developed countries around the world. The increasing usage of the device at the classroom setting has sparked researchers' interest for conducting research on the role and benefits of the iPad as a tool for teaching and learning. The use of the iPad and educational applications (apps) can be beneficial in classroom instruction as well as it can support and enhance student learning. In addition, the usage of the device and apps can have a positive impact on the motivation, engagement, and achievement of students at different educational settings, including primary, middle, and high school and institutions of higher education. Moreover, students' literacy skills and 21st-century skills can be developed through the incorporation of the device into classroom instruction. Most importantly, by utilizing the iPad device and educational apps with consistency, we can align our instruction with new ways of learning that our students have access to in today's world. This will help us, as educators, instruct content by using new, different formats.

This article aims to helping teachers of different content-area subjects and, especially, English as foreign language (EFL) teachers become aware of the significant impact that the iPad use, along with effective apps, may have in their classroom instruction. In this work, teachers will learn about the benefits and practical examples of the iPad use in the classroom as well as they will be equipped with lots of apps, which can assist their instructional practice and enhance their students' learning experience. This work then starts with a brief overview of digital technologies and M-Learning because of their close relationship with the iPad device. Next, a conceptualization and main characteristics of the device are provided. Then a detailed description of the iPad use in different educational settings is stressed. Finally, the device use as a tool for language teaching is highlighted, as well as numerous apps aimed at language teaching and learning are presented.

The apps are ideal for teaching and learning English in EFL contexts, which is the second major reason of why this work was brought to light. With this in mind, it is imperative to point out that teachers of English will be equipped with the knowledge and tools needed to provide learning experiences of high quality to their language students who are part of today's globalized world.

II. DIGITAL TECHNOLOGY AND M-LEARNING

In today's world, it is imperative for teachers to provide students with access to the technologies that will be part of their future world, both in further learning experiences and at work. Therefore, we, as teachers, need to be aware of the key role that digital technologies and M-Learning have in classroom instruction. It may be highly beneficial to have a good understanding of technological, mobile devices since they can be used as tools to enhance teaching, as well as assist and improve student learning (Barone & Wright, 2008; Kharbach, 2011). To begin with, we will explore the concepts of digital technologies and M-Learning because they are closely related to the major topic of this article, which is the use of the iPad and educational applications for the teaching and learning of the English language.

According to Beschorner and Hutchison (2013), the influence of digital technologies and the Internet on literacy practices of the 21st century may influence the types of literacy young children use to read, write, and communicate at the school setting. The scholars suggested a comprehensive definition of literacy in today's educational process; their definition emphasizes the use of multimedia, computer-based print, and technological teaching-learning devices in the classroom, because they can be effective tools for a more updated literacy experience. This definition, as stated by Beschorner and Hutchison (2013), is important for educators to take into account because children "as young as three and four years old frequently see family members using technology, and often use interactive media for a variety of purposes themselves" before they experience formal learning experiences (p. 17). In addition, the nature of literacy is largely impacted by the implementation of the latest technological developments (including the introduction of the iPad) into reading, writing, and communicating activities (Beschorner & Hutchison, 2013; Clements & Sarama, 2003).

The term M-Learning (or mobile-learning) is a relatively new instructional approach used in the process of teaching and learning at various educational levels around the world. Manuguerra and Retocz (2011) pointed out that M-Learning is concerned with the benefits provided by mobile technologies consisting of "the latest generation of mobile telephones and tablet computers[, which] have the potential to ... change the ways that learning and teaching are carried out, greatly favoring constructivist and collaborative approaches to learning, and flexible and adaptive approaches to teaching" (p. 61). Melhuish and Falloon (2010) noted that it is critical that any definition of M-Learning must refer to the ability of this kind of technology for allowing people to learn within their "own [individual] context when on the move in time and space," which is the major learning affordance provided to students (p. 3). According to the scholars, what makes M-Learning unique within the field of education is that it can support and facilitate learning experiences by means of using one's own device in a situated context.

III. A BRIEF GLANCE AT THE IPAD DEVICE

The iPad was introduced as a touchscreen tablet in 2010, and since then it has been an outstanding success for the Apple company (Godwin-Jones, 2011). As pointed out by Melhuish and Falloon (2010), smartphones, cellphones, tablets, PDAs and laptops were mainly regarded as mobile devices until January 2010. Melhuish and Falloon (2010) added that the introduction of the Apple's iPad was regarded as the latest mobile device that had amazed people in the international online world because it was "a new type of mobile platform that will, at least in theory, offer all the functionality and connectivity of a laptop, with the mobility of a smartphone" (p. 5). Henderson and Yeow (2012) agreed that the weight of standard iPad makes it a lot less heavier than a traditional laptop. In addition, the device does not have any cables attached to it, and the control of it consists mainly of one button. Additionally, as stated by Murray and Olcese (2011), iPad's early success can be attributed to the over 250,000 applications to be run on the device, as well as its interface similar to the iPod Touch and iPhone.

It also imperative to learn about the major characteristics of the iPad Device. In this sense, according to Henderson and Yeow (2012), the iPad's combination of size, light weight, lack of attachments and connectivity makes it "a very portable device for [learners] to hold, operate and use it ... at their own desk, collectively around a table, on their lap or possibly out of class" (p. 3). The iPad and other Apple gadgets are referred to as iOS devices due to their operating system. The iPad has a 9.7 inch screen that displays 1024-by-768-pixel resolution at 132 pixels per inch. The iPad's

data capacity is 16GB, 32GB, or 64GB, and its battery life is up to 10 hours. One of the most important developments that accompany devices with iOS is the concept of iApps and the App Store. iApps are software programs designed to run on the Apple devices. iApps are downloaded from the online App Store; some can be downloaded for free, while others are not free of charge (Ireland & Woollerton, 2010).

In an article by Melhuish and Falloon (2010), the five major affordances of the iPad in relation to its use in the educational setting were described. The scholars wrote about the iPad's portability for learning, referring to its convenient size and weight that makes it suitable as a portable learning device. People who are interested in looking for a computing platform may find the iPad device as an ideal choice. The iPad's affordable access to learning can be helpful towards "digitally-supported learning needs [because of] its relatively low cost in relation to its computing power" (p. 6). The iPad also provides situated learning in the classroom setting due to its interface design, which makes easy even for the youngest learner to use the device. Another key affordance is connectivity and convergence that is concerned with notions that "the connection to supporting infrastructure and peripherals, and the synchronous/asynchronous virtual connection to individuals, learning communities, and environments ... allow learners to create, share and connect with others in authentic learning situations, and to participate in online learning communities" (p. 9). Last but not least, iPads may be used in a collaborative way, but because of its single user logon and personalized choice of applications it provides individualizing and personalizing learning.

A. The iPad Use in Different Educational Settings

After a conceptualization and major characteristics of the iPad were provided, along with an overview of digital technology and M-Learning, we will now discuss the iPad's use in the classroom from a perspective that the device can be used as a tool for teaching and learning. The release of the iPad in 2010 caused Touch technology to have more serious implications on the field of education. This means that the introduction of this technological device has led academics from different parts of the world to consider the potential use of the product and educational applications in the teaching-learning process. There are many benefits of the iPad use at different educational levels due to the notion that teachers can greatly take advantage of the device to assist teaching and facilitate learning in the classroom (Nooriafshar, 2011).

At the university level teaching staff are eager to find ways of using the iPad to assist their instruction. For instance, Futhey (2010) of Duke University observed that the iPad was going to "herald a revolution in mashing up text, video, course materials, [and] students input" (as cited in Nooriafshar, 2011, p. 2). The use of the iPad at the schoolwide level has improved productivity because teachers are finding ways to do things paperlessly; these practices save the district money and teachers time (Foote, 2012). Foote (2012) noted that educators can use the iPad in a variety of ways, such as scanning an assignment and saving readings as PDFs, posting these things and other materials on their websites, having students open documents in a PDF reader on their iPads, and requesting students to write directly onto a PDF file, save it, and then email it back for feedback and grading. Moreover, the iPad in the educational process can stimulate creativity due to the camera, video camera, and the apps, which can be used for creative storytelling, video production, collaborative projects, and many more. Most importantly, one of the clearest examples of the iPad use in practice in today's classroom is its utility in the discipline of American Sign Language (ASL). Because ASL curriculum primarily involves visual aids the device makes an invaluable tool toward more effective student learning (Foote, 2012).

As pointed out by Ireland and Woollerton (2010), there were reports in the press indicating that universities were embracing the iPad for classroom use. In this respect, Ireland and Woollerton (2010) commented about the iPad usage at the college level in three different countries. Students are supplied with iPads upon their entry in several US universities. In different parts of the country, the Australian school system is trying to bring the iPad into their classrooms; for example, in the Victoria State, there are eight schools that were provided with 500 iPads with the purpose of trying them out and evaluating their usefulness in the classroom. In the U.K., teachers are exploring the potential applications of the iPad for classroom instruction. In addition to the implementation of the iPad into education at the worldwide level, the iPad use in the classroom may be key in hopes of developing students' 21st century skills (Murray & Olcese, 2011). In order to promote the key development of 21st century skills that support collaboration, Murray and Olcese (2011) developed a database that included the collaborative status of iPad applications. In their work, the researchers described the collaborative potential inherent in applications. It was also stated that multiple users could create and share material simultaneously through the use of apps, as well as they provided an opportunity for multiple users to work on the same document at the same time through the use of Google Documents.

Ireland and Woollerton (2010) held the view that the impact of the iPad in today's educational world has created an interest in researchers towards investigating what the future holds for the iPad usage in education, and, more importantly, the impact that the device has on individual teachers and institutions as well. Ireland and Woollerton (2010) pointed out that it was not difficult to imagine how the iPad could revolutionize the classroom in years to come. In order to have a better idea of how the device can shape the instructional practice, the authors included in their work the device's six main developments intended to lead future changes at school. Among the described main developments, the following ones stood out: Learners will be able to control audio and video material. Playing material will be an individual activity not a group one. Students will decide how long they want to listen to material, when to stop, when to replay, and where to focus on the material for comprehension of details. Students will be able to download, upload, and

share things via Wi-Fi and web pages. Learners will be able to become authors of innovative, multimedia work using intended apps for this work.

In a case study regarding the adoption and use of iPads in a primary school conducted by Henderson and Yeow (2012), it was found that the iPad's web browsing function was the most commonly used among senior students' learning activities. The use of the iPad allowed students to research topics on the Web, which gave students an opportunity to expand their understanding of the topics learned in class. In addition to its web browsing functionality, students used Apple's Pages to type up what they learned through their little research work with their iPads. By attaching the iPad to a projector, students were able to employed Apple's KeyNote (similar to Microsoft Power Point) to share key information with their peer classmates (Henderson & Yeow, 2012). Additionally, the scholars stated that e-books were used in the classroom for teaching; for instance, teachers read pieces of a novel to students every day through the iPad's iBook application. Students also employed the iBook application for engaging in individual and collaborative reading. Textbooks in PDF format were loaded onto the children's iPad, which gave them easy access to a source of multiple references for individual learning and further practice beyond the classroom. Application games were also used by senior students to help reinforce their learning in mathematics.

As indicated by Northrop and Killeen (2013), the increasing interest of the iPad usage at the school setting has created opportunities to incorporate technology into early literacy skill development. By having access to the iPad device and other technological devices, teachers can take advantage of such opportunities to connect school and home learning activities. By the same token, incorporating technology into the classroom is a critical way to promote understanding of 21st-century literacies; such initiative is largely supported by the International Reading Association (Northrop and Killeen, 2013). In addition to that, Northrop and Killeen (2013) believed that if the iPad and its apps were used effectively towards high quality literacy instruction, they offered additional ways for young students to practice early literacy concepts and skills. The scholars recommended teachers to use an instructional framework aimed at providing kids with effective instruction through the iPad use in the classroom, which involved ensuring "that students are actually learning, not just pushing buttons and going through the motions on the app" (p. 536). Their framework also involves making sure that students performed tasks at their appropriate level of development. In the suggested framework, teachers need to explain and model the activity, and then learners engage in guided and independent practice. Teachers must scaffold and guide students' understanding of the material. The framework then involves making adjustments and providing feedback. Learners will be enabled to internalize and operate the reading processes and strategies taught (Northrop & Killeen, 2013).

Manuguerra and Retocz (2011) wrote that students expressed a desire for different forms of communication and more diverse, updated learning methods. In this way, educational institutions need to suit well to the new ways of learning of today's students , so teachers must instruct the same content in new, varied formats. Their study results show that students learned best when technologies were integrated into the curriculum, enhancing student learning experiences. In their study, the researchers explored the use of the iPad as a tool to communicate with students, produce video lectures, and grade assignments.

Manuguerra and Retocz (2011) explained that through the adoption of the iPad, the presentation and communication during lectures changed significantly. Lively and spontaneous presentations were experienced by the students. For instance, with the use of the iPad students were able to add notes to slides in real time, and record note, graph or formula given during the lecture. As a result, students' interest in the participation of lectures was reported to be higher, as well as students felt safer in this kind of learning experience because they were able to access key information in detail later. In addition, by using the iPad as a source for recordings, distance students benefited from the complete lecturing experience, in the same way as if they were in class sessions. Moreover, Manuguerra and Retocz (2011) suggested that by utilizing the features of the latest technological devices, teachers can have helpful tools to keep track of and grade students' work. It was pointed out that "the use of the iPad allows lecturers to have a very quick, efficient and sustainable workflow in their marking of student work" (Manuguerra & Retocz, 2011, p. 64). In doing so, the study participants were asked to submit their work electronically. Instructors were able to easily access the papers on their iPads, without having to print them out for grading. These apps allowed them to handwrite, attach notes, insert images, and even record audio feedback. Instructors returned the students' marked assignments by email directly from the app used.

McClanahan, Williams, Kennedy, and Tate (2012) conducted a research project that included the use of the iPad as the vehicle for intervention with a fifth grader, Josh, who struggled with reading. Josh, who had Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), was reported to read on a second grade level. By designing lessons that combined iPad applications and activities downloaded to the iPad from the Internet, Josh was instructed key concepts on reading comprehension, such as sorting out main idea and details, understanding sequence, and making inferences. The researchers' work also discussed the particular aspects of the iPad that made the difference for Josh's reading experience, and the most important was reported to be the device's manipulative touch screen. Josh was seemed to be excited to read on the iPad. The researchers concluded that the device impacted the student in many positive ways. It helped him focus his attention, make progress in his reading ability, and become more metacognitive-oriented in his reading. The study also showed that Josh gained one year's growth in reading over the course of six weeks. The study participant also gained in confidence and had control upon his own learning. Most importantly, as a result of the iPad

usage, Josh had an improved attitude toward his overall schoolwork and toward himself as well. It was observed that generalizations to other struggling readers with ADHD cannot be made; however, Josh's successful experience should be used to give serious consideration about and conduct further research on the use of the device with exceptional student population.

B. The iPad Device as a Tool for Language Teaching and Learning

There are several different reasons why the Apple's iPad should be used in language learning and teaching. The notion that many educational institutions are moving toward an instruction that significantly employs the iPad and other tablet devices is an exciting experience for language teachers and learners alike. According to Raine (2013b), the iPad device is becoming an indispensable tool for English language learners across the world because of its multiple advantages for language classroom instruction. The author held the view that there are numerous advantages if language learners use an iPad in the English classroom setting.

In his work, Raine (2013b) recommended EFL teachers that their students should employ iPads in the classroom for twenty varied reasons. The following reasons are among the most important ones: students can write reports with text, photos, and magazine-style formatting, which develop learners' communication skills; students can record themselves speaking, and then assess their own performances; students can check their pronunciation with Siri and the voice-to-text functionality provided by iOS; students can both view and produce podcasts, and share their knowledge, experience, opinions, advice, and questions with other English learners; students can engage in extensive reading by accessing articles on the Internet; students have access to L1-L2 and L2-L2 dictionaries, which include text-to-speech pronunciation support and word-in-context excerpts; students can take advantage of the big number of English language games and utilities in the App Store; individual students can access media as many times as they like in order to ensure comprehension, rather than having a single source of audio or video controlled by the teacher; students can edit and reedit every piece of work they produce, which involve drafting, re-drafting, and using continuously their English knowledge and skills; and students can take advantage of vocabulary learning applications, such as Anki and Quizlet.

Anderson's work (2011) included why it is a good idea to use the iPad in the English classroom; he pointed out that the use of the device can make learning the target language more interesting, fun, and effective. Specifically, his work focused on how iPads could be used for English language instruction through the use of apps. The same author (2011) indicated that "all choices to do with technology in the classroom should be directly linked to the benefits that it will bring to the students and how it will improve learning" (para. 1).

IV. EDUCATIONAL APPLICATIONS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

This article now highlights helpful and interesting apps that can be used inside and outside the English language classroom setting. In this regard, Anderson (2011) presented several examples of how these three iPad apps can be used in the English class: Kindle app, Puppet Pals, and Comic Life. The author noted that by having an iPad and the Kindle app, English learners would be able to read anywhere and take advantage of the very helpful dictionary features that the app has. For instance, when learners do not know the meaning of a vocabulary word they can automatically look it up. This involves autonomous learning because students can find on their own the meaning of unknown English words in a convenient manner rather than having to ask for help to their teacher. Besides, students can highlight words and passages as they do in hard copy books. In addition to these benefits for students, there are different several free novels English teachers can use for lesson plans, and they can request students work on out-of-classroom reading. Regarding Puppet Pals, the author commented that controlling characters on the iPad, adding narration, choosing different backgrounds, and among other things can be easily done. Among one of the greatest uses of the app is that students are likely to act out scenes from plays, novels, and poems, which further enhance students' knowledge of reading texts. By using Comic Life, the last app, students can creatively produce their own comics. The app has a lot of templates, so students do not need to spend much time selecting the look of the comic; they can focus on the writing production, which is the essential characteristic of the app.

In an article by Wolff (2011), some of the most useful iPad tools for EFL teachers are discussed as well as the ways teachers used the device, in and out of the classroom, were described. According to Wolff (2011), EFL teachers mainly use the device as an in-class reference tool, as well as it is used for the presentation of class content, face-to-face interaction with students, and for the teachers' own professional development. By learning how to use iPads to their fullest potential, EFL teachers can provide a more enriching learning environment for English learners. By using the iPad in the English language instruction, enthusiasm and excitement among students can be sparked as well.

Now, let's have a look at Wolff's (2010) list of collection of useful apps for the field of teaching English; the apps on his list can certainly be also used in several different school subjects. The suggested apps are divided into three groups; apps that can be used inside and outside the classroom; however, some apps can be utilized both during class sessions and beyond the classroom. The third group of apps are aimed at teacher professional development. Most of the apps are free of charge, while others can be purchased at lower cost. For classroom use, teachers can employ Evernote, Evernote Peek, Notability, Keynote, Wikipanion, Dictionary.com, iTunes U, and Facetime. While Dropbox, Dragon Dictation, and Google Translate for iOS can be utilized outside the classroom. With regard to professional development, teachers may employ Midori, iBooks, Newsstand, and Miscellaneous iPad Tips/ Resources.

When it comes to learning grammar in a second language, it is not always a pleasant experience for students. Learning this important aspect of a second language can actually be boring if only traditional methods are used in today's language classroom. The use of iPad apps may be an effective alternative to teach young students grammar, as opposed to the widely used grammar-translation approach in more traditional classrooms (Pappas, 2013). Pappas' work (2013) provided an extensive list of iPad Apps intended to provide students with fun and interesting ways to learn grammatical structures. The author stated that the apps on his list can be utilized by both English teachers and parents. In order to make an effective use of the apps, parents need to possess English knowledge and use the apps as opportunities for giving further practice on the English language to their children. Pappa's list (2013) includes free apps mostly, and they are as follows: Actions Words, Comparative Adjectives, Grammar Game Free, Grammar Jammers Primary Edition, Grammar Wonderland (Elementary) Lite, Jumbled Sentences, MobiLibs, My Grammar Lab, Practice English Grammar 2, Same Sound SpellBound, and Using I and Me Fun Deck. In addition to the grammar practice the apps can provide learners with, these can help improve key major language skills, such as listening and writing.

Raine's work (2013a) presented the top ten apps for EFL instructors. The author commented that his top ten list was created out of the apps used in his own teaching career as well as apps employed by other teachers of English. The recommended list includes the name of each app along with a short description of its major characteristics. According to Raine (2013a), the most helpful apps for contemporary English language teaching and learning are the following: Dropbox, iWork, Notes, PDF Expert, Notability, Socrative, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, TeacherKit, PlanBook Touch, and GradeBook Pro.

In Hill's terms (2012) the iPad makes a wonderful tool for language learning because students can employ applications that enhance their learning experience in many ways. Hill (2012) created a work that was exclusively concerned with ways in which teachers and learners can use the iPad device for improving the teaching and learning process of the English language. The author provided over ten apps, along with practical applications, and helpful advice on how to utilize the target group of apps consistently. Therefore, a selection of these helpful apps from Hills' work (2012) is presented below along with key details.

The first app selected is LearnEnglish Sports World issued by The British Council. This app is a free sports-themed, hidden object and word game app for the iPad. In LearnEnglish Sports World, players have to find the hidden sports objects and earn medals while learning about sport events. Second, the Wordflex Touch Dictionary app uses a sort of mind-mapping technology to turn word entries into dynamic trees that can be moved, shaped, rearranged, saved, and shared with touch gestures. This app is ideal for creating word posters for English learners. Third, Dynamic English Lessons 3 is an app that helps students learn some of the most common idioms by means of interactive games and practical examples. Next, English Grammar in Use: Activities HD offers a great library of fun grammar exercises, which are aimed specially at intermediate English learners. This app also has sound and extra support across all key topics. Conversation English HD was another app selected because it allows English students to practice and improve their English language skills through 20 conversational lessons. The Animal Idioms and Metaphors app provides 75 useful and popular idioms and metaphors that relate to animals. Each metaphor includes explanations, helpful everyday examples, fun facts and animal sounds. Lastly, Terminology: A Browser for the English Language is an app that is both a dictionary and a thesaurus. By using this app, English learners can easily explore words and phrases (including more and less specific terms) and be directed to the Web for further assistance.

V. CONCLUSIONS

It is evident that the use of the Apple's iPad device and educational apps may have a crucial role in today's classroom instruction, because they both can greatly enrich the teaching-learning process of different content-area subjects and, especially, English language lessons. Therefore, we, as teachers, serving learners of the 21st century must be aware of the many benefits behind an effective use of the iPad device and apps over the course of our students' overall learning and language learning. As mentioned above, students' learning experiences as well as their motivation, engagement, and achievement may be enhanced by incorporating the device and the key educational apps (highlighted in this article) into the classroom. Therefore, it is our responsibility to keep updated with the best practices that include the latest technological advances, so that our classroom instruction can be more responsive to our 21st-century students' needs, likes, and interests that are commonly shaped these days by the growing scale of technology. By having students experience and become familiar with the latest technological advances for educational purposes, it is a critical way to enable them to better function in and contribute to the world awaiting for them beyond the classroom, as well as it is a great way to promote autonomous and lifelong learning. As a matter of fact, these goals are achievable, as our students will be equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills to take control of their own leaning by means of the implementation of meaningful technology-based instruction, which is a must in today's globalized world.

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Computer Literacy: Sine Qua Non for Digital Age of Language Learning & Teaching

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Abstract—**With the widespread and development of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in our daily lives, technology provides numerous opportunities and challenges for language teachers and learners. The popularity of learning a foreign language and integrating technology for educational purposes showed the demand for computer or electronic literacy for both language teachers and learners. The literate teacher and learner is the one who can use different technologies as educational devices in their teaching and learning processes. This paper reviews the related literature on new literacies, as well as the relationships between computer/electronic literacy and language learning and teaching.**

Index Terms—**literacy, computer literacy, electronic literacy, language learning and teaching, digital world**

I. INTRODUCTION

Our new digital tools play important roles in our daily lives. Portable devices like cell phones transfer text and multimedia messages, connect us to the Internet, provide visual contacts, allow us to check our emails, enter the chat rooms, surf the websites, blogs, wikis, and discussion forums, and learn from MOOCs. By these digital tools individuals even can change their authorship, identity, community, etc.

Today's in our evolving digital world, we depend upon an augmented knowledge and skills. This digitalized world obliges learners and teachers to formulate knowledge in nonlinear settings mediated by different digital tools and devices. "… it would be wrong to think that we live in The Digital Society… We have made the Information Society and the Digital Age for ourselves" (Martin & Grudziecki, 2006, p. 249).

Our real communication environment has changed to today's virtual environment in which casual writing and speaking is superior to formal (Hampel & Hauck, 2006). Kress and van Leeuwen (2001) mentioned that the "new technologies' emphasis on multimodality, three-dimensionality, and interactivity can be seen as a return of many of the things that were lost in the transition from 'orality' to 'literacy'" (p. 92).

To define "literacy", we have to consider learning changes based on world changes. Different models have been proposed for defining literacy (Bélisle, 2006): (1) The functional model considers literacy as the proficiency of simple cognitive and practical skills, from the least complex idea of literacy as mechanical skills (that is, reading and writing) to the most developed approaches (UNESCO, 2006). (2) The socio-cultural practice model deals with the fact that literacy is only significant in a social context given, and consequently to be literate is to have access to the different cultural, economic and political structures of society (Street, 1984). (3) The intellectual empowerment model states that "literacy can bring about the transformation of thinking capacities, particularly when new cognitive tools, such as writing, or new processing tools, such as those relying on digital technology, are developed" (Martin & Grudziecki, 2006, p. 250).

Dudeney, Hockly and Pegrum (2013) counted 21st-century skills, for which these authors highlighted skills like creativity and innovation, collaboration and teamwork, critical thinking, problem-solving, autonomy, flexibility, and lifelong learning. This set of new skills needs another key factor which is an ability to interpret, manage, share and create meaning in the growing range of digital communication channels which is called digital literacy or computer literacy. The leaders believed that all the people should know something about computers. The meaning of computer literacy has changed over time, and the specific definition has never been clear. Basically, computer literacy means a level of understanding which enables students to talk about computers. Son, Robb and Charismiadji (2011) defined 'computer literacy', in general, "as the ability to use computers at an adequate level for creation, communication and collaboration in a literate society" (p. 27). Computer Assisted Learning (CAL) provided another perspective which shows that the computer could teach students. From educational perspective, this definition changes to "the development of knowledge and skills for using general computer applications, language-specific software programs, and Internet tools confidently and competently" (Son, Robb & Charismiadji, 2011, p. 27).

II. MOVING FROM LITERACY TO NEW LITERACIES

The changes mentioned in the Introduction section have resulted in a shift in the concept of literacy from "the ability to read and write in a predominantly printed context" (Goodfellow, 2011, p.131) to the new literacies. Literacy theorists have acknowledged the virtue of the digital sphere in constructing the contexts for literacy to be properly understood. As Warschauer (1999) highlights, "technological developments alone cannot account for changing conceptions of literacy. Rather, we must also take into account the broader social, economic, and political context" (p. 8). Different terms are coined for new literacies: '*multiliteracies*' (Gee, 1992; Luke, 1992; Kress, 1993), '*multimedia literacy*' (New London Group, 1996), '*technological literacies*' (Lankshear et al., 1997), '*silicon literacies*' (Synder, 1997), '*electronic literacy*' (Warschauer, 1999), '*technoliteracy*' (Erben, 1999), '*new literacy/literacies*' (Salaberry, 2000; Lankshear & Knobel, 2003), '*multiple literacies*' (Kellner, 2002), '*electracy*' (Ulmer, 2003), and '*Online literacy*' (Snyder & Beavis 2004).

TABLE 1.
VIEWS OF LITERACY

Type	Literature
Computer literacy	Corbel, 1997
Cyberliteracy	Gurak, 2001
Digital literacy	European Commission, 2003
Electracy	Ulmer, 2003
Electronic literacies	Warschauer, 1999
eLiteracy	Martin, 2003
ICT literacy	Educational Testing Service, 2005
Media literacy	Kubey, 1997; Livingstone, 2003; Potter, 2004
Multiliteracies	Cope & Kalantzis, 2000; Unsworth, 2001
Multimedia literacy	New London Group, 1996
Multiple literacies	Kellner, 2002
New literacies	Lankshear & Knobel, 2003
Online literacy	Tuman, 1996
Silicon literacies	Synder, 2002
Technoliteracy	Lankshear & Synder, 2000; Luke, 1997
Visual literacy	Curtis, 2004; Moore & Dwyer, 1994

It is possible to define a range of distinct but interrelated literacies. 'Basic computer literacy', defined as "the learning of specific hardware and software applications" (US National Research Council, 1999, p. 9; Council of Australian University Librarians, 2001, p. 2), is a sine qua non for new literacies. Students, at least, should be able to work with their personal computers to effectively participate in our digital society. 'Cyberliteracy' refers to the ability to sort fact from fiction, to identify extremism from a debate, and to identify aspects such as gender bias, commercialism or imitation, together with other aspects of written language that may entail significant problems when communicating online (Gurak, 2001). "Digital literacy" is "the ability to use ICT and the Internet becomes (European Commission, 2003, p. 3). Moreover, Ulmer (2003) described *electracy* as "the kind of literacy or skill and facility necessary to exploit the full communicative potential of new electronic media such as multimedia, hypermedia, social software, and virtual worlds" (as cited in Konan, 2010, p. 2568). Warschauer used the term 'electronic literacies' in 1999 as the activities occur among language-learning students and computers. Electronic literacy is broader than information literacy and "it also encompasses how to read and write in a new medium" (Shetzer & Warschauer, 2000, p. 173). Martin (2003) coined the term 'eLiteracy' which means "the awarenesses, skills, understandings, and reflective-evaluative approaches that are necessary for an individual to operate comfortably in information-rich and ICT-supported environments" (p. 18). ETS (2007) defined 'ICT literacy' as "using digital technology, communications tools, and/or networks to access, manage, integrate, evaluate, and create information in order to function in a knowledge society" (Educational Testing System, 2007, p. 2). 'Media literacy' is the "ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and create messages in a variety of forms" (Aufderheide, 1993; Christ & Potter, 1998, Livingstone, 2004, p. 4). According to New London Group (1996), multimedia literacy is the ability to interpret and produce knowledge in multiple media and modes. Kellner (2002) used the term "multiple literacies" which "points to the many different kinds of literacies needed to access, interpret, criticize, and participate in the emergent new forms of culture and society" (p. 163). 'Online literacy' would refer to the "reading and writing one does at a computer" (Tuman, 1996, p. 27). The influence of hypertext and computer technologies on textual practices and understandings is called "silicon literacies" (Snyder 1997; 2002). 'Technoliteracy' "targets the integration of technology skills, computer-based cognitive tools and literacy practices to increase the learners thinking in the critical dimension. Design, then, becomes the shaping metaphor for both knowledge construction and the balanced integration of the four dimensions in that model" (Kimber, Pillay & Richards, 2007, p. 62).

It is obvious that there is significant overlap between the definitions of literacies mentioned above. Tyner (1998) identified the necessity to refer to multiliteracies in a plural form but prefers to recognize groups of associated literacies while maintaining "literacy" as an overall concept (pp. 63-68).

III. COMPUTER/ELECTRONIC LITERACY AND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

Digitization and globalization have reformed the field of language education and literacy. A demand for new literacy called "Computer literacy", "IT literacy" or "ICT literacy" has been aroused since the late 1960s. The significance of students and teachers' computer literacy has been quite widely discussed (e.g., Atkins & Vasu, 2000; Cunningham, 2000; Johnson, 2002; Lam, 2000; Oh & French, 2007; Park & Son, 2009; Shin & Son, 2007).

The merits of educational technology revise how language and literacy in the classroom are understood, taught, and tested. In second or foreign language teaching contexts, teachers have been averse to endorsing and applying these new dimensions of literacy. Valdés (2004) believed that second/foreign language teachers have the inclination to conceptualize language in their teaching as a single literacy rather than multiple literacies (p. 79). Adapting a new movement towards multimodal literacies in the second and foreign language classrooms is a difficult task (Tan & McWilliam, 2009; Valdés, 2004; Warschauer, 2008b). Even in well-equipped technological infrastructures, second/foreign language learning and teaching contexts have been shown to be undervaluing the merits of such technologies (Ware, 2008).

Reinking (1994) proposed four criteria for activities which aimed at developing electronic literacy in educational contexts:

"First, they should relate to conventional print-based literacy in meaningful ways... A second criterion is that activities designed to promote electronic literacy should involve authentic communication and meaningful tasks for students and teachers... Third, activities should engage students and teachers in higher levels of thinking about the nature of printed and electronic texts as well as about the topics of their reading and writing.... Fourth, activities should engage students and teachers in ways that allow them to develop functional strategies for reading and writing electronic texts". (Reinking, 1994)

Martin in 2003 mentioned three phases for computer literacy: a) The Mastery Phase (up to the mid-1980s): In this phase, the focus is on achieving specialist knowledge and competence to master computer, which includes computer basics like how the computer works and how to program it. b) The Application Phase (the mid-1980s to late-1990s): As the name suggests, the emphasis of this phase is on practical competence. One of the applications of computer in this phase is for educational purposes as an educational technology. c) The Reflective Phase (the late-1990s on): The focal point of the third phase is on more critical, evaluative, and reflective approaches to using IT. "ICT literacy [or computer literacy] is the interest, attitude and ability of individuals to appropriately use digital technology and communication tools to access, manage, integrate and evaluate information, construct new knowledge, and communicate with others in order to participate effectively in society" (Martin & Grudziecki, 2006, p. 251).

Along with developing in a digital world, the idea of what we mean by a 'computer literate' is unavoidably expanded (Reinking, 1994). In addition, one of the main issues in the area of language education is how to become computer literate to improve and develop language learning and teaching (e.g. Son, 2004).

Computer literacy is a necessity for students because it: (1) lays the foundations for developing a critical understanding of the Information Age; (2) helps students make effective use of digital technology, both in classroom and workplace settings, improving attitudes and reducing frustration; (3) shapes a proactive view with respect to the undeniable role of technology in our current society; (4) assists 'technophobic' to overcome fears of increasing computerization of all aspects of daily life; (5) develops solid skills among students, so that we can collectively pursue more creative uses of computers in the syllabus; (6) extends the personal enjoyment thanks to keeping in touch by regular email exchange, for instance; (7) provides 'realia' for all those terms related to hardware, software, the Internet, and in general the whole online culture (Corbel & Gruba, 2004, pp. 5-6).

Preparing students to well-function in the digitalized society is the major role of language education. In ESL/EFL classrooms, where English is the lingua franca, although some students already have computer or digital literacy in their own cultures and languages, they have the challenge of finding and responding to the massive amount of English language data available on the Internet. Warschauer and Healey (1998) specified two indispensable domains for language teachers: (1) Finding, evaluating, and critically interpreting net-based information, and (2) Effective online writing. For the former domain, they suggested teachers to "go beyond how to decode texts, or understand them, and pay increasing attention to how to explore and interpret the vast range of online texts" (p. 65). Moreover, for the latter one, they recommended second language teachers "to teach students effective online writing skills [which] include both the genres of electronic communication as well as the relationship of texts to other media" (Warschauer & Healey, p. 65).

To blend technology successfully into the language classrooms, teachers required to construct their "working knowledge and skills in online environments" (Rilling, Dahlman, Dodson, Boyles & Pazvant, 2005, as quoted in Son, Robb & Charismiadji, 2011, p. 27) and have technical ability to apply several computer applications for educational targets (Cunningham, 2000). Hence, in CALL, the augmentation of language teachers' computer literacy is one of the most significant facets to consider (Hong, 2010), acknowledging the request for technology-proficient language teachers (Hubbard, 2008). Computer literate teachers and students will receive greater professions than those who lack this literacy.

There are some notes on the significance of electronic literacy for language learners. Hall (2001) mentioned that "How well we prepare learners of additional languages to meet the social, political, and economic challenges of the next

several decades will depend in part on our success in integrating technology into the foreign language curriculum" (p. 60). By this statement, we should not interpret it as integration any technological tools or devices, but he meant those technologies which would be suitable for language learning and teaching. Also, this author stated that "all domains and modes of communication are likely to involve not only conventional written and oral modalities but, given the influence of technology in our lives today, electronic ones as well" (Hall, 1999, p. 38).

As Kern & Warschauer (2000) remind us, computers like any other educational tools in the classroom for language teaching and learning do not in and of itself bring about enhancement in learning. However, teachers and learners should know how to use it in order to improve their language teaching and learning (p. 2).

In order to apply computer-assisted language learning (CALL) in language learning and teaching environments, language teachers and learners are needed to construct their knowledge and skills for implementing computers and enhance their competency in doing several kinds of CALL activities (Son, Robb & Charismiadji, 2011). Son, Robb and Charismiadji's (2011) study was to study the current level of computer literacy of 73 Indonesian in-service teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) and explore all those factors that may affect their use of computers in face-to-face lessons. A questionnaire was applied in order to collect data. The instrument composed of items regarding participants' background, use of computer applications, computer-related questions, computer knowledge test, and factors affecting the use of computers. Although data analysis showed that most teachers felt that their level of computer literacy, Internet literacy, and typing skills were adequate or higher, there were also great individual differences in the level of computer literacy. Son, Robb & Charismiadji (2011) concluded that "these differences bring about a need for a different approach to teacher training for a different background group of teachers, which allows teachers to improve their personal level of computer literacy and competency and gain online experience contextually relevant to their teaching situations" (p. 34).

In order to specify the levels of teachers' computer literacy, Konan (2010) conducted a study on 506 teachers in Turkey. The gather data via researcher-made questionnaire were analyzed using t-test and one-way analysis of variance. The results showed a significant difference between the levels computer literacy in terms of their gender, experience, and education level. The overall computer literacy of teachers was medium. Moreover, male, novice, highly educated, and subject teachers were more literate, in terms of computer, than female, experienced, low educated, and class teachers. Konan (2010) suggested teachers increase their computer literacy by achieving some international licenses like European Computer Driving License (ECDL).

Warshcauer (2008) conducted a 2-year multi-site case study in order to investigate literacy practices in 10 schools in California and Maine, the US, with one-to-one computing programs based on a sociocultural framework of literacy (Gee, 1996). Data collection included observation (650 hours), interviews (with 61 teachers, 32 school staff members, 67 students, and 31 parents), surveys (from 35 teachers and 877 students), and document reviews (teaching materials, student assignments, and student test scores). Collected data were analyzed through standard qualitative methods. The findings of the study were categorized in three main domains: reading, writing, and ICT literacy. For the purpose of this text, we have considered only ICT literacy. The findings revealed that, the ongoing access to new technology in one-to-one programs permitted both teachers and students to go beyond focusing on the mechanical aspects of ICT literacy like how to copy and paste information. In addition, regular access to the Internet allowed more exhaustive skills and competencies (Warschauer, Knobel, & Stone, 2004) such as a) more "just-in-time" learning, b) more individualized learning, c) greater ease in conducting research, and d) more empirical investigation (Warschauer, 2008b, p. 61).

IV. CONCLUSION

Globalization and the increasing range of ICT for communication led to the digital turn or "social turn" (Gee, 2000, p.180). Nowadays the meaning of literacy expanded from an ability to read and write to a broader definition which includes an ability to read and write both printed and electronic texts. In the 21st century, students need to promote their skills based on the time needs. The computer is an integral part of our daily lives; editing texts and photos, shopping, traveling, studying, etc. The computer technology becomes widely available and rapidly advanced. By this rapid progress, new literacies such as "computer literacy" and "electronic literacy" are brought up. Language teachers and students must develop their skills, prepare themselves for the future, and update themselves constantly. To be a competent individual in this information-based world, students and teachers should be aware of ways to access to information and actively making use of it. These qualities are achievable if they get familiar with new technologies and be a computer literate.

Students should learn how to assess their educational technologies from different point of views or subject positions (Selber, 2004). They should develop their multiple literacies in which how to use a technology by functional literacy, questioning technology by critical literacy, and finally producing or influencing technology by rhetorical literacy. These types of literacies are complimentary to each other, and all of them are necessary for language learners and teachers. "A considered focus on computer literacy in the classroom provides both teachers and students with a skill set to make better use of both CALL and productivity applications" (Corbel & Gruba, 2004, p. 7).

The Internet and all other computer-related texts suggest to educators, scholars, and students, a new adoption to new literacy which integrated into the educational context. Although printed materials are still the dominant media, the student should adapt themselves to new media; and therefore learn its literacy.

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English Pragmatics in Ecuador

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Abstract—**Research has revealed that developing the pragmatic ability is a key element for any second or foreign language learner. The present paper aims to shed some light on the issue of pragmatics as part of English teaching and learning in the context of Ecuador. This paper is part of a research project that will involve public high school English teachers of Cuenca, Ecuador. After extensive research, it has been found that even though pragmatics is now part of the new English curriculum in this country, research in this field of linguistics is almost nonexistent.**

Index Terms—**English pragmatics, speech acts, English as a foreign language**

I. INTRODUCTION

The field of pragmatics, as a key aspect of second and/or foreign language teaching and learning, has gained great importance in the last four decades (Ishihara &Cohen, 2010) because many studies have revealed major differences between how non-native speakers and native speakers produce certain speech acts. These differences are so significant that they could hinder communication. These variances between native and non-native language production have appeared even in advanced students of a second language, students with a great command of grammar, for example (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996). Kasper and Rose (2002) claim that the significance of developing the pragmatic ability when learning a second language has been demonstrated through many studies. If someone wants to develop communicative competence in another language, that person needs to learn not only the grammar of that language, but also the pragmatics (Leung, 2005). There is much research from around the world regarding the performance of English pragmatics by learners of this language; however, even though this language is taught as a mandatory subject in Ecuador, this area of linguistics has not been researched to a great extent in this country (Heras, 2014). The purpose of this paper is to discuss the importance of pragmatics research in the field of teaching and learning English as a foreign or second language. We also aim to shed some light on how this field of linguistics has been treated so far in the context of Ecuador, as this aspect of second/foreign language learning seems to be still in its infancy in this country.

It must be made clear that this paper constitutes part of a much bigger research study, which will involve public high school English teachers. We will explore how -or if- these teachers are incorporating pragmatics into their teaching. Pragmatics and sociolinguistics have been part of the Ecuadorian English curriculum for a year or so (Ministerio de educación, 2014). The data collection from the teachers will take place in September 2018.The information presented in this paper represents part of the literature review related to the research of English pragmatics in Ecuador and international settings.

Definitions of pragmatics

There are many definitions of pragmatics. The first idea that may come to someone's mind is that being pragmatic means being practical, as this is the broad meaning of this word (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). In linguistics, however, pragmatics has a deeper and more complex meaning, and, in some cases, it includes using language in a practical manner.

First, David Crystal (as cited in Kasper and Rose, 2002) argues that pragmatics is the field that analyzes language, taking into account the users' perspective. Pragmatics studies the manner in which the type of language people decide to use influences the success or failure in their communication. The problems they might have when interacting.

In addition, George Yule (1996) gives us a more thorough concept of this field of linguistics:

Pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader). It has consequently more to do with the analysis of what people mean by their utterances than what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves. Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning. Pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning. Pragmatics is the study of how more gets communicated than is said (p. 3).

Another noteworthy explanation of this area of academic study is given by Brian Paltridge (2012). This author states that pragmatics studies the meaning a person gives to their utterances according to the different contexts that come into play, namely, social, situational, and textual. Paltridge (2012) also emphasizes that background knowledge context is another main factor involved in communication; this refers to the knowledge people have about each other and about the world. This author goes on to say that when people interact, they follow some rules, whether they aware or not.

When these rules are not observed, problems in communication occur. This set of rules is what Grice (as cited in Heras, 2014) called the Cooperative Principle.

The cooperative principle

When we have a conversation with other people, wenormally -should- follow some rules. If everybody followed these rules, there would not be much interference or failure in communication. Sometimes conversations among native speakers of a certain language are difficult to understand because these rules might change from one context to another. However, more problems seem to appear when second language learners are not aware of these rules. This set of rules is known as the Cooperative Principle (Grice, as cited in Heras, 2014).

This principle contains four maxims that ideally people should observe when having a conversation. These maxims are:

The maxim of quantity: this maxim, mainly, states that people should communicate only the information that is needed, not more, not less.

The maxim of quality: this one relates tothe use of information that is perceived as genuinely true.

The maxim of relation: this rule is about using important information only, not information that is not relevant to the topic.

The maxim of manner: this maxim is about articulating one's ideas in a clear manner in order to avoid ambiguity, misunderstandings, or confusions, (Grice, as cited in Heras, 2014).

Grice (1975) gives an example to explain the Cooperative Principal being observed in what could be a common dialog.

Suppose that A and B are talking about a mutual friend, C, who is now working in a bank. A asks B how C is getting on in his job, and B replies, *Oh quite well, I think: he likes his colleagues and he hasn't been to prison yet* (p.43).

Now, the previous exchange can show us some of the concepts we have been discussing so far. For example, we have mentioned how context plays a very important role in the field of pragmatics. You need to know the context in order to understand why B answered in this way. This short conversation also shows us that even among speakers who are familiar with the context, it might be difficult to understand, without clarification, what the real message is; what exactly did B want to say?Furthermore, if this exchange were not understood by its listener, it would constitute a violation of the maxim of manner. But, if the listener did not need extra information to understand the message, it would an example of the maxim of quantity being observed by the speaker.

Teaching pragmatics

Kasper (1997) presents a report on the aspects of pragmatics that have been taught in classrooms, according to research. This author includes an analysis of several pieces of research that have reported the fact that teaching pragmatics is important and that it can be taught in an explicit manner. It should be noted, however, that research shows that some elements of pragmatics seem to be more difficult to teach than others. One of these aspects is implicature (Kasper, 1997). But the great majority of research studies show that pragmatics can and should be taught. Kasper and Rose (2002) cite Schmidt to argue that simply exposing learners to the pragmatics of the target language might not be enough for them to acquire them. What is more, people, especially children, are directly taught the pragmatics of their native language whenever teachers, parents, or caregivers think it necessary. Students of a second or foreign language can learn how to be pragmatically competent in the target language as a result of carefully planned classroom instruction. The teacher plays an important role here because outside the classroom, students have little possibility of learning the pragmatics of the target language and also of receiving feedback on their performance (Kasper and Rose, 2002).

Now, let us examine one research study which focused on the effects of explicitly teaching refusals to Iranian university students. Farahian, Rezaee, &Gholami (2012), report that a treatment and a control group were used, along with a pre and posttest. The results showed that the experimental group did significantly better on the posttest than the control group. These authors also suggest using films and videos as a source of authentic-like input material (see also Abrams, 2014).

Another study focused on the explicit teaching of requests to EFL learners. Rajabia, Azizifara, &Gowhary, (2015) report that after using explicit instruction of L2 pragmatics with EFL learners, the experimental group noticeably improved their mean on the posttest, whereas there was not much difference on the control group performance. The authors did emphasize that the students who had a better command of grammar did significantly better on both the pre and the posttest.

Although there is evidence that researchers and teachers around the world are starting to use the evidence available to improve the teachers' role in the classroom , it is important to mention that Ishihara and Cohen (2010) claim that while the interest in researching pragmatics has grown exponentially in the last four decades or so, most of these studies focus only on demonstrating that the majority of second or foreign language learners are lacking the pragmatic ability of the target language. According to these authors, not much has been done to try to remedy this situation. In other words, investigators, teachers, textbook writers and editors are not taking advantage of what research has revealed, namely the need to incorporate pragmatics in the teaching practice. One of the reasons why textbook creators do not incorporate pragmatics as part of the content is that teaching pragmatics is difficult; its rules are not clear-cut rules like grammar, for example. The rules of pragmatics may vary from one culture to another even though they might speak the same

language. The authors of these books base the content on their own intuition and introspections, which according to research could cause problems as it reflects only a very limited part of how language is used; normally, it does not include how the target language is employed in reality by the majority of the members of a specific speech community. It is time now to start putting into practice what research has revealed. Teachers should also begin to do their own research in their context to find out how pragmatically developed their students are in the target language and take the necessary measures to improve their learners' communicative competence (Ishihara and Cohen, 2010).

Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan (2003) argue that the lack of pragmatic ability in second language learners is one of the main reasons why they cannot communicate effectively with native or high proficiency speakers. These authors allege that many times the lack of pragmatic ability is thought to be because of personal issues rather than the process of teaching and learning. The instruction in this field of language learning should be introduced as early as possible. There is no reason to wait until the students have a great command of grammar to teach them pragmatics. The main goal of teaching pragmatics is to "raise learners' pragmatic awareness and give them choices about their interactions in the target language" (p.38). As for the techniques for teaching pragmatics, Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan (2003) state that there is no single best approach. They suggest, however, using authentic language samples, and before any production or interpretation by the students, there should be input.

Previous studies

As mentioned earlier many researchers around the world are interested in the field of second language pragmatics because 1) the development of the pragmatic ability is key for acquiring communication competence; and 2) apparently, second language learners are not being taught how to develop this skill efficiently. (see also Al-Tayib, 2006; Bardovi-Harlig, & Dornyei,1998; Kwai-peng, 2016; Bardovi-Harlig, 2013).

In a study conducted by Edwards and Csiszér (2004), it was found that Hungary high school EFL learners were having problems performing openings and closings in conversations with their native speakers counterparts. Therefore, the researchers decided to create a booklet with activities to try to remedy this situation. The interesting part of this study is that part of the tasks that were assigned to the students involved translating some greetings and leave-takings from Hungarian to English. They used very informal Hungarian language so the students would have to think hard as to how to convey the same level of informality and the same message in the target language. Role-plays as the pre and posttest were also used. The results showed that even after only four weeks of explicit instruction, the students in the treatment group improved their performance of the speech act of opening and closing conversations. This improvement was measured in terms of appropriateness. In other words, the students had to choose the correct kind of language according to the context in the role-plays.

In another study, Fukuya, & Martínez, (2008) compared the effects between the explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatics. Role-plays were also used to look at the participants' realization of the speech act of suggesting. Both groups -the explicit and implicit- were given the same input, that is, videos of native English speakers making suggestions. The group where direct instruction was used was taught how to give suggestions based on what they saw in the videos. For the other group, the suggestions were underlined in the subtitles of the videos. After the lessons, as a posttest, both groups had to make suggestions in role-plays, via email and on the phone. The results showed that both groups improved their scores in comparison with the pretest. It was also found that the group where explicit instruction was used performed better than the other group in the activity in which they had to suggest on the phone. However, in the email activity both groups performed equally.

The use of sitcoms as a means of raising pragmatic awareness in university EFL learners was used by Martínez and Fernández (2008). In addition, the authors' intention was to use various excerpts from a popular sitcom to explain and discuss with the students the Cooperative Principle being followed. It was concluded that the explicit teaching of pragmatics helps raise students' pragmatic awareness. Furthermore, the authors claim that the Gricean model, though an old theory, is still effective enough to be used as a guide for teaching how real conversations take place.

II. THE ECUADORIAN CASE

In the year 2012, the Ecuadorian Government decided to test the English proficiency of public high school English teachers. The results were not encouraging, as this study showed that the great majority of these teachers had a very low level of proficiency. The Government said that if our teachers cannot speak English, how can we expect our students to learn it (Ecuador tiene falencias, 2012).

However, it is common knowledge that the Ecuadorian Government has not tested these teachers' English proficiency since the previously mentioned date. It would be interesting to find out if their level has improved or not.

One of the measures that the Ecuadorian Government took was to make changes to the English curriculum. The new Ecuadorian national English curriculum takes into account the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. In other words, learners' level is now measured A1, B1, etc. Part of the changes that were made to the curriculum is the incorporation of pragmatics in the teaching practice, which is stated on the document (Ministerio de educación, 2014). Research is needed to find out whether teachers are aware of what pragmatics even is, and if they are incorporating this field into their lessons.

Based on this review of the literature, we want to shed some light on this issue by raising the following research question.

To what extent has English pragmatics been researched in Ecuador?

III. METHOD

We wanted to demonstrate the importance of including pragmatics into the classroom as well as the significance of doing research in this field. In addition, we wanted to find out the extent to which this field has been researched in Ecuador.

Since in Ecuador, research in the field of linguistics, particularly pragmatics is still in its infancy, and only very few professional research studies regarding English pragmatics were found, a decision was made to study, especially, masters level theses which included studies in this field in the 10 major universities of Ecuador -according to international rankings-, although we do include one bachelor ś degree thesis. Additionally, we decided to include part of what has been researched around the world in the field of pragmatics, especially when teaching and learning English as a second or foreign language. The criteria for including the research studies in the *previous studies* section was that they had to be carried out in contexts where English is taught as a foreign language. As we mentioned before, the review of the literature is not finished yet.

IV. RESULTS

As stated earlier, the present paper is part of a more thorough study, the results of which will be reported in approximately two years. So far, after intensive online research, this is what has been found in terms of the research question for this paper.

First, we must mention one study on Spanish pragmatics in Ecuador that was not part of the teaching and learning environment. It was conducted by Hardin (2013). It basically looked at how the lack of Spanish pragmatic ability in some English-speaking doctors caused misunderstandings and therefore they were unable to understand the real message of patients, and they would become confused because they understood that their patients reported something different from their real symptoms.

The first study we will mention does not mention the word pragmatics in its title, but it is directly related. As part of a graduation project at master ś level, Burbano (2011) wanted to discover if the English textbook that was being used in Ecuadorian public high schools at that time offered students any possibility of developing the pragmatic elements of adjacency pairs and backchannels. The author also used questionnaires to find out if the high school teachers were including these elements into their practice. The results showed that the backchannels presented in the textbook seemed insufficient for students to be able to use them in different contexts. Additionally, the adjacency pairs found in the book did not represent the manner in which native speakers ask and answer questions in real life situations. Moreover, the teachers in general did not make use of the pragmatic features mentioned above in their classrooms.

There is one study that focuses on English pragmatics, but it was carried out by an undergraduate student as a graduation project. This piece of research showed that most students of English as a foreign language at a university in Ecuador use the target language in a way that would be considered inappropriate for native speakers. The author emphasizes that these students might have serious problem in communication because of their lack of English pragmatics. Another aspect that was found in this investigation was that the learners also showed significant deficiencies in their grammar and vocabulary (Rengifo, 2017).

The next research study was carried out at the University of Cuenca, Ecuador by Heras (2014). This one and Burbano's work (2011) are the only ones found at a master's level. It showed that 1) student teachers who had taken a subject called basic pragmatics before the investigation took place still remembered what this field deals with; 2) more research on English pragmatics needs to be carried out in Ecuador; 3) English learners in general lack pragmatic ability in the target language; and 4) the use of sitcoms for raising students' pragmatic and sociolinguistic awareness might be a good idea as they show many excerpts of real-like use of language, which might be different from the English in many textbooks (Heras, 2014).

V. CONCLUSIONS

Based on this review of the literature in the field of pragmatics, we selected the following as the major conclusions.
Pragmatics is a key element in the field of teaching and learning a foreign or second language.
Most research on pragmatics is mainly exploratory.
Many textbook writers and teachers do not make use of what research has found in terms of using language in a natural manner in order to avoid breakdowns in communication.
The discourse completion test (DCT) is the most commonly used research instrument in the area of pragmatics.
Many studies demonstrate that pragmatics can and should be taught in the classroom after carefully planning the lessons.
Films and series can be used as authentic-like material to be used for instruction.
It could be said that even though it is now part of the new English curriculum, research on pragmatics in Ecuador is almost nonexistent. This is a serious issue because teachers and researchers need to be aware that there is a field of

English teaching and learning that could help their students drastically improve their communication in the target language, namely English.

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A Contrastive Analysis between English Vocabulary Profile and College English Wordlist

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Abstract—**This paper makes a contrastive analysis between *English Vocabulary Profile (EVP)* and *College English Wordlist* (CEW) from the aspects of philosophy, vocabulary, criteria and word frequency. Results show that the latter has a numerical advantage in the mere term of vocabulary, but these words are mainly passive ones. By contrast, the former attaches greater importance to the number of active words and usage, and is more concerned with learners' actual word power. This study sheds light on the reform of college English teaching and the preparation of the vocabulary syllabus.**

Index Terms—**English vocabulary profile, vocabulary learning, active words, passive words**

I. OVERVIEW

The study of learner vocabulary lists dates back to as early as 1588, when Timothy Bright published an "island vocabulary" of 559 English words which could be used to cover the meanings of 6,000 (Fox, 1979, p.65). However, the empirical study of vocabulary size for learners did not start until the 20th century, when Edward J. Thorndike compiled *A Teacher's Word Book* (1921), *A Teacher's Word Book of 20,000 Words* (1932), *A Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words* (1944). In addition, the famous linguist CK Ogden (1930) introduced the basic English wordlist consisting of 850 words, while Michael West (1953) introduced a *General Service List* of 2000 basic words.

In an era of science quantification, the mechanistic view that learners can easily surmount the language barrier by a grasp of grammar and a sizeable vocabulary seems virtually self-evident to second-language teachers. It is no wonder that training courses promising quick expansion of vocabulary have always remained a mainstay in various language training programs across the world. In the past five decades or so, however, a paradigm shift towards empiricism marked by the rise of corpus linguistics gave rise to a new boom of vocabulary lists, notable among which is Mark Davies' series of wordlists based on his Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)[1]. The corpus-driven methodology has also branched into empirical analyses of language units beyond the word level which include, inter alia, collocations and word chunks. Those so-called "pre-fabricated chunks" (Bishop, 2004; Boers et al., 2006) can be automatically extracted from the corpus by the frequency of occurrence. The ability to use language chunks is also deemed an important indicator of language competence.

In the same vein, the College English Teaching Steering Committee of China also launched *College English Curriculum Requirements* which conveys a College English Wordlist (7,821 words), of which the active vocabulary being 2,404. English Major Teaching Syllabus Glossary Working Group launched a TEM-4/8 Vocabulary (2004) of 13,000 words. These quantitative indicators that are harvested from first-hand language materials prove useful in guiding our teaching. On the one hand, language education policymakers can use these wordlists to determine the level of proficiency of language learners as an important indicator; on the other hand, the boom of overseas education in China witnessed Chinese students cramming words in preparation for TOEFL, GRE or IELTS. It is thus no wonder that books or training courses promoting various mnemonic skills of words have been embraced by learners with blind craze. Some English learning websites and online dictionaries have launched English word mnemonic functions and applications; to adapt to the era of mobile Internet, vendors have also released a plethora of word mnemonic apps that can be installed into smartphones. This exam-centered learning approach that aspires to instant success of word learning often leads to over-reliance on the vocabulary. As a result, the student's negative vocabulary can grow rapidly, but their positive vocabulary is disproportionally small in comparison. In other words, although students can recognize a large number of words, they can barely read professional articles, for their active vocabulary is still very poor. The results of the study of the learner corpus show that Chinese learners command limited types of word collocations while errors in collocations abound (Deng, 2005, p.9), over-reliance on high-frequency vocabulary (Deng, 2007, p.17), colloquial style in written communication which does not improve in proportion to the overall level of English competence (Wen, Ding & Wang, 2003; Liu, 2005).

In addition to the abovementioned problems exposed by scholars based on their study of learners corpora, learners themselves are not satisfied with the efficiency of their foreign language learning. Therefore complaints on the "time-

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[1] Mark Davies produced 5,000 to 60,000 word vocabulary words and 100,000 word vocabulary, of which 50 word vocabulary can be downloaded free, see http://www.wordfrequency.info/ .

consuming inefficiency" in English learning arose one after another, with maladies labelled "dumb English" or "high score but poor competence" and various other accusations on an endless litany. However, the excessive concern for vocabulary and glossaries cannot be attributed to foreign language teachers, nor is it the intention of policy makers. The general consensus of the foreign language community is that intensive study of words in the hope of cracking vocabulary may show short-term benefits of improvement but cannot improve the vocabulary competence (Gui, 2006, p.62). If such hasty efforts are not complemented by a proportionate amount of aural or visual input of language materials, language attrition may follow suit after the examination. As Gui (2006, p.64) points out, whatever approach to vocabulary learning should be based on language in use. Only the use of language, including listening, speaking, reading, writing can help learners consolidate their knowledge of vocabulary. If you do not use the words you learn, they will soon be forgotten. Therefore when learners try to memorize words without using them, they gain immediate benefits at the cost of long-term knowledge. Although many learners can pass language exams, they usually find that their verbal or written communication skills remain as poor as before.

Therefore it is necessary to interpret the English Vocabulary Profile by University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations to see how an empirical approach to vocabulary in use may reveal the authentic vocabulary competence of English learners.

II. Introduction to English Vocabulary Profile (EVP) and College English Wordlist (CEW)

A. The English Profile and the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR)

English Profile was jointed developed in 2007 by the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, Cambridge University Press, British Council, Cambridge University, University of Bedfordshire and English UK under the active support from the Council of Europe. Currently the project is still under way. The EVP project is already launched, while the English Functions Profile, English Grammar Profile and other modules are still being developed. The most distinctive feature of EVP is that this is a corpus-driven glossary based on Cambridge Learner Corpus. The corpus brings together hundreds of thousands of test papers around the world by students who take Cambridge English examinations. From this huge corpus of more than 45 million words, researchers extract words, concepts and phrases that reflect the general vocabulary of learners of different levels (Good, 2010, p.114).

For each level of English competence there is one glossary that is divided into two versions, namely the British English version and the American English version. The glossary is composed of words, phrases, phrasal verbs and idioms, which reflect the actual language competence of learners who are qualified for each level of the CEFR. A major feature is that words and phrases are assigned to different levels by the frequency of their meaning, as shown below:

degree /dɪˈɡriː/   Outline view

▶ NOUN

TEMPERATURE

A2 [C] a unit for measuring temperature, shown by the symbol ° written after a number

Dictionary example:

Water boils at 212 degrees Fahrenheit and 100 degrees Celsius/Centigrade.

Learner example:

Today it is very windy and too cold for bathing, just about 15 degrees.

Preliminary English Test; B1; Swedish

QUALIFICATION

B1 [C] a qualification given for completing a university course

Dictionary examples:

"What degree did you do at York?" "Geography."

She's got a physics degree/a degree in physics from Oxford.

Learner example:

I completed my languages degree course at U.P.N University.

Preliminary English Test; B1; Spanish

AMOUNT

B2 [C or U] an amount or level of something

Dictionary examples:

This job demands a high degree of skill.

A good society depends on the degree to which people are able to trust each other.

Learner example:

Can you imagine the degree of pollution you absorb in crossing London every morning by bicycle?

First Certificate in English; B2; French

a/some degree of sth

C2 a small level or amount of something

Dictionary examples:

There was some degree of truth in what she said.

The plan involves a degree of risk, but it is worth trying.

Learner example:

Nevertheless, some degree of freedom is obviously necessary for [the] healthy development of a young individual.

Certificate of Proficiency in English; C2; Polish

Figure 1. The word "degree" in four different levels in EVP

This example shows that the verb "degree" is divided into four separate entries based on its four different meaning, each classified into a separate CEFR ranging from B1 to C2. To help learners, the site also provides example sentences from the dictionary and sentences written by EFL learners, ending with tags indicating the level and the geographical region of the candidate. These examples from the learner corpus can well reflect the true linguistic competence of the learners.

It should be explained that the level A1 to C2 corresponds exactly to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The CEFR is a project developed by Council of Europe. It divides language learner/user's language proficiency into six levels of three classes, namely, C2 Mastery, C1 Effective operational proficiency, B2 Vantage, B1 Threshold, A2 Waystage and A1 Breakthrough. Grade C corresponds to a proficient user, while the class B reflects an independent user. The class A1 and A2 collectively reflect a basic user. This standard has been widely implemented around the world. Chinese linguists have begun to study the issues of aligning various language tests to the CEFR. Since the Cambridge English examinations are already aligned with the CEFR, the English competence of candidates who pass the Cambridge English (Advanced) Exam should be considered C1 on the CEFR list[2].

The current research is performed by comparing the CVP glossary with the CEW glossary developed by the Chinese team of college English professors. The CEW glossary was released in 2007 as the appendix of the document College English Curriculum Requirements issued by the Ministry of Education of China, exerting an increasingly broad impact on the English education of China, because it has an important guiding significance to college English teaching and testing.

B. Comparability and the Significance of a Comparative Study

The comparability is well justified by the resemblance between the two projects. Both the CVP and the CEW were developed to determine the English competence of EFL learners by some of the most distinguished scholars in the two countries. The current analysis is based on the following considerations:

1. The learner orientation

Both CEW and CVP are oriented towards EFL learners. The CEW project is oriented towards college-level EFL learners of China, as a benchmark for the evaluation of students' English competence in teaching and testing. The CVP project is developed by top-notch EFL scholars who built a learner corpus composed of Cambridge English exam test papers. It remains unknown whether the former was built in a corpus-driven approach, but these two projects share the same orientation, and the target group of students are closely intertwined and overlapped.

2. Levels of English competence

Cambridge English exams are composed of five levels, each corresponding to one of the levels ranging from A2 to C2, a system which is perfectly compatible with the CEFR system.

A2	Key
B1	Preliminary
B2	First
C1	Advanced
C2	Proficiency

Figure 2. The scale of levels of Cambridge English examinations.

By contrast, the CEW is designed for college students in China. Although without the benchmark of "can-do" lists in College English Curriculum Requirements (CECR) or any official alignment between the College English Test (CET) Band 4 or Band 6 with the CEFR scale, the author observes that most college English learners in China can attain the level of B on the CEFR scale and a few can attain C. This is also testified by three-level classification of teaching requirements in the CECR document. To illustrate the comparability between the "can-do" lists of the CEFR document and the "can-do" descriptions of the CECR, this paper uses the example of written skills:

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[2] See http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/exams/advanced for a detailed description of the alignment of Cambridge English exams with the CEFR.

TABLE 1.
"CAN-DO" DESCRIPTORS OF WRITTEN COMPETENCE BETWEEN CECR AND CEFR

CECR "can-do" descriptors (Competence of written expression) (Ministry of Education of China, 2007) (My translation)	CEFR "can-do" descriptors (Written Interaction) (Council of Europe, 2001, p.83)	CEFR "can-do" descriptors (Written Production) (Council of Europe, 2001, p.61)
Competence of written expression (**Advanced**): can write short reports and articles in English in one's own field or discipline; can freely express personal views in written form; can write a descriptive or expository article of at least 200 words within 30 minutes, with a clear view, rich content, a clear structure and good logic	I can express myself with clarity and precision, relating to the addressee flexibly and effectively in an assured, personal style.	**C2**. I can write clear, smoothly flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles, which present a case with an effective logical structure, which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works.
		C1. I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write detailed expositions of complex subjects in an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can write different kinds of texts in a style appropriate to the reader in mind.
Competence of written expression (**Upper**): can express personal views on general topics; can write the English abstract of a paper of one's own field or discipline; can write a short paper on one's own field of study; can describe charts and diagrams with words; can produce a short composition of at least 160 words within 30 minute, with a complete idea, a clear view, good structure and smooth expressions.	**B2**. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.	**B2**. I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view.
	B1. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.	**B1**. I can write straightforward connected text on topics, which are familiar, or of personal interest.
Competence of written expression (**General**): can accomplish general writing assignments; can describe personal experience, feelings, emotions and events; can write for practical purposes of generic genres; can write a short composition of at least 120 words on a general topic or outline within 30 minutes, with a complete idea and a clear central idea, can use the right words to achieve coherence; can master basic writing skills.	**A2**. I can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate need. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	**A2**. I can write a series of simple phrases and sentences linked with simple connectors like "and", "but" and "because".
	A1. I can write a short, simple postcard, for examples sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	**A1**. I can write simple isolated phrases and sentences.

This table shows that the "can-do" statements of the CECR are divided into three levels while those of the CEFR are divided into six levels. In spite of the differences in classification and description, we can find that there is a rough correspondence in between. For example, the highest levels of written competence of both are quite similar with each other, both covering reports and articles. However, the CECR's requirements are obviously lower than those at the C2 level of the CEFR. Therefore this paper tentatively aligns the Advanced level of written communication of the CECR to a level between B2 and C1 of the CEFR.

3. The size of glossaries

According to Capel (2010: 5), the sizes of vocabulary of CEFR A1 to B2 are as follows:

CEFR A1	601
New words at CEFR A2	925
New words at CEFR B1	1,429
New words at CEFR B2	1,711

The grand total of words from A1 to C2 is 6,970 headwords, so we can estimate that the new Grade C should be composed of 2,304 words (Capel, 2012: 4).

The source of Grade A and Grade B is slightly different from that of Grade C. The former derived entirely from the answer sheets of test papers while the Grade C reference vocabulary is collected entirely from a corpus of native English speakers. Capel (2010, 2012) explains that in Grade A and Grade B, there is no drastic difference between the learner's receptive knowledge and output vocabulary, and the modern communicative approach to language teaching encourages students to use what they have learned in actual use. Especially in this Internet era, students have far better opportunities of using foreign language, so researchers did not distinguish between passive vocabulary and active vocabulary for the levels below B2. By contrast, for the levels starting from C1, the receptive knowledge may be more extensive than the actual output of the vocabulary range, and learners have learned to use the logical skills to guess the actual meanings of words by the context, so they consulted the frequency information of corpora of native English speakers and academic English vocabulary during their preparation of Grade C glossary.

III. A CONTRAST BETWEEN EVP AND CEW

A. Data Collection

The EVP project is freely available at http://vocabulary.englishprofile.org/ to all interested language teachers and researchers. Subscription is free to all who register for the project. However, the glossary can only be retrieved in dynamic webpages through manual queries. Therefore the author had to scroll through all pages from A1 to C2 and copy all the content of each standalone meaning and is listed at webpage. The HTML webpages are cleaned manually and imported into a spreadsheet document. Thus we arrived at a complete glossary of the EVP.

B. A Contrastive Analysis of the Criteria of Selection

First, the difference in the criterion of entry separateness.

The most obvious difference between words in the CEW and the EVP is the criterion of entries. As mentioned above, the words of the EVP are listed as separate entries by each standalone meaning and are listed at different levels by their frequency of occurrence. The benefit of this approach is that it can amply reflect the degree of mastery and ability of the learner. In contrast, the CECR promulgated by China's Ministry of Education in 2007 adopts a much simpler and traditional approach to the entries. Each standalone word as an entry appears only once in the CEW, however many meanings it has. In some cases such as the homographs, words are separated. For example, the homograph "bank" is divided into bank1 and bank2. The latter is a traditional approach to vocabulary that treats words in a lexicographical manner. By contrast, the former is the latest novelty thanks to the prevalence of corpus linguistics.

Second, the difference in the handling of idioms and collocations.

The difference in the selection of idioms and collocations reflect different approaches to language learning. The CEW reflects a rather traditional approach to the compilation of wordlists. While phrases constitute an integral part of the wordlist, collocations never made their way into it. By contrast, the EVP embraces collocations and daily word combinations, reflecting a more liberal approach to vocabulary learning. Here are some of the examples from the EVP:

I can't tell you how ...
taste good/bad/sweet
reasonably priced
Oh no!
have been meaning to do

These collocations or phrases can hardly be found in the entries of traditional dictionaries or wordlists. This makes it much more difficult to compare the two wordlists. Therefore this paper makes a tentative comparison of the two wordlists at the word level rather than the phrase level.

Third, the proportion of active vs. passive vocabulary.

It was clearly specified in the CECR that of the 7,676 words and phrases in the CEW, 2,367 belong to active vocabulary. However, there is no description as to the approach of preparation to this wordlist. By contrast, as aforementioned, the EVP wordlist is composed mainly of the active vocabulary extracted from test papers. Only C1 and C2 were prepared based on the corpora of native English speakers.

C. Part-of-speech (POS) Comparison

Since a POS comparison can reveal the different attitudes to the compilation of wordlists, the author performed POS tagging and retrieval using the software program Tree Tagger (Liang, 2010). Results are shown below:

TABLE 2.
COMPARISON OF EVP AND CEW BY POS

POS Codes	DEFINITIONS	EVP	CEW
CC	Coordinating conjunction	11	10
CD	Cardinal number	27	28
DT	Determiner	13	11
FW	Foreign word	2	2
IN	Preposition or subordinating conjunction	61	56
JJ	Adjective	1391	1497
JJR	Adjective, comparative	8	4
JJS	Adjective, superlative	9	3
LS	List item marker	0	0
MD	Modal	10	11
NN	Noun, singular or mass	3430	4523
NNS	Noun, plural		32
NP	Proper noun, singular	2	36
NPS	Proper noun, plural	0	0
PDT	Predeterminer	1	1
POS	Possessive ending	0	0
PP	Personal pronoun	17	18
PP $	Possessive pronoun	7	6
RB	Adverb	*510*	*217*
RBR	Adverb, comparative	10	4
RBS	Adverb, superlative	0	1
RP	Particle	0	3
SYM	Symbol	1	0
TO	To	1	2
UH	Interjection	1	0
VB	Verb, base form	1	1
VV	verb, base form	569	808
VVD	verb, past tense	89	25
VVN	verb, gerund / participle	*116*	*25*
VVG	verb, past participle	*121*	*37*
VVP	verb, present, non-3rd p.	244	268
VVZ	verb, present 3d p. sing.	*34*	*2*
WP	wh-determiner	4	4
WDT	wh-pronoun	3	3
WP $	possessive wh-pronoun	1	1
WP	verb, base form	4	4
WRB	verb, past tense	7	7

As shown in the above table, the total vocabulary of the EVP is lower than that of the CEW, so the numbers of nouns and verbs are justifiably less than those of the latter. However, it's interesting to note that, in spite of the gap between the EVP and the CEW, there are a few exceptions in which the former far outnumbers the latter. The most prominent case is the number of adverbs (RB)—the number of adverbs in the EVP is about twice as much as that of the latter. Other significant variations that deserve our attention are the different derivations of verbs: past participle, third person singular and other forms (all these deviations are marked in italicized bold letters in the table). This phenomenon is quite interesting. It was observed that the adverbs of "-ly" suffices included in the EVP are as high as 365, while the CEW included only 76. It should be noted that the conventional approach to lexicography is that the majority of adverbs are not included as separate entries in the learner's dictionaries, but rather in the part of definition or example sentences under the entries of their adjective forms. For example, the word "importantly" in the EVP can be treated as a separate entry in *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE)*; however in *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary (OALD)*, *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary (COBUILD)* and most other dictionaries, it is only found under the entry "important." It seems that this approach of the EVP is aligned with that of LDOCE, that is, emphasis on the description of the learner's actual vocabulary competence.

The various inflections of verbs, however, derive from the fact that the EVP incorporates a large number of idioms and fixed combinations which entail the necessary inflections to reflect the actual use of words. For example, the third person singular verb form (VVZ) "appears" can be found in the entry "it appears (that)" (CEFR B2). It also shows great attention to phrases, idioms and collocations in the EVP. Although a far cry from the traditional practice of Thorndike, it reflects the new approaches of a new era in which the words are not treated in isolation but in combination with other words in the context.

D. Comparative Analysis of the Unique Word

Unique words are a good indicator of the differences between two wordlists. They can be extracted by following Feng's approach (2010, p.216). In this paper, the author used the computer program Concordance 3.2 (Watt, 2004). Results of this comparison show an interesting difference between the CEW and the EVP:

Although the EVP (British English portion) has a vocabulary of 6,935 while the CEW has 7,676, with the gap of only 741 in between. However, the number of unique words in the CEW is 2,572. In other words, these 2,572 words cannot be found in the EVP. Conversely, the number of unique words in the EVP is 1,875. So what are the causes of such great difference?

To examine this difference, the author chose the unique words of Letter A of the EVP and the CEW. Though limited in quantity, this case study contributes to understanding of the principles of preparation. In the case of the EVP, most unique words are derivations that are not routinely included in the entries of traditional dictionaries, especially the adverbs ending with "-ly" and the adjectives ending with "-ed" (usually deriving from verbs). The number of the former is 19 while the latter numbers 17, together accounting for nearly half of the 82 unique words of the EVP in the part of Letter A. In contrast, the 206 unique words of the CEW seem more "demanding", reflecting a more advanced level of vocabulary in use. Those words like "abbey", "abduct", "abreast", "accomplish" are obviously advanced words with much higher level of difficulty. From the part of Letter A, the level of difficulty of the CEW is generally higher than the overall requirements of the EVP. And since the EVP is perfectly compatible with the CEFR, it seems that some words in the CEW have surpassed the level of CEFR C2.

E. Analysis of Causes

1) Corpus selection. EVP is mainly based on the learner corpus of foreign candidates for the Cambridge English examinations. Those foreign learners' active vocabulary is limited, but their actual passive vocabulary may be much larger than the former. The CEW, by contrast, is based on college English textbooks in China and other published wordlists, both of which being basically built upon the corpora of English native speakers.

2) The competence orientation. EVP embodies the plurilingual language and pluricultural competence orientation, emphasizing the "can do" indicators of learners in the real communication environment. As a result, this wordlist is not built for the pursuit of advanced vocabulary or the reading competence in written communication, but rather focuses on the verbal communication and cultural experience of learners.

Of course, given the differences between the EVP and the CEW, a contrastive of the Letter A part is still inadequate, calling for more means to be incorporated for further in-depth analysis.

IV. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

EVP embodies the learner competence-oriented foreign language teaching philosophy. As the latest research achievement of the international academic community, its main features include separate entries of words based on meaning and word class, a large number of idioms and regular combinations, authentic example sentences retrieved from the learner corpus, etc. These deserve full attention and in-depth study from the foreign language community.

The EVP project is based on the Cambridge learner corpus from Cambridge English Examination testpapers. The examinations per se are not a natural environment for language in use, and candidates are supposed to write on prescribed topics, hence it is unlikely for them to produce their most natural writing or oral output. The EVP team is currently building corpora based on other learner corpora, including classroom assignments, extracurricular assignments, classroom discussions, day-to-day chats, based on data from 16 primary and secondary schools and individual teachers worldwide (Good, 2010). Although some of the passive words at the C1 and C2 levels were extracted from the vocabulary of Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000), it is still insufficient. According to the provisions of CEFR, C2 should be equivalent to 8.5-9 points of IELTS, and with very few candidates reaching the point of 9. The 6,000 words and phrases in EVP may mislead learners into believing that they could get 9 points in IELTS if they can master these words, but in fact it is obviously impossible.

Of course, the use of corpus tools in this study also has some limitations. On the one hand, the corpus tool of this study can only reveal the frequency of words at the word level, but cannot fully consider the idioms and fixed collocations; on the other hand, in order to facilitate research, the author performed POS tagging with Tree Tagger. Given the 3% error rate of automatic POS tagging, there is understandably a small margin for errors in this quantitative research.

In short, the EVP is a useful reference wordlist, and its elaborate description of the actual vocabulary competence of learners sheds light on future efforts. However, it has to be noted that EVP as a descriptive research cannot be used directly to guide the compilation of teaching materials and language exam research and development, and proper caution should be made to prevent students from rote memorization of the EVP wordlist, for this approach deviated from the original intention of the researchers and is thus not conducive to the normal language learning process.

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The Effect of Structured Input, Meaningful Output and Traditional Instruction on EFL Learners' Productive Use of Passive Voice

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Abstract—**This study aimed at investigating the effect of structured input, meaningful output and traditional instruction on EFL learners' productive use of passive voice. To achieve this purpose 60 intermediate female EFL learners were selected from Fahim institute in Kermanshah. They were assigned into three experimental groups (structured input, meaningful output and traditional instruction group). To analyze the collected data of three experimental groups, ANOVA and a post hoc Scheffe was run. The results showed the superiority of structured input technique over the other two techniques. All in all, the findings of the present study confirms the use of structured input technique for the purpose of developing productive use of linguistic items. This study has implications for EFL teachers, teacher educators, and material developers.**

Index Terms—**meaningful output, processing input, structured input activity, traditional instruction**

I. INTRODUCTION

For many second or foreign language learners, speaking skill in English is a main concern. Therefore language learning success and productivity of English course are assessed based on learner's improvement in spoken language proficiency (Richards, 2006). In the same line Nunan (2001) claimed functioning in another language is generally characterized by the ability to speak that language. Similarly, Luoma (2004) stated that speaking skills are an important object of assessment because of its significance in language teaching.

The development of speaking ability is measured in terms of progresses made in "complexity", "accuracy", and "fluency". (Skehan, 1998). Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) believed that improving performance instantly and gaining in accuracy over time are the result of pushing learners to improve the accuracy of their production. In order to achieve higher level of accuracy in L2, Form-focused instruction is effective when it is used in meaningful communicative contexts (Ellis, 2001; Long, 1991).

VanPatten (1996, 2002a, 2004a) developed and reviewed a pedagogical task, Processing Instruction (PI), as an explicit Form-Focused Instruction (FFI). VanPatten (2004a) believes that in PI, in contrast to traditional approaches, explicit information about processing strategy and the correct target language strategy as well as focus on form activities, called Structured Input activities are given to the students that somewhat guide them away from production.

VanPatten (2000) defined Traditional grammar Instruction (TI) as another type of explicit FFI that move learners from mechanical to communicative drills. TI includes explanation plus output practice of a grammatical point and pays attentions to the handling of learner output to influence change in the developing system. Meaningful output is the other type of FFL and its role has been highlighted by a number of SLA researchers (e.g., Izumi, 2003, Izumi & Izumi, 2004). Swain (1985, 1995) suggested that moving learners from semantic processing prevailing in comprehension to syntactic processing crucial for production may be inspired by output. Indeed, by being 'pushed' to produce language, in order to produce precise, proper language learners are necessitated to emphasis on syntactic and morphological features of the language. The output tasks, which attempt to fix focus on form, were employed by several researchers. Dictogloss and text reconstruction task as well-researched cooperative output tasks provide a meaning-focused context to raise learners' consciousness of the use of the target linguistic feature. But they may not direct learners' attention to the preset target linguistic forms.

Focus on Form require to be a part of a wider L2 learning instruction that should provide meaningful and form-focused instruction and a variety of prospects for L2 input, output, interaction, and practice (Fotos & Nassaji, 2007). Regarding the varied consequences stated up to now, more research studies are necessitated to define the effect of input-based and output-based FonF approaches on grammar acquisition and productive use of language. Therefore, the present study investigated the impact of three instrumental methods, namely processing instruction and meaningful output instruction and traditional instruction on EFL learner's productive use of passive voice.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

"Processing instruction" (PI) is an applied application of the model. It push the learners to use the processing strategies that help them derive richer intake from input by having them engaged in structured input activities. The first step in PI is to examine learners' errors in order to identify their flawed processing strategies. Once identified, instructors can help their students by providing them correct input processing strategies and motivating them to abandon their faulty strategies by using structured input tasks and activities.

According to VanPatten (2002a), the rationale behind processing instruction (PI) is that: (1) input is needed for acquisition by learners, (2) a main difficulty in acquisition might be the way in which input is processed by learners, and (3) we might be able to create effective input enhancement or focus on form to help acquisition of formal features of language if we can realize how learners process input. Since Structured input remove lexical redundancies in the input and simplify the input by the targeted structure, it's an input enhancement procedure. It also raises the communicative value of a linguistic form.

Advocates for production practice (Swain, 1985; DeKeyser, 2007) claim that input alone may not be sufficient for upholding the more complex, form-based processing that is supposed to be advantageous for acquisition, and that learners may need production practice to improve effective production skills because of the highly skill-specific nature of automatized knowledge.

Swain (1995) states that Output would seem to have a noteworthy role in the development of syntax and morphology and it may motivate learners to move to the whole grammatical processing required for precise production.

Swain (1985, 1995, 2000, 2005) shows that output has a significant role in L2 knowledge improvement like input. Swain (1985) claims that output drew students' attention to the meaning via syntactic processing rather than the semantic processing required for understanding input. One important role of output is alerting learners to the gap which exist between their first language and the target language system. (Swain, 1995, 2005)

Grammar teaching and its role in acquiring second language has become the focus of most current studies whereas recent researches have demonstrated the necessity for formal instruction for students to accomplish high levels of accuracy. A number of studies have been done on the effectiveness of input-based as compare to output –based instructions.

Meanwhile VanPatten and his colleague's studies regarding the impact of PI on the learning of grammar have displayed desirable findings (Cadierno, 1995; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993a), a number of other studies have been conducted with mixed findings. Some have presented evidence supporting the advantage of PI over traditional output-based grammar instruction, whereas others have not reported similar results (Allen, 2000; Benati, 2005).

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Discovering the effectiveness of structured input, meaningful output and traditional instruction can provide a rationale for both teachers and learners with the aim of improving speaking skill. If a significant impact of these techniques is found, this vision can help the improvement of EFL learners' speaking.

The findings of the present study may help EFL teachers to select the best and the most effective techniques to get across the target grammatical features of the second language. This study probably shows that the rate of EFL learning is facilitated by focusing learners' attention on the formal features of the target structures.

Besides it can also be beneficial for the learners to be acquainted with using strategies appropriate for their success in improving their productive use of passive voice. Moreover the results of the present study can be served as an additional validation for EFL teacher so as to select one of these focus on form activities instead of traditional one.

The present study built on the previous research to examine effect of structured input, meaningful output and traditional instruction on EFL learners' productive use of passive voice. Accordingly, the following research questions were addressed:

1. Does structured input as compared with meaningful output improve Iranian intermediate EFL learners' productive use of passive voice?

2 Does structured input as compared with traditional instruction improve Iranian intermediate EFL learners' productive use of passive voice?

3. Does meaningful output as compared with traditional instruction improve Iranian intermediate EFL learners' productive use of passive voice?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the present study consisted of 68 intermediate Iranian EFL learners who were female at the age range of 16 and 22 from Fahim institute in Kermanshah, Iran. They were studying Four Corners level four which is considered to be intermediate. Besides they were selected randomly. Three intact classes were used. All of the classes were considered as experimental groups. Each class included twenty to twenty four students.

The lack of knowledge was measured by a pretest, attended all the training, treatment and assessment sessions and completed all the assessment measures to meet the selection criteria and the participants, eight learners, who failed to meet the selection criteria were discarded from the study.

B. Instrumentation

In the pretest and the post test, the participants were given the same Picture cue test. These picture cue tests had been selected from Cambridge- English grammar in use and Oxford Grammar Practice book by John Eastwood (1999), however, some tests were teacher made. A copy of the materials used for them is enclosed in the Appendix. It consisted of 20 pictorial items constructed on the basis of target grammatical points. Each item was scored 1 mark and the most concentration was on using the correct form of passive verb in describing each item. The participants had about 30 minutes to describe pictures regarding using passive voice. To ensure the reliability of the test, it was given to ten learners with the same level of proficiency. The reliability of the test was calculated using Chronbach Alpha and it was proved to be.73 which is considered acceptable. The content validity and face validity of the test was proved through expert judgment, asking two PhD. holders in the field.

The treatment phase involved three different tasks. The first task involved structured input activities that challenged the processing instruction group. Participants in the input processing group received structured input activities which were of two main types: referential and affective. Referential activities are on the base of right or wrong answer and learner must depend on the targeted grammatical forms in order to attain the meaning. Learners can be requested text-based true/false questions or multiple choice questions in order to direct learner's attention toward the functions of target structures for the purpose of helping them comprehend the meaning easily. Sample 1 demonstrates referential activities used in this study.

Sample 1: Structured Input Tasks: Referential Activities
Read the following sentences carefully. Select "true" (T) if it is true about you, but mark "false" (F) if it is not.
1. The Shard, Pompidou and Lioyds building were designed by Piano
    T   F
2. The Shard is known as an earth quack-proof tower
    T   F

Affective activities didn't have any right or wrong answer, necessitating learners to provide their agreements or opinions about a set of events. They were aimed at providing more examples of the target forms in the input by engaging learners in processing information about the real world. Learners can be requested true/false questions and some sentences which they provide their agreements about them. Sample 2 exemplifies affective activities:

Sample 2: Structured Input Tasks: Affective activities
Read the following sentences carefully. Select "true" (T) if it is true about you, but mark "false" (F) if it is not.
1. The shard is one of the tallest building in UK which was designed by piano
    T   F
2. The south wark was replaced by the shard
    U   F

The second task was a production task that required the learners in output group to reconstruct the texts as accurately as possible through a controlled reconstruction cloze activity. Participants in the Meaningful Output group received reconstruction cloze task. The design of the reconstruction cloze task in this study consisted of a range of four to nine sentences left with a number of blanks to be filled with both grammatically accurate and meaningfully appropriate passive voice. The treatment group were instructed to take notes of every word that they thought was significant to comprehend or reproduce the text.to prevent the possibility of direct copying, time of exposure was also controlled. Sample 3 represents a text reconstruction cloze task. This task is selected from the internet.

Sample 3: Text Reconstruction Cloze Task
Fill in the blanks with the most appropriate phrase or clause according to the text you just read.
Laura is writing to a friend. This is part of her letter.
Someone broke into our house at the weekend. The burglar took some jewelry. But luckily he didn't do any damage.
Now complete the passive sentences in this conversation. Use a phrase with *by* only if it adds information.
Laura: Our house (►) *was broken into at the weekend* Melanie: Oh no!
Laura: Some jewelry (1)... But luckily no damage (2)...

The third task was Traditional instruction. In TI the learners received some explicit information about where and when the target structures are used rather than any strategies or notifications to be familiar with the problems they may encounter while recognition of tenses. After the demonstration of explicit information on the target forms, TI group was involved in traditional activities. All in all mechanical drill and communicative task were designed for each tense.

In mechanical drills the participants didn't necessitate to pay attention to the meaning of statements and they must change the verbs in the parentheses into the target form mechanically. In communicative tasks the participants were supposed to use the targeted tense in their responses on the base of their experiences, thoughts, or beliefs and the content of the answers were up to them.

Sample 4: Traditional Instruction Tasks
Fill in the blanks with the appropriate form of the passive verbs in the parenthesis

1. The newspaper ……………..(deliver)before 6:00 A.M. everyday
2. I was planning to clean the coffee today but I see that it……already…………………(do).
   Did you clean it?
Rewrite these sentences. Write a passive sentence.
1. They invited twenty people to the party.…………………………………………………..
2. A surgeon is examining the patient right now. …………………………………………

C. Data Analysis

The present study followed a pretest-treatment-posttest design involving three treatment groups. The data collection procedure lasted 5 complete 60 minute teaching sessions, one for the pretest and homogeneity purposes, three for the treatment, and one for the posttest. The scores of the three groups before and after the instruction were compared by using ANOVA and a post hoc Scheffe test.

D. Results

Pre-test Results Analysis

The content of the pretest included four kinds of grammatical structures. The mean scores of the three groups were subjected to one way ANOVA test to show whether there was a difference among three groups or not. The results clearly showed that there wasn't significant difference among three groups.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EACH GROUPS' PERFORMANCE ON THE PRE-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Meaningful Output	20	8.8	1.691153
Traditional Instruction	20	8.85	1.85135
Structured Input	20	8.5	1.532971
Total	20	8.72	1.691825

As it was obviously defined in Table 1, the mean scores of all groups were approximately the same and there weren't significant differences between the pretest scores of all groups. Therefore, in order to   make these descriptive findings more meaningful, ANOVA was used

TABLE 2
ANOVA RESULTS REGARDING THE PRE-TEST FROM THREE GROUPS.

Sources of variance	SS	Df	Ms	F	Sig

According to table 2 the sig value (.790) was bigger than P value (.05), (.790>05), so there isn't a significant difference among the mean scores on the independent variable (pre- test scores) for three groups. Having received a statistically trivial difference, no post-hoc test was needed.

Post- Test Results Analysis

The content of the posttest included four kinds of grammatical structures taught inductively but follow by different techniques(structured input, meaningful output , traditional instruction).The mean scores of the three groups were subjected to one way ANOVA test to show whether there was a difference between the effect of three groups after the treatment or not, or, in other words, to comprehend whether the difference between the mean scores of the three groups was large enough to be assigned to the effect of independent variable or not. The one way ANOVA was conducted on the mean score test and the results clearly showed the significant difference of the effect of one group in comparison to the other groups.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EACH GROUPS' PERFORMANCE ON THE POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Meaningful Output	20	15.05	.35923
Traditional Instruction	20	14.95	1.14455
Structured Input	20	17.45	.973396
Total	20	18.81667	1.203392

As it is obviously showed in Table 3, the mean scores demonstrate that there are significant differences between the posttest scores of all groups.

TABLE 4
ANOVA RESULTS REGARDING THE POSTTEST FROM THREE GROUPS

Sources of variance	SS	Df	Ms	F	Sig
Between Groups	80.133	2	40.067	25.704	.000
Within groups	88.850	57	1.559	-	-
Total	168.983	59	-	-	-

To make these descriptive findings more meaningful, ANOVA was used. Table 4 showed that The sig value (.000) is smaller than P value (.05), (.000<05). Since we have received a statistically significant difference among the mean scores on the independent variable (post- test scores) for three groups, we use post-hoc tests provided in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
MULTIPLE COMPARISON IN POST-HOC TEST FOR IMMEDIATE POST-TEST.

(I) VAR00002	(J) VAR00002	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
MO	TI	.10000	.39481	.968	-..8924	1.0924
	SI	-2.40000	.39481	.000	-3.3924	-1.4076
TI	MO	-.10000	.39481	.968	-1.0924	.8924
	SI	-2.50000	.39481	.000	-3.4924	-1.5076
SI	MO	-2.40000	.39481	.000	1.4076	3.3924
	TI	2.50000	.39481	.000	1.5076	3.4924

As indicated in the table above, structured input group had a significant mean difference with meaningful output and traditional instruction groups, but the mean difference of meaningful output and traditional instruction was not notable.

So, addressing the first research question, the first null hypothesis was rejected and structured input had better effect than meaningful output. Addressing the second research question, the second null hypothesis was rejected and structured input as compared to traditional instruction led to better productive use of passive voice and addressing the third research question, the third null hypothesis was accepted and no significant difference was found between the groups

V. DISCUSSION

With respect to the first research question, the results demonstrated that SI has a significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' productive use of passive voice meanwhile structured input group outperformed the other groups and the first research hypothesis which stated that structured input as compared with meaningful output doesn't improve Iranian intermediate EFL learners' productive use of passive voice, was rejected. Reviewing the SLA literature reveals that the findings of the present study were in contrast to the findings of (Morgan-Short & Bowden, 2006; Keating and Farley, 2008; Farley and Aslan, 2012). The findings of studies by Benati (2005) and Farley (2004a, 2004b) were not supported by the results of the present study as these studies indicated that processing instruction was superior to meaning-based output instruction in the interpretation task, but resulted in similar performance to the meaning-based output instruction in the production task.

The results of the second research question reveal that the answer to the second research question is positive and the second research hypothesis, which stated that structured input as compared with traditional instruction doesn't improve Iranian intermediate EFL learners' productive use of passive voice was rejected. The results provided further empirical support for the findings of the previous studies by VanPatten and Wong (2004), VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) as well as Leeser and DeMil (2013). The findings of the current study were in contrast to the findings of (Benati, 2001, 2005) and Collentine's (1998b).They found that both PI and traditional instruction groups performed similarly for the acquisition of complex Spanish grammar for both the production and interpretation tasks.

With respect to the third research question, the results indicated that the answer to the third research question is positive and the second research hypothesis, which stated that. Meaningful output as compared with traditional instruction doesn't improve Iranian intermediate EFL learners' productive use of passive voice is accepted.

The findings of the present research were in line with the findings of Benati (2005), who studied the effects of PI, TI, and MOI on the acquisition of the English past simple tense. They found that processing instruction was superior to the traditional instruction and meaning-based output instruction groups in the interpretation task and the three groups made equal achievements in the production task. Moreover, in Kara Morgan-Short and Harriet Wood Bowdens' study, all groups performed similarly in the production task

In sum, almost all the previous studies are in accordance with this study in which both TI and MO groups made equal gains in the production task but meaningful output activity was little more effective.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study aimed at comparing three fellow-up grammar activities including structured input, meaningful output and traditional instruction. The results taken from the three experimental groups showed clearly the superiority of structured input group over two other groups.

The scores of the participants' in third group that is structured input were notably different from the scores of two other groups. The scores of meaningful output were better than traditional instruction group although the difference was not notable based on this study. Since structured input has been found effective, it is advisable that it is implicated in

future class material at least as an addition to the output-based materials. So, according to this thesis input-based instruction can be helpful in second language teaching.

We thus conclude that, linguistic development and making form-meaning connections are the results of using SI. Pedagogically, according to our study using structured input-based practice in the L2 classroom environment as a means for building fluency and accuracy in the oral speech is supported.

APPENDIX

The present continuous passive

Look at the pictures and say what is happening. Use these subjects: *the car, dinner, a flag, some houses, the seals.* Use these verbs: *build, feed, raise, repair, serve.*

The bread is being baked

The present passive

Complete the sentences with a present passive. Use the followings verbs.
ship pick take dry sort
Growing and preparing coffee

The soil *is. prepared*

The seeds *are planted*

1

2

The berries…………..…by hand.
3
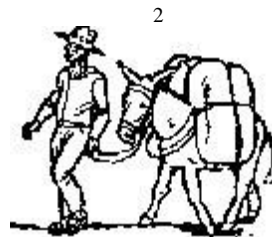
They……………… to a factory.
4

They………………. in the sun   They ……………by hand.

5
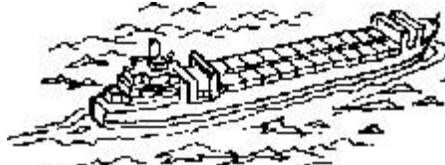
They…………...all over the world.

The present perfect passive
put the verb in the present perfect tense , passive.
1

(the bottle/open) The bottle has been opened

2

(the tree / cut down) The tree has been cut down.

3

.... (he / sting)

4
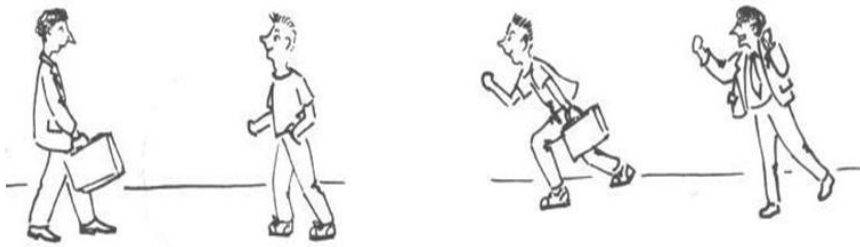
.... (the businessman / rob)

5

.... (she / ask out)

6
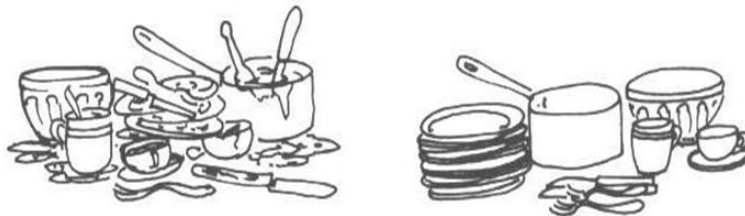
.... (the dishes / wash)

7
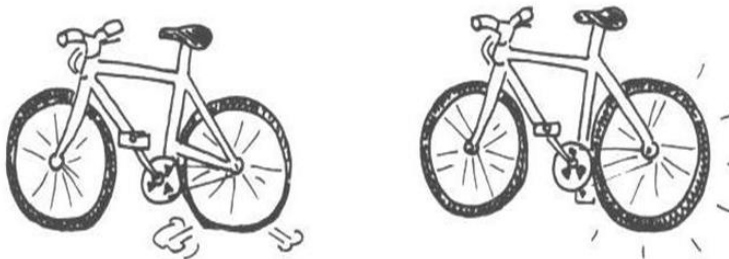
.... (the puncture / mend)

NOW

The past passive
Complete the sentences with a past passive

………………………………………………………………..(their exams/pass)

………………………………………………………….…….(he/arrest)

…………………………………………………………………(Jane Jones/elect)

………………………………………………………………………………………….(coffee/drink)

……………………………………………………………………………………………………..(coffee/sell)

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Research on the Effectiveness of the Confucius Institute (Classroom) Based on Linear Regression Models

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Abstract—**China has invested heavily in development of the Confucius Institute (Classroom) for the going-global of Chinese language and culture. And its effectiveness evaluation is an essential reference to the reinvestment on the Confucius Institute (Classroom) development as well as to its budget reallocation. Considering that there were basically no such researches in this field ever before, linear regression models (LRMs) were employed in this paper to research the effectiveness of Confucius Institute and establish fitting function models between inputs and outputs, which could provide a tool to quantitatively evaluate the effectiveness in the future. And in this way, the conclusions could be more objective and bases of resource redistribution more scientific. Based on current data, it is found that the growth of the number of government-sponsored Chinese teachers and volunteers lags behind that of the "rigid Chinese language learners" for more than 2 years; If China invests 1,000 Yuan in the project of "the Salary and Training Fee of Chinese Deans and Teachers (including Volunteers) " , the number of the "rigid Chinese language learners" will rise by 10 to 13; if there is an additional overseas test center in the Confucius Institute (Classroom), the "rigid Chinese language learners" of this semester will rise by more than 5,927; and if there is an additional registered student in the Confucius Institute (Classroom), it will rise by more than 6.**

Index Terms—**Confucius Institute (Classroom), inputs, outputs, effectiveness**

I. RESEARCH THINKING

Linear regression (LR) analysis, as an important statistical analysis method widely applied into the studies of variables correlations both in society and economy, is used to analyze the quantitative correlation among objects. Multiple linear regression models (MLRMs), in which two or more independent variables are employed to explain dependent variables, require the least square method (LSM) [1] to calculate parameters on the premise of the minimized residual square sum (RSS) as a unary linear regression equation does to estimate parameters.

The matter of the Confucius Institute (Classroom) effectiveness belongs to the category of both sociology and economics, and it is closely related to the international popularization of Chinese language. Various inputs into the Confucius Institute (Classroom), acting as independent variables, have their own different influence on the going-global of Chinese language and culture, so MLRMs are applicable to the quantitative evaluation of the Confucius Institute (Classroom) effectiveness.

Since the first Confucius Institute was established in 2004, China has conducted enormous investment in the Confucius Institute (Classroom). But there is still lack of feasible researches on the specific, arguable and quantitative correlation between the investment and Chinese international popularization. Thus, MLRM is employed to analyze the quantitative correlation among the national funds, resource inputs and "rigid Chinese language learners" [2] in this paper to initially study the effectiveness of the Confucius Institute (Classroom). Furthermore, the issue of how to build fitted function between the inputs and outputs is discussed to assess the input-output efficiency and to allocate funds and resources rationally.

II. INPUT-OUTPUT DATA RESOURCES AND REVISION OF THE CONFUCIUS INSTITUTE (CLASSROOM)

A. Inputs

China invests in many aspects of the Confucius Institute (Classroom) such as capitals, personnel, arenas and devices. And the related public data is limited and mainly shown in the "Hanban/Confucius Institute Headquarters Annual Report" (referred to as the "Report"). At present, the "Report" from 2007 to 2015 are available, but it is hard to conduct

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[1] LSM is a kind of mathematical optimization technique to find out the optimum function matching of data by minimizing the error sum of squares.
[2] Referring to "Chinese tests examinees" from Hanban/Confucius Institute Annual Report over the years and the reason for such selection will be specified thereafter.

comparative studies due to vast difference from the previous fund allocation to projects in the "Report" from 2013 to 2015. Therefore, all the data related to fund are selected from capital expenditures of the key projects published in the "Reports" from 2007 to 2012. During these 5 years, there was some slight difference among the items of expenditures successively published in the "Report". Nevertheless, in consideration of scarce data so far since its establishment, corresponding revisions are made to add the credible observed values as many as possible:

Firstly, project "the Confucius Institute (Classroom) Start-up" and "the Confucius Institute (Classroom) Operation" from 2009 to 2012 is merged into "the Confucius Institute (Classroom) Construction";

Secondly, project "the Training and Dispatching of Volunteer Chinese Teachers" in 2007 is included in "the Salary and Training Fee of Chinese Deans and Teachers (including Volunteers)";

Thirdly, project "Sending Great Wall Chinese Soft Hardware and Training to the Confucius Institute" and "Subsidizing the Confucius Institute to Build Experience Center of Chinese Culture in 2009, as well as "Confucius Institute Online" from 2010 to 2012 are merged into "Multimedia Construction";

Fourthly, project "Chinese Bridge Competition and Fund", "Chinese Experience Activities for Foreigners" in 2007 and 2008 as well as "Chinese Teaching Materials Exhibition" and "Literature and Art Tour" in 2009 are merged into "the Tour of Show, Exhibition and Speech";

Fifthly, project "the Examination Project Development" and "Others" in 2007 and "the Examination Project Development", "Chinese Popularization Study and Practice Base Construction of Chinese Colleges and Universities" and "Others" in 2008 and "the Confucius Institute Conference" in 2009 and 2010 are merged into "Domestic Infrastructure Construction";

Sixthly, project "International Conferences" in 2007 and 2008, as well as "Regional Joint Conference such as in North America, Asia, Oceania, Africa, and Europe, Eurasia, and Ibero-America" and "the Confucius Institute Conference" in 2009 and 2010 are merged into "the Regional Joint Conference and the Confucius Institute Conference";

Seventhly, as for the unit of measurement, unit "Thousand Yuan" was adopted for capital expenditure data in the Reports from 2007 to 2009; then it became "Thousand Dollar" from 2010 to 2012. And, it is converted into "Thousand Yuan" uniformly based on the RMB/USD exchange rates[③] from 2010 to 2012.

Eighthly, the data is conversed into comparable prices with the year 2007 as the base period according to the domestic inflation rates[④] in China from 2007 to 2012 to ensure the comparability.

Fund investments of China in the Confucius Institute (Classroom) over the years after adjustment are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
CLASSIFICATION OF FUND INVESTMENTS OF CHINA IN THE CONFUCIUS INSTITUTE (CLASSROOM) OVER THE YEARS

Unit: Thousand Yuan	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
The Confucius Institute (Classroom) Construction	213,370	368,297	516,963	295,686	290,289	393,864
Salary and Training Fee of Chinese Deans, Teachers and Volunteers	98,620	197,925	268,098	222,935	347,427	412,292
Scholarship of the Confucius Institute			143,673	202,469	165,088	139,419
Multimedia Construction			82,409	52,806	38,198	30,977
The Tour of Show, Exhibition and Speech	93,820	62,955	78,700	24,527	28,361	36,775
Textbook development and popularization	28,780	40,648	47,179	33,836	42,223	20,428
The Regional Joint Conference and the Confucius Institute Conference	10,400	13,481	9,994	23,584	19,495	
Chinese and Foreign Experts as Field Supervisor			7,570	7,367	7,067	8,318
The Confucius Institute (Magazine)			1,236	2,715	10,890	10,860
Domestic Infrastructure Construction	14,850	90,285				
Total	459,840	773,600	1,168,004	865,926	949,045	1,052,933

Other resource inputs and relevant variables except funds are also subject to the published "Report" and will be listed thereafter.

B. Outputs

There are many outcomes of the Confucius Institute (Classroom). Constitution and By-Laws of the Confucius Institute clearly stipulates that the Confucius Institutes are non-profit educational institutions, and it devotes to enhancing understanding of the Chinese language and culture by these peoples who learn the Chinese language in the world, to deepening friendly relationships with other nations, to facilitating the development of multi-culturalism, and to constructing a harmonious world. It mainly provides the following services for people from all walks of life around the world: Teaching Chinese language; Training Chinese language instructors; Holding the HSK examination and tests for the Certification of the Chinese Language Teachers; Providing information and consultative services concerning

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[③]RMB/USD exchange rate: 6.8281 in 2010; 6.6215 in 2011; and 6.3001 in 2012.
[④]Domestic inflation rate in China: 5.90% in 2008; -0.70% in 2009; 3.30% in 2010; 5.40% in 2011; and 2.60% in 2012.

China's education, culture, and economy, society and so forth; Conducting studies about contemporary China.[5] In general, its primary task is to contribute to the global dissemination of Chinese language and culture, and the main approach is the Chinese language teaching. That's to say, the effectiveness of the Confucius Institute (Classroom) can be evaluated according to the increase of Chinese language learners to a large extent. However, it is hard to explicitly define "the Chinese language learners". Undoubtedly, HSK examinees and those foreign college students who minor in Chinese are Chinese language learners. But as for such foreigners that pick up several Chinese daily dialogues on-line on a sudden pulse and then have no further understanding of Chinese culture actively, or even worse, forget all the stuff, it is hard to define whether they are "Chinese language learners" or not. Even if all of them are counted as "Chinese language learner", their effects on the dissemination of Chinese language and culture are not the same, either.

Thus, the third group of people abovementioned is excluded as "the rigid Chinese language learners" in this paper. And it is worth noting that "the rigid Chinese language learners" should refer to the examinees attending any Chinese proficiency test, including HSK examinees. Namely, the research objects refer to the Chinese test examinees as "the rigid Chinese language learners", HSK examinees included. The reason is that formal Chinese language learners almost have a certain pattern of Chinese test whether they attend Chinese proficiency tests like HSK or not, which makes it more comprehensive and objective. It is more a kind of research thinking than a perfect way, and it will play a greater role when the segmentation researches on its effectiveness are conducted and a certain amount of data is accumulated.

III.   LRM ANALYSIS OF EFFECTIVENESS OF THE CONFUCIUS INSTITUTE (CLASSROOM)

A.   Variable Names

Relevant variable names in this research and the respective item of fund investment in the Confucius Institute by the corresponding country are shown in the table below:

TABLE 2
SPECIFICATION OF VARIABLES

Variable Type		Variable Name	Project Name
Explained Variable		Examinee	Chinese Test Examinees
Explanatory Variables	Fund Variables	Confound	The Confucius Institute (Classroom) Construction
		Teacher	Salary and Training Fee of Chinese Deans, Teachers and Volunteers
		Scholarship	Scholarship of the Confucius Institute
		Multimedia	Multimedia Construction
		Exhibition	The Tour of Show, Exhibition and Speech
		Textbook	Textbook development and popularization
		Conference	The Regional Joint Conference and the Confucius Institute Conference
		Expert	Chinese and Foreign Experts as Field Supervisor
		Magazine	*The Confucius Institute* (Magazine)
		Basis	Domestic Infrastructure Construction
		Sum	Total investment
	Non-fund Variables	Stud	Registered Students in the Confucius Institute
		Teavol	The Number of Government-sponsored Chinese Teachers and Volunteers
		Test Center	The Number of Overseas Test Centers

B.   Correlation between the Rigid Chinese Language Learners and Funds

1. Unary regression analysis

There are at most 6 observed values for each variable but 10 variables, so MLRM is inapplicable due to limited observed values. Instead, correlation between Chinese language learners and various investments is analyzed by way of stepwise regression. LSM is required to conduct the unitary regression for the explanatory variables (investment items of China) first. To save pace, key reference values, instead of all the regression results, are shown in the table below:

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[5]Hanban, Constitution and By-Laws of the Confucius Institutes [EB/OL]. http://world.jyb.cn/gjzl/200903/t20090316_255438.html.2013/12/2

TABLE 3
KEY REFERENCE VALUES OF UNARY REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Variable	Effective Observed Value	Coefficient	$\overline{R}^{2 ⓖ}$	T Statistic[⑦]	F Statistic[⑧]	p Value[⑨]
Confund	6	1.831303	-0.22321	0.295974	0.087601	0.78198
Teacher	**6**	**10.69194**	**0.777277**	**4.295277**	**18.4494**	**0.012693**
Scholarship	4	-24.05158	-0.12453	-0.81718	0.667779	0.499687
Multimedia	4	-50.44274	0.530542	-2.09532	4.390354	0.171128
Exhibition	6	-27.33616	0.192848	-1.48142	2.194618	0.212616
Textbook	6	-69.80915	0.090492	-1.22371	1.497477	0.288213
Conference	5	68.16858	0.065673	1.131881	1.281154	0.33998
Expert	4	1653.628	0.107895	1.167405	1.362833	0.363397
Magazine	4	238.9231	0.694173	2.794541	7.809462	0.107747
Basis	2	2.280109	NA	NA	NA	NA

It is clearly shown in Tab. 3 that Teacher has the highest $\overline{R}^2$ of 0.777277, indicating its good fitting with the sample; its P value is less than the significant level of 0.05 after T test and F test, without regards to the insufficient observed values of Basis. And no other variables pass T and F tests except Teacher and Magazine, but P value of Magazine exceeds 0.05 with fewer observed values, so only Teacher ("Salary and Training Fee of Chinese Deans, Teachers and Volunteers ") can be counted as the first explanatory variable for the unary LRM.

2. Binary regression analysis

Corresponding explanatory variables of the rest projects are incorporated into LRM successively to get regression results, and key reference values are shown in the table below:

TABLE 4
KEY REFERENCE VALUES OF BINARY REGRESSION ANALYSIS
Note: In the columns of Coefficient and T statistics, the former value represents the coefficient of the first variable "Chinese Dean, Teacher and Volunteer's Salary and Training Fee" in LRM, and the latter one represents the coefficient of the corresponding variable on the left.

Variable	Effective Observed Value	Coefficient		$\overline{R}^2$	T Statistic		F Statistic	p Value
Confund	6	12.29997	-3.88946	0.833173	5.131167	-1.52978	13.48559	0.031668
Scholarship	4	19.00571	13.76373	0.879481	4.202558	1.044003	11.94618	0.200432
Multimedia	4	12.17046	-19.1138	0.900067	2.897495	-1.23307	14.5101	0.182513
Exhibition	6	10.7498	0.340742	0.703088	2.806055	0.022841	6.91999	0.075192
Textbook	**6**	**10.01494**	**-53.5136**	**0.964322**	**9.948291**	**-4.68725**	**68.57118**	**0.003132**
Conference	5	3.774059	110.4346	0.573509	1.63896	2.013204	11.05513	0.082952
Expert	4	14.42827	381.2142	0.792483	2.756427	0.462349	6.728317	0.263006
Magazine	4	12.95354	51.59157	0.771153	1.293353	0.317231	6.054587	0.276193
Basis	4	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

It can be known from Tab. 4 that only LRM incorporated with Textbook passes both T and F tests, and its P value is less than 0.05. Besides, its $\overline{R}^2$ is 0.964322 and higher than that of Teacher in the unary LRM, also with a large amount of F statistics, showing LRM fits the sample very well and that the regression equation is significant. Meanwhile, their T values are also large and the corresponding P value is less than 0.05, indicating significant influence of the explanatory variable on the explained variable. Thus, Teacher ("the Salary and Training Fee of Chinese Deans and Teachers and Volunteers" project confund) and Textbook ("Textbook development and popularization" project confund) should be reserved in LRM in a method of the stepwise regression.

3. Ternary regression analysis

Corresponding explanatory variables of the rest projects are incorporated into LRM continuously to get regression results, and key reference values are shown in the table below:

[⑥] $\overline{R}^2$, also known as coefficient of determination, referring to the proportion of ESS in TSS, can be used as the goodness of fit measurement index of comprehensive measurements regression model for the sample observed values. It illustrates that the greater it is, the larger the LRM explained proportion in TSS is and the better the LRM goodness of fit is and vice versa.
[⑦] Referring to the test statistic of T test that is targeted at the significance test of regression coefficient, and it shows that the test is statistically significant and rejects the null hypothesis when T statistics obviously exceeds the corresponding critical value in the table.
[⑧] F statistic refers to the ratio between variance and residual of LRM, indicating that the greater it is, the smaller the residual is and the higher the simulative precision is. It shows good fitting between LRM and the sample and significant regression equation when F statistics exceeds the required critical value in the significance test.
[⑨] P value refers to the probability occurrence of observed or extreme result acquired from the sample in case the null hypothesis is true. The smaller P value is, the smaller the probability occurrence of the null hypothesis is, and in that case, the null hypothesis can be rejected on the fuller grounds of the small probability principle. In a word, the smaller P value is, the more significant the result is.

TABLE 5
KEY REFERENCE VALUES OF TERNARY REGRESSION ANALYSIS
Note: They represent "the Salary and Training Fee of Chinese Deans and Teachers and Volunteers " project, "Textbook development and popularization" project and the corresponding confound from top to bottom for the three lines in the column of Coefficient and T statistics

Variable	Confound	Scholarship	Multimedia	Exhibition	Conference	Expert	Magazine	Basis
Effective Observed Value	6	4	4	6	5	4	4	4
Coefficient	10.72363	14.69519	11.7421	10.34539	15.31535	13.14286	10.08411	NA
	-46.2187	-32.87809	-31.5313	-53.8037	-113.795	-49.8387	-39.3368	NA
	-1.490935	6.224683	-8.46491	1.96778	-53.3405	-342.723	48.38248	NA
$\overline{R}^2$	0.967883	NA	NA	0.949055	0.906896	NA	NA	NA
T Statistic	9.444728	NA	NA	6.50572	4.436546	NA	NA	NA
	-3.685539	NA	NA	-3.93499	-2.85685	NA	NA	NA
	-1.154409	NA	NA	0.317736	-1.52061	NA	NA	NA
F Statistic	51.22744	NA	NA	32.04811	13.98753	NA	NA	NA
p Value	0.019208	NA	NA	0.030411	0.193496	NA	NA	NA

It can be known from Tab. 5 that excluding those variable without sufficient observed values, the ternary LRM incorporated with Confund has the highest $\overline{R}^2$ of 0.967883 and is higher than that of Textbook in the binary LRM; F statistics is the largest and the corresponding P value is 0.019208 which is less than 0.05, indicating that the combined explanatory variables have significant effects on the number of Chinese language learners,. However, as for the sole Confund, its T statistics is -1.154409 and the P value is 0.3676, showing less significant influence on the explained variables. On the whole, LRM incorporated with Confund ("the Confucius Institute (Classroom) Construction" project) is still the optimum choice. And the less significant influence might be caused by multicollinearity, which can be verified through correlation coefficient test methods. At present, relevant coefficient matrix of these three variables is listed as below:

TABLE 6
CORRELATION COEFFICIENT MATRIX

Correlation Matrix			
	TEACHER	TEXTBOOK	CONFUND
TEACHER	1	-0.143474262301891	0.438507281278756
TEXTBOOK	-0.143474262301891	1	0.385268638519961
CONFUND	0.438507281278756	0.385268638519961	1

It shows a relatively close correlation between Confund and the other two variables in Tab. 6. Thus there is a certain kind of multicollinearity that is a very common and concerns a matter of degree. But a stepwise regression method is adopted to reduce its severity relatively, so Confund is used as the third variable to be incorporated into LRM for the present.

4. Quaternary regression analysis

Corresponding explanatory variables of the rest projects are incorporated into LRM continuously to get regression results, and key reference values are shown in the table below:

TABLE 7
KEY REFERENCE VALUES OF QUATERNARY REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Variable	Scholarship	Multimedia	Exhibition	Conference	Expert	Magazine	Basis
Effective Observed Value	4	4	6	5	4	4	4
Coefficient	NA	NA	12.76466	11.32882	NA	NA	NA
	NA	NA	-40.97447	-29.10264	NA	NA	NA
	NA	NA	-2.81592	-3.254836	NA	NA	NA
	NA	NA	8.403682	-33.54625	NA	NA	NA
$\overline{R}^2$	NA	NA	0.995768	NA	NA	NA	NA
T Statistic	NA	NA	18.74605	NA	NA	NA	NA
	NA	NA	-8.607439	NA	NA	NA	NA
	NA	NA	-4.80395	NA	NA	NA	NA
	NA	NA	3.76551	NA	NA	NA	NA
F Statistic	NA	NA	295.1391	NA	NA	NA	NA
p Value	NA	NA	0.043626	NA	NA	NA	NA

It can be known from Tab. 7 that owing to limited observed values, the regression analysis is not applicable to Scholarship, Multimedia, Conference, Expert, Magazine and Basis; and $\overline{R}^2$, T statistic, F statistics and P value of Conference cannot be solved, which is also not authentic. And only Exhibition is an exception that can be utilized to finish the quaternary regression analysis. That's to say, Exhibition might be the fourth explanatory variable for LRM,

and based on its reference values, it is certainly a wise choice: R2 is 0.999154 and $\overline{R}$2 0.995768, with an obvious increase, and the fitting value and the actual observed value is very close, indicating high fitting degree; F statistic is 295.1391 and P value is 0.043626, less than 0.05, suggesting significant regression equation; besides, all the explanatory variables including Confund pass T test, on which Confund has a significant influence.
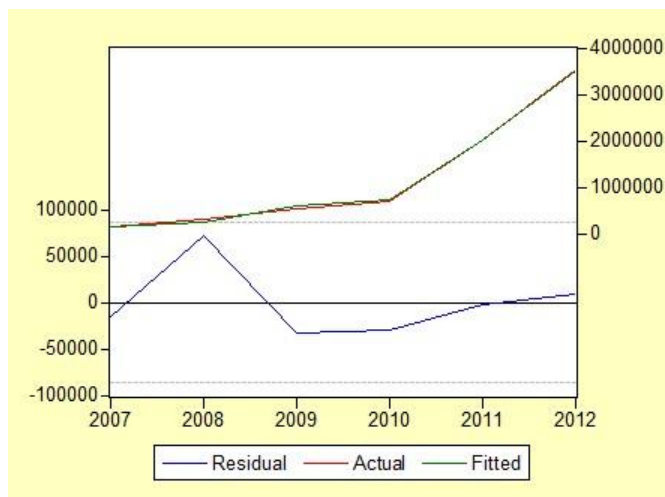

Fig. 1 Observed value, fitted value and residual plot

Examinee, Teacher, Textbook, Confund and Exhibition are represented by y, x1, x2, x3, x4, respectively, and MLRM obtained to reflect the effectiveness of the Confucius Institute is shown as below:

(Equation 1)

$$Y = 12.76465745X1 - 40.97446804X2 - 2.815920437*X3 + 8.403681619*X4 - 113975.9637$$

$$(\ 0.680925\ )\quad (\ 4.760355\ )\quad (\ 0.586168\ )\quad (\ 2.231751\ )\quad (\ 261342.3\ )$$

$$t = (\ 18.74605\ )\quad (\ -8.607439\ )\quad (\ -4.80395\ )\quad (\ 3.76551\ )\quad (\ -0.436118\ )$$

$$R2 = 0.999154\qquad \overline{R}2 = 0.995768\qquad F = -295.1391\qquad p = 0.043626$$

It is worth noting that this MLRM is obtained on the premise that Scholarship, Multimedia, Conference, Expert, Magazine, Basis and Conference are excluded from the multiple regression equation due to their insufficient observed values instead of multicollinearity. Thus, it is hard to say that the present model can be instantly applied to predict the correlation between input and outputs of the Confucius Institute. There are two negative coefficients in the equation, so investment will be guided to flow to those effective and beneficial projects by the equation; or otherwise, the budgets of these projects would be tight subject to definite funds investment from China each year, and consequently, the overall effectiveness will be reduced. Nevertheless, owing to insufficient observed values, it may also happen when the explanatory variables are not thorough and comprehensive. There are two solutions: I, by accumulating data to complete the entire regression analysis; II, in a mathematical method to adjust symbols if the aforementioned method is proved useless (Xie, 2006). Thus, no further explanations on the equation adjustment or the symbolic matter are made; instead, conclusions are continued with the enlarging observed data.

C. Correlation between the Rigid Chinese Language Learners and Non-fund Variables

The comparatively complete annual non-fund variables based on data from the "Report" are shown as below:

TAB. 8
ANNUAL NON-FUND INVESTMENT OF CHINA

	Chinese Test Examinees	Confucius Institutes	Registered Students	Countries	Government-sponsored Chinese Teachers and Volunteers	Trainers of Foreign and Local Chinese Teacher	Overseas Test Centers
2005	36462	NA	NA	NA	1035	10597	
2006	72924	122	NA	49	2054	15896	106
2007	138000	202	NA	66	2977	16782	116
2008	310000	249	130000	78	4000	16512	128
2009	548000	282	260000	88	4800	23000	161
2010	689000	322	360000	96	6099	NA	204
2011	2010000	358	500000	105	6815	32319	488
2012	3520000	400	655000	108	7982	11527	640

Unary regression analysis is conducted for the variables in Tab. 8, and it is found that there is a high degree of regression fitting between the explanatory "Overseas Test Centers" (Test Centers) and the explained "Chinese Test Examinees", of which the $\overline{R}2$ reaches 0.973835, the corresponding T statistics 14.97714, F statistics 224.3146, and p Value only 0.000024, with a very significant regression equation:

(Equation 2)

EXAMINEE = 5927.512541*EXAMPOINT - 519497.3733

(395.7708)   (130094.3)

t =   (14.97714)   (-3.993239)

R2 = 0.978196 $\overline{R}2$= 0.973835   F = 224.3146   p= 0.000024

Then, the best regression fitting is the explanatory "Registered Students of the Confucius Institute (Classroom)" (Stud), of which the $\overline{R}2$ is 0.896053, the corresponding T statistics 5.085360, F statistics 25.86089, and p Value only 0.014694, with a high degree of fitting and significance for the equation:

(Equation 3)

EXAMINEE = 6.246013627*STUD - 964331.1917

(1.228234)   (519101.6)

t =   (5.085360)   (-1.857693)

R2 = 0.896053 $\overline{R}2$= 0.861404   F = 25.86089   p= 0.014694

According to these two regression analyses, it can be clearly concluded that, as the separate explanatory variable, "Overseas Test Centers" and "Registered Students of the Confucius Institute (Classroom)" have the most significant influence on "the Chinese Test Examinees". With one additional overseas test center, the number of Chinese test examinees will increase by more than 5,927; and with one additional registered student in the Confucius Institute (Classroom), it will increase by more than 6, which is completely compatible with the estimations and further verifies that the effectiveness researches of the Confucius Institute are feasible, scientific and objective.

To confirm the correlation between "the Salary and Training Fee of Chinese Deans and Teachers (including Volunteers)" and "the Chinese Test Examinees" above, the government-sponsored Chinese teachers and volunteers are merged into a new variable Teavol, and its regression result to "the Chinese Test Examinees" is also satisfactory.

(Equation 4)

EXAMINEE = 435.6703433*TEAVOL - 1032007.102

(108.9934)   (545712.0)

t =   (3.997216)   (-1.891121)

R2 = 0.726996 $\overline{R}2$= 0.681496   F = 15.97774   p= 0.007142

Hereinto, the $\overline{R}2$ is 0.726996, T statistics 3.997216, F statistics 15.97774, and p Value 0.007142, with a high degree of fitting and significance for the equation, which fully demonstrates the positive influence of government-sponsored Chinese teachers and volunteers on the rigid Chinese language learners.

Besides, by analyzing the condition that government-sponsored Chinese teachers and volunteers lag behind the rigid Chinese language learners, it is found that:

(Equation 5)

$Y = 1560.670902 - 0.0006649876738X + 0.0007414071131X_{-1} + 0.004779515108X_{-2}$

（125.5573）   （0.000353）   （0.000428）   （0.001070）

t = （12.42995）   （-1.886218）   （1.731901）   （4.467799）

$R^2 = 0.985150$ $\overline{R}^2$= 0.962874   F = 44.22556   p= 0.022193

Of which Y represents government-sponsored Chinese teachers and volunteers and X represents the rigid Chinese language learners. In Equation 6, with the increase of lag order, coefficient of every lag phase for X also increases, showing it will take some time to gradually affect the number of government-sponsored Chinese teachers and volunteers when the number of Chinese language learners changes. In the meantime, corresponding T statistics at every lag phase also keeps enlarging and exceeds 0.05 since the delay of 2 years. The degree of fitting for the whole equation reaches up to 0.985150 with p value less than 0.05 and it passes F test.

It indicates that the growth of government-sponsored Chinese teachers and volunteers lags behind that of the rigid Chinese language learners for more than 2 years, and the lagging intervals cannot yet be judged.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Despite some problems for objective reasons of data in this research, several conclusions have been made as below:

First, compared with the rest 6 variables, four variables (fund investment of "the Salary and Training Fee of Chinese Deans and Teachers (including Volunteers)", "Textbook development and popularization", "the Confucius Institute (Classroom) Construction", and "The Tour of Show, Exhibition and Speech") in the equation are combined to leave a significant influence on the explained "Chinese test examinees" at present, which is confirmable even irrespective of these 6 variables.

Second, whether in the unary regression analysis or multiple regression analysis, "the Salary and Training Fee of Chinese Deans and Teachers (including Volunteers)" by China maintains a stable correlation with "Chinese test examinees" and its coefficient lies within the interval [10.01494, 12.76466]. Thus, it can be concluded that: effects of this input on the rigid Chinese language learners are less affected by other variables; based on the former deduction, there will be another 10 to 13 "rigid Chinese language learners" every time China invests 1,000 Yuan in this project.

Third, "Overseas Test Centers" and "Registered Students of the Confucius Institute (Classroom)" significantly affect the rigid Chinese language learners, respectively. It is estimated that the number of the "rigid Chinese language learners" will rise by more than 5,927 with an additional overseas test center; or that it will rise by more than 6 with one additional registered student in the Confucius Institute (Classroom).

Fourth, there is a lag phase for the growth of government-sponsored Chinese language teachers and volunteers to that of the rigid Chinese language learners for at least 2 years based on data, and more accurate delay intervals remain to be inspected when the observed value is complete. To a certain degree, it reflects a lack of Chinese language teachers around the world, which should be solved attentively.

Fifth, a method of LRM is put forward to research the effectiveness of the Confucius Institute (Classroom). But subject to insufficient observed values at present, it is unlikely to build a model with high robustness[⑩] and complete fitting of the reality. From the perspective of statistics, various data is reaching the critical point for some types of mathematical modeling according to the observed values. Therefore, it has great significance to accumulate operational data as planned for economic analyses. As the data related to the Confucius Institute development is kept accumulating and improving, the final goal is predictable, which will offer a solid theoretical basis for the rapid, scientific and sustainable development of the Confucius Institute.

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[⑩]Robustness: generally used to describe the stability of a model or system; namely, a model or system is relatively stable even if encountered with a certain distraction.

A Study on SPOC Assisted College Oral English Teaching Strategies

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Abstract—With the rapid development of information technology, various online courses have sprung up and SPOC (Small Private Online Course) is one of them. In the meantime, Chinese colleges are in the process of transformation from traditional classroom teaching to web-assisted teaching, which demands for a corresponding adjustment of teaching techniques used to guide teaching practice. Therefore, after a deep investigation into the attitude of some students and teachers, based on the results of questionnaires and interviews, this paper proposes several strategies for SPOC assisted college oral EFL teaching, aiming to guide teachers to use online courses effectively and as a result, improve the quality of EFL teaching.

Index Terms—SPOC, teaching strategies, oral English

I. INTRODUCTION

With the rapid growth of information technology, great changes are taking place in the teaching mode of higher education. MOOCs (Massive Open Online Courses), which are initiated by platforms such as Coursera, Udacity and edX, have sprung up since 2012. Chinese universities waited no time to put MOOC into practice vigorously. As time went on, various types of online courses derived from MOOC, and among them are x-MOOC, LOOC (Little Open Online Course) and SPOC (Small Private Online Course). In the recent years, China's Ministry of Education has launched a series of web-based curriculum construction projects, such as Video Open Courses, Quality Video Open Courses and Quality Resource Sharing Courses. Most universities in China are in the process of transformation from traditional teaching to web-based instruction.

Compared with traditional teaching, the physical environment of online courses has changed, as well as the transmission mode of instructional information, bringing about a series of transformation in instructional concepts, teaching models, pedagogy, evaluation methods and relation between teachers and students, etc. However, most of the previous research on web-based courses was around the role of teachers, learners' attitude toward online learning and autonomous learning. There was rare empirical research putting forward specific EFL teaching strategies of SPOC. As more and more SPOCs were constructed in Chinese universities, lots of teachers began to put online teaching into practice. But in fact, most of the online courses, including those related to EFL teaching, haven't been made full use and one of the most important reasons is the lack of appropriate teaching strategies. Therefore, new strategies based on SPOC are needed urgently to help teachers deal with day to day English teaching.

In this study, an online course of oral English was fully put into teaching practice, aiming to provide appropriate EFL teaching strategies for SPOC assisted courses, guide teachers to use online courses effectively and thus improve the quality of college EFL teaching.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Basic Concepts

1. Teaching Strategy

Up to now, the understanding of the basic concept of "teaching strategy" is still different in academic circles. In the field of language teaching, there are mainly four perspectives which regard teaching strategy as a matter of procedure, principle, behavior and technique respectively. When the procedure view is taken, teaching strategies refer to the teaching procedures that have direct influence on the development of language ability (Marton, 1988). Scholars taking the principle view see teaching strategies as principles that promote effective instruction, for example, increasing time to finish tasks and stimulating high motivations, etc. (Pratt, 1994). The behavior view holders consider teaching strategies to be a series of useful instructional actions (Xiong, 1997). Whereas educationists utilizing the technique perspective equal strategies to techniques and methods (Raffini, 1996; Jonassen, Grabinger & Harris, 2010). All in all, the definitions are different, but their essence is the same. Therefore, it is believed that any procedure, principle, behavior or technique can be called a teaching strategy as long as it aims to achieve particular teaching goals (Wang, Q. & Wang, D. Q., 2002).

This study strived to give teachers specific guidance, so the technique view was taken, that is, any technique or method is looked upon as a strategy if it helps improve EFL teaching effect of online English courses.

2. SPOC

An online course is a web-based course constructed under modern educational ideologies and philosophies. It shows the teaching content and teaching activities of a subject through the network, and is a comprehensive whole of technical support environment, teaching objectives, teaching content and teaching strategies, featuring interactivity, openness, collaboration, sharing and autonomy. SPOC is a type of online course focusing on a private audience and aiming to complement regular face-to-face classes instead of substituting the traditional way of teaching (Fox, 2013). SPOC integrates online teaching with offline teaching. Being more targeted, timely and operable, and with more realistic evaluation results, SPOC is more appropriate for day-to-day teaching in general colleges.

The English online course utilized in this study was a SPOC, which was the result of a construction project of Quality Resource Sharing Courses administered by China's Ministry of Education. Constructed by teachers at college and being a supplement of day-to-day classroom teaching, it aims to facilitate teachers to achieve their teaching goals.

B. Theoretical Basis

1. Constructivism

Constructivism is a philosophical viewpoint about the nature of knowledge. One prominent theorist known for his constructivist views is a Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget, who focused on how humans make meaning in relation to the interaction between their experiences and their ideas. When applied to education, constructivism changed the traditional way of teaching to a large extent. According to constructivism, knowledge acquisition is not taught by teachers, but obtained by learners themselves through meaning construction under certain context and with the help of teachers, learning partners and relevant materials. According to the social constructivist approach, an instructor's role is transformed from a teacher to a facilitator, who provides guidelines, creates the environment and is in continuous dialogue with the learners to help them get to his or her own understanding of the content and arrive at his or her own conclusions. The constructivist approach stresses the need for collaboration among learners and authentic learning, where the students take part in activities directly to the application of learning (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989). Constructivists advocate learner-centered learning but don't overlook instructors' guidance.

The network course platform in this study carries a wealth of learning materials, including a lot of video resources from or simulating real life. The Forum Column and Group Work Column provide platforms for discussion and showing collaboration works. As facilitators, teachers offer students suggestions on how to use the online course, give them feedback on their homework and answer their questions through the Internet. Therefore, the English online course can make learners give full play to their initiative, complement classroom teaching and assist students to achieve their learning goals.

2. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The affective filter hypothesis, one of the five hypotheses which are called the input hypothesis as a group, was put forward by American linguist S. D. Krashen in 1980s (Krashen, 1982). The affective filter is an impediment to learning or acquisition caused by negative emotional ("affective") responses to one's environment. According to this theory, certain negative emotions, such as anxiety, self-doubt and boredom, etc., function as a filter between the speaker and the listener. They reduce the amount of language input the listener is able to understand, thus preventing the efficient processing of the language input (Krashen, 2003). However, the blockage can be reduced by sparking interest, providing low-anxiety environment, reducing stress and bolstering the learner's self-esteem.

In traditional classrooms, some students remain in a state of high anxiety due to their low learning ability, poor academic performance and such characters as self-abasement and shyness. Their learning is impaired by the "affective filter". But in the network environment, the machine will not show the feeling of boredom or contempt, so the anxiety of students has been greatly alleviated. Learning in a relaxing environment and in a good mood helps improve learning effect.

C. Current Research Findings of Online Teaching

Scholars at home and abroad have done some research on web-based teaching. D. Wang (2006) developed a network teaching platform mainly consisted of BBS and BLOG in order to meet the interactive need of teachers and students. The result showed: the "Exhibition Hall" to show students' works effectively stimulated students' learning motivation; the interactive evaluation between teachers and students keep students interested in the course; the network platform also formed an effective monitoring to the curriculum teaching. All of those helped improve the teaching quality. T. Lu (2013) made a study on composition teaching reform based on the Internet. She put forward an ideal network platform of composition teaching, hoping that students could take initiative to explore, obtain and process information on the Internet under an interesting environment before they formed their own creative work.

As for EFL teaching, some research investigated the teaching model of college English autonomous learning in the environment of Internet. N. Chen (2016) proposes building a "2+2" Model. The former "2" represents the combination of college English learning online and offline. The latter "2" represents the application of cognitive strategy and monitoring strategy in the process of autonomous learning. Her study found students who were taught under the new "2+2" teaching model showed better performance in using cognitive strategies and monitoring strategies. However, the strategies employed in that research were general strategies and not typical of the Internet environment.

Some researches on learners' attitudes toward web-based study were conducted. Erica Gomez Flórez and his partners conducted a case study that explored students' perceptions about an English reading comprehension course in a web-based modality and found that students had different opinions about the course, its content and objectives, its level of difficulty, the time invested in the course, adult's learning and the role of the teacher. They perceived that course represented an academic challenge; it was conductive to learning, and favored students' autonomous use of time (Flórez, Pineda & García, 2012). Muhammad Umar Farooq and his partner investigated EFL students' attitude toward E-learning, focusing on motivation. The majority of students hold the view that curriculum and classroom activities should be integrated with technology. The author concluded that training teachers and incorporating technology with curriculum may lead towards a better learning environment (Farooq & Javid, 2012).

There are a few studies on EFL instructional strategies of CALL (computer assisted language learning) and in the network environment. W. Liu (2009) proposed eight principles when choosing instructional strategies of college English teaching assisted by multi-media, such as learner-centered, communication and cooperation, etc. Then according to these eight principles, he furtherly put forward five teaching strategies: stereo input, classroom participation promotion, multi-channel communication, cultural influence and task cooperation. Q. Xia (2016) proposed five teaching strategies for college English reading course: task driven, selected theme, information arrangement, effective monitoring and evaluation, but he didn't illustrate specific operation such as how to form "effective monitoring". Most of the studies on teaching strategies gave suggestions from a theoretical point of view, lacking in concrete ways and techniques.

In the past ten years, the study of web-based language teaching has witnessed a shift from theoretical application to practical application. A larger part of the previous study focuses on the role of teachers, learners' autonomy, learners' attitude and feedback, etc. and a smaller part deals with instructional models. Unfortunately, few studies have been conducted on web-based EFL teaching strategies, let alone those based on SPOC. Under the new informational environment, English teachers are in urgent need of specific and workable teaching strategies in order to make full use of online courses to improve the quality of English teaching.

III. THE CHOICE OF TEACHING STRATEGIES

English I Online Course, which focused on improving students' oral English ability, was one of the thirteen Quality Resource Sharing Courses approved by Beijing Information Technology College. The construction of this online course was finished in April, 2015 after two years of hard work. Seven columns were set up on the platform, including Course Guidance, Classroom Teaching, Micro-Lectures, Forum, Homework, Group Work and Self-Testing. It provided not only the space for teachers and students to exchange ideas, but also a wealth of data for learning English and a paper-free solution for the item bank's establishment, management and test paper generation. Besides, students were able to submit their homework and group work on the platform, to which teachers could quickly give feedbacks. Therefore, *English I* Online Course was a multiple functional and resource abundant SPOC on campus.

During the process of this research, the teachers led students to make full use of the *English I* Online Course, which lasted four months. Students could access the online course through their own notebooks and mobile phones or in the computer rooms on campus.

Finally, based on the theories of constructivism and affective filter hypothesis, the definition of teaching strategy and after consulting some teachers and students, eight strategies for EFL oral English teaching assisted by SPOC were devised to be used in the questionnaire.

A. Text Guidance Strategy

A complete text-formatted introduction of the course is provided for students to learn about the content, the suggested learning methods, the assessment standard and the relevant teachers, etc. of the course.

B. Video Demonstration Strategy

Videos of English situational dialogues are provided to show students what kind of task they are going to finish in the unit.

C. PPT Assisted Learning Strategy

A complete set of PPT courseware is posted for students to preview or go over lessons.

D. Micro-lecture Strategy

Some language points are selected to make micro-lectures, assisting students to break through the difficulties and consolidate the key points.

E. Self-testing Strategy

Teachers devise online tests by using the item bank for students to make self-testing so that they can know their weakness and consolidate what they have learned. The platform grades students' test automatically and gives answers and explanation at the same time.

F. Homework Strategy

Students submit their homework on line in the form of text, audio or video.

G. Group Work Strategy

Students form groups to finish oral tasks and upload their group works in the form of audio or video, which will be graded by both teachers and students from other groups.

H. Forrum Discussion Strategy

Students ask questions and discuss various English problems with teachers and their peers. Teachers select important points from the forum and explain them in detail in class.

IV. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Question

The following question was addressed in the present study: In SPOC assisted college oral English teaching, what strategies are accepted and loved by teachers and students?

B. Subjects

The subjects in this study were 2016 freshmen from different majors. Under the guidance of their English teachers, the students made full use of the online course for a whole semester.

C. Research Methods

The methods of questionnaire and interview were employed in this research.

D. Instruments

1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire was used to investigate students' attitude toward those strategies and their using patterns. It was made in the form of Likert Five Point Scale. The points 1-5 represent the five scales which range from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The devising of the questionnaire items was exploratory. Based on 20 students' written feedbacks toward the use of the online course, thirty items, which belonged to the eight strategies chosen previously, were established in the initial piloting questionnaire.

The pilot study was conducted in one class of Grade 2015. Thirty-five papers were collected and the data were input into SPSS 17.0 to test the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. After the item FD2, which greatly affected the reliability, was replaced and a few individual items were modified, the final questionnaire was established, which consisted of 31 items belonging to eight dimensions of teaching strategies and one dimension of teaching effect.

The questionnaires were distributed to Grade 2016 students who were asked to finish the questionnaires in the face of their teachers. Altogether 260 students filled in the questionnaires and 240 questionnaires were left in the final analysis after excluding the invalid ones.

After the data were collected, the reliability and the validity of the questionnaire were tested in the first place. Factor analysis showed that every variable (or dimension) contained at least three items, conforming to the theoretical design; all factor loadings were greater than 0.50 (with the lowest of 0.58); the dimensions accumulatively explained more than half of the variations of teaching strategies (79.46%). The above results showed the questionnaire had good construct validity. Besides, the internal consistency test result showed the questionnaire had a Cronbach Alpha of 0.94 and that figure of most subscales was over 0.80 (with the lowest of 0.60). All of the test results indicated the questionnaire was a reliable instrument.

2.Interview

Two kinds of semi-structured interviews were used in this study. The first aimed to investigate teachers' attitude toward using those strategies and the problems they encountered during the SPOC assisted teaching. The second attempted to make clear some problems arisen from the questionnaire. The items of the questionnaire which had a mean score of lower than 4 were considered the most important and thus discussed in detail in the interview. Four teachers and fifteen students participated in the interview.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Overall Attitude toward the Eight Teaching Strategies

TABLE I
DESCRPITIVE STATISTICS OF THE EIGHT TEACHING STRATEGIES

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Text Guidance	240	1.00	5.00	4.2389	.65248
Video Demonstration	240	1.67	5.00	4.1528	.66791
PPT Assisted Learning	240	1.00	5.00	4.0896	.71797
Self-Testing	240	1.00	5.00	4.0847	.95396
Group Work	240	1.00	5.00	4.0111	.86347
Micro-Lecture Learning	240	1.00	5.00	3.9917	.81759
Forum Discussion	240	1.00	5.00	3.7653	.82047
Homework	240	1.67	5.00	3.6778	.92532
Valid N (listwise)	240				

The descriptive statistics show that the mean scores of the eight strategies are all above 3, indicating students generally have a positive attitude toward those teaching strategies based on SPOC. Five strategies are particularly loved by students, including Text Guidance, Video Demonstration, PPT Assisted Learning, Self-Testing and Group Work, all of which have a score of above 4. The two strategies with the lowest scores are Forum Discussion and Homework with mean scores of lower than 4. A concrete analysis of each teaching strategy is as follows.

B. Specific Annalysis of Each Teaching Strategy

TABLE II
MEAN SCORES OF ITEMS IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Strategies	Item No.	Content of Items	Mean
Text Guidance	TG1	I know this course is important through *Course Introduction*.	4.34
	TG2	I have learned about the goals and content of this subject through *Course Standard*.	4.28
	TG4	I have roughly known the teachers through *Teaching Team*.	4.23
	TG6	I hope the column of Course Guidance can be maintained in the online course.	4.22
	TG3	The *Assessment* made me clear about the mode and standard of evaluation.	4.18
	TG5	Generally speaking, the column of Course Guidance got me to learn about the course and was beneficial for my English study.	4.18
Video Demonstration	VD1	The demonstration videos made me clear about the task of that unit.	4.32
	VD2	I prefer to watch the demonstration videos acted by students.	4.18
	VD3	I prefer to watch English videos whomever they are played by.	3.97
PPT Assisted Learning	PPT3	Watching PPT courseware online or after downloading it saves me time for taking notes.	4.29
	PPT2	I like to go over lessons with the PPT courseware on line.	4.15
	PPT4	I don't like to watch PPT courseware. (–)	4.02
	PPT1	I like to preview lessons with the PPT courseware on line.	3.90
Micro-Lecture Learning	ML1	Micro-lectures make it easier to study particular language points.	4.10
	ML2	I like the Comment function attached to the micro-lectures.	3.94
	ML3	I like the Note Taking function attached to the micro-lectures.	3.93
Self-Testing	ST2	Online testing allows me to quickly find those language points that I haven't grasped.	4.09
	ST1	I prefer online tests to paper tests.	4.09
	ST3	Online testing can be repeated to make me grasp the language points more firmly.	4.08
Homework	H2	I like online homework because I can quickly see the teacher's feedback.	3.72
	H3	I don't like online homework because it makes cheating much easier except handing in video formatted homework. (–)	3.70
	H1	I like online homework because I can hand in homework not only in text form but also in audio and video forms.	3.62
Group Work	GW2	I like to grade other groups' works online.	4.03
	GW3	I am willing to form a group with other students and submit our group work.	4.03
	GW1	Compared with speaking English in face of the teacher, I prefer to upload our group work recordings to the online course platform.	3.98
Forum Discussion	FD2	I hope the teacher will be able to explain the difficult points we put forward in the forum.	4.05
	FD3	I don't feel stressed when asking questions or discussing problems in the forum.	3.96
	FD1	If I have a question about English study, I prefer seeking the answer in the forum to asking the teacher face-to-face.	3.89

Note: "(–)" means the item is a negative one and the figure listed here has been reversed.

1. Text Guidance Strategy

Text Guidance has the highest mean score among the eight strategies. The mean scores of the six items in this division are very close and all of them are above 4, showing the course guidance materials in text format are highly approved by students. R. Liu (2006) also suggested a teaching strategy of providing text-formatted materials in her

study. She held the view that texts were the oldest and the most basic reading materials. Compared with other types of materials, they were much easier to be obtained and processed. Most students felt comfortable reading texts due to their long-term study habit. Teachers also gave positive comments about Text Guidance strategy. They thought text-formatted resources had large quantities of information and were easier to make, thus remaining an indispensable type of resource in any kind of learning.

2. Video Demonstration Strategy

Table 2 shows the items of both VD1 and VD2 have a mean score of over 4 and the score of VD3 is lower than 4. This result indicates students are willing to watch the task demonstration videos acted by senior students instead of watching the English videos downloaded from the Internet. Three reasons were found through interviews. Firstly, the videos played by senior students had a lower degree of difficulty and were easier to be understood than relevant videos on the Internet; secondly, those videos were tightly matched with the tasks of particular units; lastly, the English level of the actors and actresses in those videos were similar to that of the students themselves, therefore enhancing their confidence of completing the oral tasks. However, the videos downloaded from the Internet couldn't cater to the content of the course and had a greater level of difficulty. As a result, they were less welcomed by students. This result conforms to Krashen's input hypothesis which believes that the ideal input in foreign language teaching should be comprehensible, relevant and interesting (Krashen, 1994).

3. PPT Assisted Learning Strategy

It is shown in table 2 that all of the four items in PPT Assisted Learning strategy have a mean score of over 4, indicating that students think PPT courseware important in their web-based learning. The item PPT3 has the highest score and the score of PPT2 is a little greater than PPT1. This result shows students are inclined to regard PPT courseware as sort of a substitute for their class notes and prefer to review lessons with PPT after class. That is made clearer by later interviews. Because students can read PPTs online or after downloading them, they save note-taking time in class and are able to concentrate more on what the teacher says.

4. Micro-Lecture Learning Strategy

As shown in Table 2, the mean score of MLL1 is above 4, indicating the majority of students have positive attitude toward Micro-Lecture Learning strategy which they think make them learn English in an easier way than traditional classroom teaching. But both MLL2 and MLL3 have a score of lower than 4, showing that the comment and note-taking functions attached to micro-lectures are not approved so much as merely watching micro-lectures. During the interviews, the students told the researcher they could make comment in chatrooms or in the forum as well as face to face. It was not convenient to exchange ideas here on the micro-lecture web page. As for the note-taking function, the students thought it much more convenient to take notes in their paper notebook. What's more, the quality of micro-lectures affected the use of this strategy to a large degree. Exquisite micro-lectures attracted students much more than average-level micro-lectures.

5. Self-Testing Strategy

The students have a positive attitude toward Self-Testing strategy in that all of the three items in this division have mean scores of more than 4. Doing an online test just needs a networking support and several clicks, so they are convenient to use. Students can do the same test repeatedly and get feedbacks immediately after they hand them in. The teachers also consider it a good way to make tests because it saves time and is more economical. Therefore, Self-Testing is a web-based strategy which fully embodies the advantages of network courses.

6. Homework Strategy

Table 2 shows all of the three items in the Homework strategy have a mean score of below 4, which indicates the students have a lower degree of satisfaction about submitting homework online. Some interviewees told the researcher that writing homework could help them remember, but online homework was typed and not beneficial to memorization. What's more, they made it easier for some students to copy others' work. It was a fact that online homework could be submitted in the form of audio or video, but the compatible formats were limited, bringing about difficulties when uploading the work. The teachers in the interviews were not in favor of online homework either. They admitted oral work could be made into audios or videos and submitted to the online course, but it needed a good networking support.

7. Group Work Strategy

The mean scores of the three items in the Group Work division are all over 4 with the items GW2 and GW3 a little higher, indicating that Group Work strategy is welcomed by students, especially the peer-assessment method. Peer-assessment is one of the methods of multiple assessment. Some researchers made study on multiple assessment. It was found that multiple assessment effectively improved students' interest in learning English (Chen, 2014), and that rich evaluation instruments, including self-assessment, peer-assessment, teachers' assessment and network assessment, help promote students' learning initiative and thus improve their learning effect (Zhu, Liu & Wu, 2014).

8. Forum Discussion Strategy

Unexpectedly, the scores of the three items in Forum Discussion strategy are all below 4. During the interviews, the students told the researcher that it was not convenient to discuss English problems in the forum, because they could deal with that in QQ group or WeChat group which were more popular among young people. Besides, students tended to favor face-to-face explanation. They hoped the forum could be a site where questions were asked, to which teachers could give specific explanation later in class.

VI. CONCLUSION

A. Suggested Teaching Strategies of SPOC Assisted College Oral English Teaching

In the light of the previous analysis, some tentative suggestions on SPOC assisted college oral English teaching are put forward as follows.

1. Favorable Teaching Strategies

Six teaching strategies: Text Guidance, Video Demonstration, PPT Assisted Learning, Micro-Lecture Learning, Self-Testing and Group Work should be used regularly. They are favored by both students and teachers.

Text-formatted introductions about the course, including the goals and content of learning, the evaluation methods, the suggested ways of learning and information of relevant teachers, are supposed to be posted on the website, enabling students to have a general understanding of the whole course.

The videos about oral tasks of each particular unit, such as those about expressing gratitude or making apologies, should be presented on online courses so that students are able to learn what they should achieve in that unit straightforward and vividly before class and therefore, they can attend classes with a clear goal in mind. The videos had better be acted by senior students or selected from senior students' group works in order to make the difficulty of the dialogues acceptable to students.

The whole set of teachers' PPT courseware is expected to be uploaded to the network platform. Students can repeatedly watch them after class, so they can save note-taking time in class and concentrate more on what the teacher says.

Make interesting and exquisite micro-lectures to expound the difficult language points in order to help students comprehend and memorize them more easily. It is not necessary to encourage students to use the note-taking and comment functions attached to the micro-lecture videos.

Teachers are expected to compose online tests for each unit or each lesson with assistance of the item bank attached to the online course, and organize students to do online tests so that they can consolidate what they have learned, learn about their weakness and make it up in time.

Teachers can organize students to make groups and finish oral tasks which should be made into audios or videos that are required to be uploaded to the online course. The group works had better be scored by teachers together with students from other groups, forming a multi-assessment pattern.

2. Teaching Strategies That Should Be Exercised in Due Caution

Homework and Forum Discussion strategies haven't received as much agreement as the other six. Text-formatted homework is not encouraged to be assigned while audio and video formatted homework can be submitted online occasionally. The Forum can be used as the room for asking questions, but detailed answers are unnecessary in the forum. Teachers should check the forum from time to time and explain the questions asked explicitly when facing students in class.

B. Limitation and Future Direction of the Research

On the basis of empirical study, this paper has proposed several teaching strategies used for SPOC assisted oral English teaching in colleges. It is hoped that the result of this study will have a practical guidance for language teachers to improve web-assisted college EFL teaching.

1. The suggestions put forward in this paper came from questionnaires and interviews and are a reflection of students' and teachers' subjective attitude. However, whether those strategies can really improve EFL teaching effect hasn't been testified. Future experimental studies can be done on the basis of the strategies suggested in this paper to confirm the effectiveness of those teaching strategies used for EFL oral teaching assisted by SPOC.

2. This paper hasn't explored the correlation between particular strategies and teaching effect. What strategies have a significant correlation with students' learning results is expected to be studied in future research.

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A Critical Discourse Analysis of Iran and US Presidential Speeches at the UN: The Sociopragmatic Functions

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Abstract—**Speeches articulated by politicians are often vehicles towards achieving their ultimate goals. That's why there is always tendency to find out the potential ideologies indicated by the discursive strategies and rhetorical devices which these politicians employ to express their political viewpoints. This study adopted a critical discourse analysis (CDA) approach to cognitively analyze the typical discursive characteristics underlying Iranian and American presidents' speeches at the UNGA (2013). The findings revealed that the most frequent of the strategies employed by Obama were polarization, self-glorification, positive self-presentation, negative-other presentation and victimization while the most prominent ones used by Rouhani were metaphor, vagueness, negative-other presentation and national self-glorification. The intricate, undeniable relationships existing between language, power and ideology is also what had been clear through the analysis of the lectures transcription.**

Index Terms—**critical discourse analysis, discursive characteristics, ideological discourse structures, sociopragmatic functions, van Dijk's Model**

I. INTRODUCTION

"Discourse" is used by Fairclough (1989) to refer to the whole process of social interaction of which a text is just a part. Thus, the scope of linguistic analysis is broadened through critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) as an important branch of Discourse Analysis (DA). Discourse is actually embedded in the larger sociopolitical and socio-cultural contexts which are included in CDA, and it is at the macro-level of CDA that we are able to unpack the ideological bases of discourse which have been considered natural overtime and are treated as neutral and acceptable features of discourse (Fairclough, 1995).

van Dijk (1997) suggests that one of the primary tenets of CDA is to find different sources of dominance, bias and inequality in the society while analyzing written or spoken texts. By adopting a CDA approach, he says, we can distinguish the discursive strategies employed by the speakers whose aim is to construct or maintain meaning in sociopolitical contexts.

Although there are many different models and frameworks of applying CDA to the texts, van Dijk's (2004) design seems to be a more comprehensive and precise conceptual framework, because it deals with not only political and semantic strategies but also the rhetorical devices. Thus it can be an accurate tool for discovering the manipulation of realities in the process of discourse production. As a prominent person in critical discourse studies, Teun van Dijk relates macro level and social cognitive understandings to micro level text and shows how they are manifested, produced and reproduced through discourse. That's why the very model is used in the present paper to compare president Rouhani's speech at UN General Assembly with that of president Obama.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In Iran a research was conducted by Namjoo (2003). She tried to distinguish between illustrations of one issue, that is, terrorism by the president of Iran and USA, Khatami and Bush. They both had different definitions of terrorism and commented on some measures to crack down on it. Using particular discursive structures, Namjoo focused on the impact of the underlying ideology of the speaker on the representation of realities.

Taking Wodak's discourse-historical approach; Graham, Keenan and Dowd (2004) illustrated the importance of George W. Bush's (2001) declaration of a "war on terror". They presented four exemplary "call to arms" speeches in order to exemplify the structure, function and historical significance of such texts in western societies over the last

millennium. The four generic features that had endured in such texts throughout that period were mentioned by them as: (1) calling upon a legitimate power source, external to the speaker and presented as inherently good; (2) calling upon the historical significance of the culture in which the discourse is located; (3) creation of a completely evil Other; and, (4) calling upon unification behind the legitimating external power source. They later argued that such texts typically appear in historical contexts which are characterized by deep crises in political legitimacy.

On 7 October 2002, President Bush presented his rationale for war against Iraq in his speech. The analysis of this speech by Dunmire's (2005) demonstrated that the nominalization 'threat' functions in various ways to interpret a specific vision of future reality. Using Halliday's systemic-functional framework, Dunmire also considered the speech within the context of the Bush Administration's National Security Strategy, particularly its 'policy of preemption'. In his point of view, the President's speech played a significant role in facilitating the conceptual, linguistic, and political alteration expressed through the preemption policy. The conclusion was that a salient ideological component of political discourse derives from its depiction of the future and the rhetorical functions those depictions serve in implicating more instant material and discursive actions.

Using the highly significant multidisciplinary CDA, van Dijk (2005) himself examined some of the properties of the speeches by Prime Minister Jose Maria Aznar held in the Spanish Parliament in 2003 legitimating his support of the USA and the threatening war against Iraq. It was argued that speeches in parliament should be defined in terms of both their textual properties and a contextual analysis. He identifies three types of positive self-presentation strategies; namely, when the orator speaks for his own group, when he speaks for his nation, and when he speaks for himself. He believes these forms of positive self-presentation are interactionally occasioned as the expected responses to real or potential opponents; however, except for the analyses of these usual properties of ideological and political discourse, special attention was given to political implicatures which are defined as inferences based on general and specific political knowledge as well as on the context models of Aznar's speeches.

Later in 2006 Adetunji examined implication of deixis for personal, temporal and spatial anchorage of political discourse. He used two thematically and contextually dissimilar speeches of Nigeria's president Olusegun Obasanjo as its database in order to establish how politicians could associate with and dissociate from actions taken by them at specific times and how they recruit their subjects into accepting their viewpoints on controversial issues or situations.

The ideological component enshrined in the inaugural address of President Obama were analyzed by Horvath (2009) using Fairclough's notions of ideology namely that "meanings are produced through interpretations". He attempted to figure out the possible interpretations of different references of Obama, and then put Obama's address into a diachronic perspective of the outgoing administration of President George W. Bush. He came to the conclusion that the key ideological components of Obama's speech are pragmatism, liberalism, inclusiveness, acceptance of religious and ethnic diversity and unity.

Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG), in terms of three meta-functions of ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions was also applied by Junling Wang (2010) to detect the formal features of Barack Obama's speeches. Its purpose was to explore the relationships among language ideology and power and to figure out how to use this power for the public to accept and support his policies. He analyzed Barack Obama's presidential speeches mainly from the point of transitivity and modality. He came to the conclusion that through modality, Obama made his audience more easily to understand and accept his political speeches and with applying transitivity, his speeches are trying to awaken the American people's confidence toward the president and his nation. Hallidayian SFG was also the basis of Shayegh & Nabifar's study (2012). It explored the existence of power in Barack Obama's discourse to see how ideological loading and socio-political relations of power have been manifested in his discourse. Analyses of hesitation, persuasion, threat, religious statement and illusive speech in each clause on the basis of Fairclough's model was done in the second phase of research.

Obama's South Carolina victory speech was also analyzed from the perspective of pragmemes by Capone (2010). He based his argument on Goffman's (2007) notion of footing and Bakhtin's (1986) notion of polyphony. He believed Obama used the technique of 'personification'. When presenting his opinion, he did not just expose it as if it came from himself, rather got another person either fictitious or real to voice it. That is, to support his campaign, Obama actually ventriloquized the voices of ordinary people, while also integrating the voices of his competitors, marked stylistically as anonymous and out- group members. The central idea of the paper is that Obama took seriously the politician's role as representative (of the people) and expressed the voices he wanted to represent in order to support his ideas about politics, in respect to which he presented himself as the animator, while giving ordinary people the role of principals.

Yet there were other studies focusing on persuasion strategy Ferrari (2007). In his approach, conceptual metaphor as related to emotion constitutes the principal argumentative feature and a vital tool to address the matter of persuasion in text, contributing to identifying both the ideological root and the persuasive strategy of a given discourse in the long run. Synthesis of the results showed the potentialities of metaphor as a privileged cognitive tool for abstracting and constructing discourse strategies.

Lihua (2012) examined how stories about China were presented in the New York Times. Using critical discourse analysis as a general theoretical foundation and van Dijk's socio-cognitive approach as a particular analytical framework, he examined how the New York Times endeavored to influence its target audience with specific discourse patterns or discourse strategies. The New York Times discourse strategies included presenting a dichotomy, using many

voices, pretending to be balanced in its use of voices, presenting information in a detailed way, and presenting a negative image of China through the eyes of witnesses. Thus the New York Times manipulates its audience via the discourse strategies it employs in news stories about China.

Through the analysis of all the instances of "you" in *Guardian* editorials for 2011, Breeze (2015) brought to light several different ways in which the writer employed the second person. Although the primary motivation appears to be epideictic, in that the writer seeks to forge strong bonds with the readership and thereby strengthen the sense of communion and shared values, some other uses are identified, including dramatization and irony. This leads on to consideration of the type of reader constructed by these uses of "you", and the relationships projected between writer/newspaper, reader, and other entities.

Combining topic modeling and critical discourse analysis, Tärnberg & Tärnberg (2016) investigated how Muslims and Islam are represented in Flashback, the largest internet forum in Sweden; then compared what was in this forum with how the same were represented in traditional, Western media. The analysis showed that the patterns used were profoundly similar to – but often more extreme versions of – those previously mentioned in analysis of traditional media. It indicated that the internet forum seems to serve as an "online amplifier" that reflects and reinforces existing discourses in traditional media, which probably leads to even stronger polarizing impacts on public discourses.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Data Sources

According to van Dijk (2004) elections, political campaigns, parliaments, propaganda, demonstrations, as well as many other phenomena of the political field are highly ideological. In order to choose the speeches which are both ideological and had been taken place in the same situations as well as the same time, the full transcripts of president Obama's (20130 speech at UN general assembly was retrieved from www.whitehouse.gov, and then was compared with the full transcripts of president Rouhani's (2013) speech at UN general assembly taken from www.worldtime.com.

B. Analytical Framework

The analytical framework utilized in this study which was applied to both transcriptions was van Dijk's model (2004). It focuses on the rhetorical devices used in political texts. He elaborates on 27 ideological strategies the two main of which are 'self-positive-representation' and 'other negative-representation'. These two are semantic macro-strategies used for the purpose of 'face keeping' or 'impression management' (van Dijk 2004). They are to differentiate between 'good' and 'bad', 'superior' and 'inferior', 'our party' and 'their party'. van Dijk (2004) believes that a lot of studies have demonstrated ideological discourse usually features the following overall strategies of what might be called the ideological square:

Emphasize **Our** good things
Emphasize **Their** bad things
De-emphasize **Our** bad things
De-emphasize **Their** good things

These two strategies as well as 25 more categories of ideological discourse analysis are introduced by van Dijk (2004) like actor description, authority, Categorization, etc. These discursive strategies and rhetorical devices are to reveal the potential ideologies the politicians have in their speeches. In order to indicate the nature of these strategies and devices utilized by the speakers and to compare the discursive characteristics and underlying ideologies of the speeches, each paragraph of the text is considered as a macro unit and analyzed on the basis of the parameters defined by the model.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

While both presidents started their speech by addressing UN president, Secretary General and the audiences, Rouhani's ideology is quiet clear through starting the speech in the name of God and blessing to Prophet Mohammad. Likewise, he closed his speech by a poem from Ferdowsi, the renowned Iranian epic poet, as well as a verse from Holy Quran.

TABLE 1.
OCCURRENCE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN ROUHANI'S AND OBAMA'S 2013 UN SPEECH

Personal Pronouns	Rouhani's Speech		Obama's Speech	
	frequency	Relative frequency	Frequency	Relative frequency
We	13	0.48	47	1.29
Our	9	0.33	34	0.93
Us	4	0.14	12	0.33
I	9	0.33	24	0.66
My	4	0.14	6	0.16

A. Count Analysis

Table 1 shows a very interesting fact. The number of first person pronouns in Obama's speech is significantly more than that of Rouhani. For one thing some strategies which necessarily need personal pronouns are employed by Obama much more than Rouhani. The most prevalent of them are hyperbole, national self-glorification, victimization together with dramatization and polarization (you-them categorization) as well as positive self-presentation. Use of personal pronouns as well as frequent words like nation and people is central to the president's 'identification'. An overall dominance of the personal pronoun *we* in Obama's speech may then again be because of the fact that as a super power, American government has always been the one making decisions for other countries in the time of international peril. That's why the high frequency of the use of 1st person pronouns is seen in the discourse of most of the American presidents.

TABLE 2.
OCCURRENCES OF KEYWORDS IN PRESIDENT ROUHANI'S ADDRESS TO THE UNGA SPEECH (SEP. 2013).

Keywords	Frequency	Relative frequency
Iran(ians)	29	1.08
Violence	20	0.74
World	20	0.74
Peace(ful)	19	0.70
Human(ity)	17	0.63
Choice	14	0.52
People	14	0.52
Regional	13	0.48
International	11	0.41
Fears	10	0.37
Threat(en)	9	0.33
Right	8	0.29
Sanction(s)	8	0.29
President	8	0.29
Discourse	7	0.26
Military	6	0.22
Actor(s)	6	0.22
Rights	6	0.22
New	5	0.18
Power(fully)	5	0.18
Life	4	0.14

TABLE 3.
OCCURRENCES OF KEYWORDS IN PRESIDENT OBAMA'S ADDRESS TO THE UNGA SPEECH (SEP. 2013).

Keywords	Frequency	Relative frequency
Iran(ians)	26	0.71
Peace(ful)	25	0.69
America(ns)	21	0.57
People	21	0.57
Israel(ies)	16	0.44
United states	15	0.41
Nations	13	0.35
World	12	0.33
Palestinian	12	0.33
International	11	0.30
regime	10	0.27
President	9	0.24
Work	9	0.24
government	9	0.24
Military	7	0.19
Threat(en)	7	0.19
Attack	6	0.16
own	6	0.16
Human(ity)	5	0.13
Power(fully)	5	0.13
Terrorist(s)	5	0.13
Right	5	0.13
Life	4	0.11

Two lists of frequent keywords used by both presidents accompanied by their frequency are provided in order to find out the differences between their political views and the ideological strategies they have used. Through count analysis of the keywords in each speech, it was revealed that Obama used more words to convey his message compared with Rouhani since his speech included 3621 words, while Rouhani had employed 2682 words. The most prominent word employed by both presidents is *Iran*. For Rouhani as the president of Iran, it is something quite natural; however, having *Iran* as the most prominent word in Obama's speech shows that his main concern is Iran! Meanwhile, after *Iran* the most prominent words in that of Rouhani are *violence* and *world* which seems to be Rouhani's main concern. In the same way, the most frequent words in Obama's speech after Iran are *peace(ful)* and *America(ns)*. Use of the word

peaceful with the frequency of 25 is the manifestation of Obama's ideology labeling him as a peacenik compared with the previous presidents of the US. (See table 2 and 3).

On the other hand, through use of the words *America(ns)* with the frequency of 21 and *United States* with the frequency of 15, Obama employs the discursive strategy of naming in order to stimulate a sense of 'Americanism'. By the same token, through 'passivization' the Iranian president prefers to avoid employing the word *America(ns)*, which is actually the sign of 'anti-Americanism'. Another frequent word employed by Obama is *Israel* which American government is highly concerned about as one of his allies. Conversely, this word is not used by the Iranian president since it is not considered as a legal government by Iran. Even if they were supposed to refer to it, *Zionist regime* would be used not *Israel*.

B. Macro-unit Analysis of Rouhani's Speech

At the beginning, Rouhani started his speech with this sentence: 'Our world today is replete with fear and hope'. Since his government is called 'government of hope and rationality', he tried to utilize the word 'hope' in his lexicalization. At the same time utilization of 'our world' led to polarization.

(3): The recent elections in Iran represent a clear, living example of the wise choice of hope, rationality and moderation by the great people of Iran. The realization of democracy consistent with religion and the peaceful transfer of executive power manifested that Iran is the anchor of stability in an otherwise ocean of regional instabilities. The firm belief of our people and government in enduring peace, stability, tranquility, peaceful resolution of disputes and reliance on the ballot box as the basis of power, public acceptance and legitimacy, has indeed played a key role in creating such a safe environment.

In the third macro unit, he reminded the audiences of 'the wise choice of hope, rationality and moderation by the great people of Iran' to refer implicitly to voting for his 'government of hope and rationality'. Lexicalization of 'democracy consistent with religion', 'peaceful transfer of executive power' as well as metaphors like 'anchor of stability' and 'ocean of regional instabilities' led to presenting Iranians positively specially on election time. Likewise national self-glorification is clearly seen when utilizing lexicalization of 'peace, stability, tranquility, peaceful resolution of disputes and reliance on the ballot box'.

(5): At this sensitive juncture in the history global relations, the age of zero-sum games is over, even though a few actors still tend to rely on archaic and deeply ineffective ways and means to preserve their old superiority and domination. Militarism and the recourse to violent and military means to subjugate others are failed examples of the perpetuation of old ways in new circumstances.

Here Rouhani employed metaphors of 'age of zero-sum games' and 'a few actors' to negatively represent others who try to 'rely on archaic and deeply ineffective ways and means to preserve their old superiority and domination'. He implicitly referred to America and its allies when talking about 'Militarism and the recourse to violent and military means to subjugate others'. The paradoxical lexicalization of 'perpetuation of old ways in new circumstances' is again another way of representing others negatively.

(6): Coercive economic and military policies and practices geared to the maintenance and preservation of old superiorities and dominations have been pursued in a conceptual mindset that negates peace, security, human dignity, and exalted human ideals. Ignoring differences between societies and globalizing Western values as universal ones represent another manifestation of this conceptual mindset. Yet another reflection of the same cognitive model is the persistence of Cold War mentality and bi-polar division of the world into "superior us" and "inferior others." Fanning fear and phobia around the emergence of new actors on the world scene is another.

In macro unit 6 negative other-presentation was seen through lexicalization of some words in the first sentence. However, the interesting part starts with the second sentence when Rouhani himself referred to the politicians' strategies. He first referred to generalization strategy when 'globalizing Western values as universal ones represent another manifestation of this conceptual mindset' and then talked about 'bi-polar division of the world into "superior us" and "inferior others"' which is crystallization of polarization and positive self-presentation as well as negative other-presentation. In the last line of this paragraph metaphor of 'new actors' had a vague source which most probably referred to US and its allies.

Later, when in paragraph 7 he said 'there is no guarantee that the era of quiet among big powers will remain immune from such violent discourses, practices and actions.' he implicitly warned big powers that their immunity is endangered by the very violent discourse…and then hyperbolically reminds them of 'the catastrophic impact of violent and extremist narratives'.

(8): In this context, the strategic violence, which is manifested in the efforts to deprive regional players from their natural domain of action, containment policies, regime change from outside, and the efforts towards redrawing of political borders and frontiers, is extremely dangerous and provocative.

Employing metaphors and lexicalizations of 'strategic violence', 'regional players', 'containment policies' and 'redrawing of political borders and frontiers', Rouhani negatively presented others, and hyperbolically said that it 'is extremely dangerous and provocative.'

Again macro unit 9 referred implicitly to super powers, and continued lexicalization of 'Islamo-phobic, Shia-phobic, and Iran-phobic discourses' to claim that it is not just problematic for Iran but 'indeed represent serious threats against world peace and human security.'

(10): This propagandistic discourse has assumed dangerous proportions through portrayal and inculcation of presumed imaginary threats. One such imaginary threat is the so-called "Iranian threat" -which has been employed as an excuse to justify a long catalog of crimes and catastrophic practices over the past three decades. The arming of the Saddam Hussein regime with chemical weapons and supporting the Taliban and Al-Qaida are just two examples of such catastrophes. Let me say this in all sincerity before this august world assembly, that based on irrefutable evidence, those who harp on the so-called threat of Iran are either a threat against international peace and security themselves or promote such a threat. Iran poses absolutely no threat to the world or the region. In Fact, in ideals as well as in actual practice, my country has been a harbinger of just peace and comprehensive security.

Here, the lexicalization of 'propagandistic discourse', 'presumed imaginary threats' and 'so-called Iranian threat' as well as evidentiality of 'the arming of the Saddam Hussein regime with chemical weapons and supporting the Taliban and Al-Qaida' led to negative other presentation of 'them-group' when he mentioned that they 'are either a threat against international peace and security themselves or promote such a threat.' and to national self-glorification of 'us-group' when he believed 'my country has been a harbinger of just peace and comprehensive security.'

Macro units 11, 12 and 13 are all manifestations of evidentiality strategy since Rouhani gave evidences of what United States has done through lexicalization of the phrases like 'military interventions', 'brutal repression', 'assassination of common people', 'structural violence', 'catastrophic spread of violence', 'infusion of arms', 'active support of extremist groups' and 'expansionist strategies'.

(15): Unjust sanctions, as manifestation of structural violence, are intrinsically inhumane and against peace. And contrary to the claims of those who pursue and impose them, it is not the states and the political elite that are targeted, but rather, it is the common people who are victimized by these sanctions. Let us not forget millions of Iraqis who, as a result of sanctions covered in international legal jargon, suffered and lost their lives, and many more who continue to suffer all through their lives. These sanctions are violent, pure and simple; whether called smart or otherwise, unilateral or multilateral. These sanctions violate inalienable human rights, inter alia, the right to peace, right to development, right to access to health and education, and above all, the right to life. Sanctions, beyond any and all rhetoric, cause belligerence, warmongering and human suffering. It should be borne in mind, however, that the negative impact is not merely limited to the intended victims of sanctions; it also affects the economy and livelihood of other countries and societies, including the countries imposing sanctions.

To clarify the point further, victimization is used in paragraph 14 as a rhetorical device when he reminded them of 'the criminal assassination of Iranian nuclear scientists' as well as the 'unjust sanctions, as manifestation of structural violence' in paragraph 15. Then to win the audiences affection and prove that not only Iran but also other groups are the victims of sanctions he employed populism strategy and talked about 'millions of Iraqis who, as a result of sanctions covered in international legal jargon, suffered and lost their lives, and many more who continue to suffer all through their lives.' To persuade the target audiences more, he utilized the semantic-rhetorical strategy of metaphors such as sanctions covered in international legal jargon'. He considered sanctions as a burden not just for the 'intended victims of sanctions' but for the 'countries imposing sanctions'. All of these rhetorical devices then led to negative presentation of the 'them-group'.

In paragraphs 17, 18 and 19 he subtly articulated 'hope and rationality' to refer implicitly to the fact that the people voted for him. Using metaphors of 'extinguishing all hope' and 'responsible actors', he shed light on the importance of 'securing peace and democracy and ensuring the legitimate rights of all countries in the world, including in the Middle East' and employed populism to claim that this is advantageous for the whole world.

Lexicalization of phrases such as 'reliance on hope and prudent moderation, mutual respect, and rejection of violence and extremism', 'common understanding and shared security', 'in time-bound and result-oriented talks' and 'equal footing, mutual respect, and the recognized principles of international law' led to positive self-presentation of Iran and Iranian government in macro units 20-24.

(25): In recent years, a dominant voice has been repeatedly heard: "The military option is on the table." Against the backdrop of this illegal and ineffective contention, let me say loud and clear that "peace is within reach." So, in the name of the Islamic Republic of Iran I propose, as a starting step, the consideration by the United Nations of the project: "the World against Violence and Extremism." (WAVE) Let us all join this "WAVE." I invite all states, international organizations and civil institutions to undertake a new effort to guide the world in this direction. We should start thinking about "Coalition for Enduring Peace" all across the globe instead of the ineffective "Coalitions for War" in various parts of the world.

Finally, comparison of our view and theirs is clear in paragraph 25; 'them-group' and 'us-group'. While others referring to United States repeatedly said: "The military option is on the table." we 'say loud and clear that "peace is within reach."'. They lexicalized "Coalition for War.", while we lexicalized "Coalition for Enduring Peace".

C. Macro-unit Analysis of Obama's Speech

From the very beginning, Obama started polarization through mentioning that 'each year we come together to reaffirm the founding vision of this institution.' And then negative-other presentation by mentioning that 'individual aspirations were subject to the whims of tyrants and empires.'

(2): It took the awful carnage of two world wars to shift our thinking. The leaders who built the United Nations were not naive; they did not think this body could eradicate all wars. But in the wake of millions dead and continents in

rubble; and with the development of nuclear weapons that could annihilate a planet; they understood that humanity could not survive the course it was on. So they gave us this institution, believing that it could allow us to resolve conflicts, enforce rules of behavior, and build habits of cooperation that would grow stronger over time.

Then talking about development of nuclear weapons that could annihilate a planet, Obama presented others negatively. However, everybody knows that atomic bomb was used only once and that was by American government not others. Then Polarization is again seen here when he said 'it could allow us to resolve conflicts, enforce rules of behavior, and build habits of cooperation…'

(6): For the United States, these new circumstances have also meant shifting away from a perpetual war-footing. Beyond bringing our troops home, we have limited the use of drones so they target only those who pose a continuing, imminent threat to the United States where capture is not feasible, and there is a near certainty of no civilian casualties. We are transferring detainees to other countries and trying terrorists in courts of law, while working diligently to close the prison at Guantanamo Bay. And just as we reviewed how we deploy our extraordinary military capabilities in a way that lives up to our ideals, we have begun to review the way that we gather intelligence, so as to properly balance the legitimate security concerns of our citizens and allies, with the privacy concerns that all people share.

Mentioning that they were 'shifting away from a perpetual war-footing', 'bringing their troops home', 'limiting the use of drones' and as a result having 'no civilian casualties', 'transferring detainees to other countries' and 'trying terrorists in courts of law, while working diligently to close the prison at Guantanamo Bay', are all rhetorical devices for positive self-presentation, negative other-presentation, national glorification, hyperbole and polarization. At the same time, they were not only the confessions that US was in a perpetual war-footing, killing civilians and having problems with the prison at Guantanamo Bay, but they also were to rationalize all of these activities. Polarization in the last few sentences is accompanied by victimization and dramatization when he talked about 'terrorists' as well as 'concerns of their citizens and allies'.

(9): Nowhere have we seen these trends converge more powerfully than in Syria. There, peaceful protests against an authoritarian regime were met with repression and slaughter. In the face of carnage, many retreated to their sectarian identity – Alawite and Sunni; Christian and Kurd – and the situation spiraled into civil war. The international community recognized the stakes early on, but our response has not matched the scale of the challenge. Aid cannot keep pace with the suffering of the wounded and displaced. A peace process is still-born. America and others have worked to bolster the moderate opposition, but extremist groups have still taken root to exploit the crisis. Assad's traditional allies have propped him up, citing principles of sovereignty to shield his regime. And on August 21st, the regime used chemical weapons in an attack that killed more than 1,000 people, including hundreds of children.

Showing empathy with Syrian peaceful protesters, Alawite, Sunni, Christian, Kurd the children being killed, Obama attributed all of these problems to the out-group and represented them negatively while positively representing America and others as those who worked to bolster the moderate opposition. Of courhetoricrse there is a case of self-criticism when he said 'our response has not matched the scale of the challenge'. Then when immediately after 'a peace process is still-born' Obama talked about America and others, actor description was clearly seen. In this regard he referred to America and others as 'those who have worked to bolster the moderate opposition' and to extremist groups as those 'who have still taken root to exploit the crisis.' Immediately after this sentence he talked about Assad's traditional allies which probably referred to the very extremist groups. Consequently, Assad's traditional allies have been convicted to 'prop him up, citing principles of sovereignty to shield his regime'. Though not mentioned clearly, most prominent of the allies which he referred to is Iran.

(11): Today, I want to outline where the United States of America stands on these issues. With respect to Syria, we believe that as a starting point, the international community must enforce the ban on chemical weapons. When I stated my willingness to order a limited strike against the Assad regime in response to the brazen use of chemical weapons, I did not do so lightly. I did so because I believe it is in the security interest of the United States and the world to meaningfully enforce a prohibition whose origins are older than the U.N. itself. The ban against the use of chemical weapons, even in war, has been agreed to by 98 percent of humanity. It is strengthened by the searing memories of soldiers suffocated in the trenches; Jews slaughtered in gas chambers; and Iranians poisoned in the many tens of thousands.

The rhetorical strategy of polarization is again clear in macro unit 11 when Obama used personal pronouns *we* and *I,* and used the security interest of the United States parallel to those of the world. He portrayed America and the world as the in-group and positively represented; likewise Assad regime and his allies as the out-group and negatively represented. Then utilizing the number game, Obama mentioned that '98 percent of humanity have agreed to ban against the use of chemical weapons and Iranians have been poisoned in the many tens of thousands'. He considered Iran as a victim in order to show consensus in this regard even with his foe. Later, twice in his lecture he gave evidence of 'Assad's regime using such weapons on August 21st.' (The fact that he used the word regime instead of government revealed his attitude toward Assad's organization as an illegal one). In paragraph 13 this evidentiality is accompanied by illustration and exemplification since he mentioned he had discussed with 'President Putin for over a year, most recently in St. Petersburg', that his preference 'has always been a diplomatic resolution to this issue'.

Since Obama's speech is carried out after that of Rouhani, Obama tried to justify his deeds with which Rouhani disagreed implicitly. Using Rouhani's metaphor, in macro unit 16 Obama believed that pursuing a settlement is not like

what Rouhani said 'a zero-sum endeavor' and 'there's no Great Game to be won.' Then in paragraph 17 victimization was employed when he said, 'the United States is chastised for meddling in the region, and accused of having a hand in all manner of conspiracy; at the same time, the United States is blamed for 'failing to do enough to solve the region's problems', and 'for showing indifference toward suffering Muslim populations.' In macro units 18 to 22 through use of phrases like 'my policy', 'our allies', 'our partners', 'our interests', 'our people and our national security', Obama employed polarization strategy and then in macro unit 22 through lexicalization of words like 'peaceful', 'prosperous', 'democracy, 'human rights', and 'open markets', he went on positive self-presentation as well as polarization. Besides, 'taking direct actions' was the indirect implication of a military threat.

(23): What does this mean going forward? In the near term, America's diplomatic efforts will focus on two particular issues: Iran's pursuit of nuclear weapons, and the Arab-Israeli conflict. While these issues are not the cause of all the region's problems, they have been a major source of instability for far too long, and resolving them can help serve as a foundation for a broader peace.

(24): … Iranians have long complained of a history of U.S. interference in their affairs, and America's role in overthrowing an Iranian government during the Cold War. On the other hand, Americans see an Iranian government that has declared the United States an enemy, and directly – or through proxies – taken Americans hostage, killed U.S. troops and civilians, and threatened our ally Israel with destruction.

In the last two lines of macro unit 23 hyperbole was employed when talking about 'major sources of instability in the region'. In the next paragraph, euphemistically he talked about Iranians' complains of US while hyperbolically mentioned American complaints of Iran. Besides, mentioning that 'America prefers to resolve concerns over Iran's nuclear program peacefully' for several times, is the implication of threatening Iran.

(26): ….To succeed, conciliatory words will have to be matched by actions that are transparent and verifiable. After all, it is the Iranian government's choices that have led to the comprehensive sanctions that are currently in place. This isn't simply an issue between America and Iran – the world has seen Iran evade its responsibilities in the past, and has an abiding interest in making sure that Iran meets its obligations in the future.

In the preceding paragraph, lexicalization of 'conciliatory words', 'transparent' and 'verifiable', was the implication of Iran's interest to reconcile. Except for this, the last sentence of this unit is not only negative-other presentation, but it is also employing populism strategy when he claims that 'the world has seen Iran….'

(29)… Earlier this year, in Jerusalem, I was inspired by young Israelis who stood up for the belief that peace was necessary, just, and possible, and I believe there is a growing recognition within Israel that the occupation of the West Bank is tearing at the democratic fabric of the Jewish state. But the children of Israel have the right to live in a world where the nations assembled in this body fully recognize their country, and unequivocally reject those who fire rockets at their homes or incite others to hate them.

Talking about young Israelis, Obama employed strategy of illustration and examples. He then tried to use victimization strategy regarding 'children of Israel and their right to live…' Now the question is: Didn't the children who were killed in 51day-war against Gaza have the rights to live? Who are the real victims? The same strategies were employed when in macro unit 30 he criticized the situation in which Palestinians have to suffer not having a firm place. The other strategy used in this paragraph is metaphor which was employed in 'the occupation of the West Bank is tearing at the democratic fabric of the Jewish state…'

Metaphor has also been used twice in paragraph 32 when he said '…Moreover, ties of trade and commerce between Israelis and Arabs could be an engine of growth and opportunity at a time when too many young people in the region are languishing without work. So let us emerge from the familiar corners of blame and prejudice....', and later in paragraph 33 when he spoke about 'Arab Spring'.

(36): Of course, America has been attacked by all sides of this internal conflict, simultaneously accused of supporting the Muslim Brotherhood, and engineering their removal of power. In fact, the United States has purposely avoided choosing sides. Our overriding interest throughout these past few years has been to encourage a government that legitimately reflects the will of the Egyptian people, and recognizes true democracy as requiring a respect for minority rights and the rule of law, freedom of speech and assembly, and a strong civil society.

Macro unit 36 starts with victimization through lexicalization of the words like 'attacked' and 'accused' and then using phrases like 'a respect for minority rights and the rule of law', 'freedom of speech and assembly', and 'a strong civil society' the very strategy was used again, leading to positive self-presentation and national self-glorification. This victimization was also seen in macro unit 39 by saying, 'we will at times be accused of hypocrisy and inconsistency' and polarization was clearly employed in paragraph 38 using the phrases like 'in our view', 'who work with us on our core interests' and 'our ideals'. Then to make the point clearer, he gave the example and illustration of 'Catholics and Protestants finally recognized that an endless cycle of conflict was causing both communities to fall behind a fast-moving world.'

(41): To summarize, the United States has a hard-earned humility when it comes to our ability to determine events inside other countries. The notion of American empire may be useful propaganda, but it isn't borne out by America's current policy or by public opinion. Indeed, as recent debates within the United States over Syria clearly show, the danger for the world is not an America that is too eager to immerse itself in the affairs of other countries or to take on every problem in the region as its own. The danger for the world is that the United States, after a decade of war --

rightly concerned about issues back home, aware of the hostility that our engagement in the region has engendered throughout the Muslim world -- may disengage, creating a vacuum of leadership that no other nation is ready to fill.

(42): I believe such disengagement would be a mistake. I believe America must remain engaged for our own security. But I also believe the world is better for it. Some may disagree, but I believe America is exceptional -- in part because we have shown a willingness through the sacrifice of blood and treasure to stand up not only for our own narrow self-interests, but for the interests of all.

Lexicalization of the phrases like 'a hard-earned humility' and 'notion of American empire' in macro unit 41 has led to positive self-presentation. Another lexicalization is 'a vacuum of leadership' which is actually a presupposition of America as the world leather leading to a national self-glorification. This last strategy as well as victimization is strengthened in paragraph 42 since Obama believes in 'a willingness through the sacrifice of blood and treasure… for the interests of all' to rationalize their interference in other countries affairs as the savior of the world.

Later in macro units 45 and 46 using evidentiality, Obama reminded the audiences of 'the death of four outstanding U.S. citizens ... including Ambassador Chris Stevens' and again 'being criticized by others' which is victimization. He presented the others negatively making 'horrendous violence which can put innocent men, women and children at risk' and 'violence against civilians' and US positively for what they did saving 'countless lives'.

(48): … If we don't want to choose between inaction and war, we must get better -- all of us -- at the policies that prevent the breakdown of basic order. Through respect for the responsibilities of nations and the rights of individuals. Through meaningful sanctions for those who break the rules. Through dogged diplomacy that resolves the root causes of conflict, not merely its aftermath. Through development assistance that brings hope to the marginalized. And yes, sometimes -- although this will not be enough -- there are going to be moments where the international community will need to acknowledge that the multilateral use of military force may be required to prevent the very worst from occurring.

Here 'meaningful sanctions' refers implicitly to countries like Iran which they believe 'break the rules'. This reference is again intensified through mentioning 'use of military force' when required.

(52): … Last month, I stood where 50 years ago Martin Luther King Jr. told America about his dream, at a time when many people of my race could not even vote for President. Earlier this year, I stood in the small cell where Nelson Mandela endured decades cut off from his own people and the world. Who are we to believe that today's challenges cannot be overcome, when we have seen what changes the human spirit can bring? Who in this hall can argue that the future belongs to those who seek to repress that spirit, rather than those who seek to liberate it?

Obama utilized examples and illustration when he said 'I stood where 50 years ago Martin Luther King Jr. told America about his dream' and 'I stood in the small cell where Nelson Mandela endured decades cut off from his own people and the world' since he wanted to refer to 'our capacity to change'.

(53): … each individual possessed with a dignity and inalienable rights that cannot be denied. That is why we look to the future not with fear, but with hope. And that's why we remain convinced that this community of nations can deliver a more peaceful, prosperous and just world to the next generation.

At the end of the lecture, Obama utilized lexicalization of 'a dignity and inalienable rights' for every individual to justify why they 'look to the future not with fear, but with hope'. This phrase implicitly referred to Rouhani's idea when he said 'Our world today is replete with fear and hope'. Then to employ words replete with hope not fear, Obama used lexicalization of the words like 'peaceful, prosperous and just' for the world of the next generation.

V. Conclusion

Politicians have access to a wide range of discursive strategies and rhetorical devices including semantic macrostrategies as well as lexical choices which enable them to represent their underlying ideologies. van Dijk's (2004) framework, as a cognitive approach out of which the 27 ideological discourse structures arise, determined to be a suitable design mentioning most of the techniques by which political figures endeavor to penetrate into the mind of their target audience and manipulate them to reach their goals. That's why this model (2004) is applied here to transcripts of Iranian and American presidents' lectures at the UNGA. The results of this study reveals that the most frequent of the strategies employed by Obama are polarization, self-glorification, positive self-presentation, negative-other presentation, victimization and lexicalization while the most prominent ones used by Rouhani are use of metaphors, lexicalization, vagueness, negative-other presentation and national self-glorification. Obama uses more simple terms and lexicalizations as well as short sentences instead of difficult ones. Meanwhile Rouhani's speech is replete with metaphors and lexicalizations of terms and new phrases. He tries to utilize some specific phrases repeatedly in order for the audiences to internalize them; like 'the government of hope and rationality'. At the same time he prefers to articulate Islamic Republic of Iran instead of personal pronouns as the doer of actions; however, Obama repeatedly utilizes personal pronoun *we*; rarely does he use United States. Not only that but also as a super power he rarely says *I said*, rather he prefers to say *I made it clear;* as if he is the one who decides for the other countries which are as president Rouhani says 'periphery' to him. Similar to other American presidents, Obama's rhetorical structures reveals that the American president to peripheral countries is like a superstar to other people in Hollywooden movies when the superstar acts as the savior of mankind.

Both presidents justify their claims utilizing different subtle ideological discourse structures including two major strategies of positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation. Lexicalization, polarization, victimization and

other rhetorical devices are frequently used as effective devices in persuasion and justification. These discursive structures are applied to enhance, mitigate, avoid or exacerbate an issue. Generally speaking, CDA provides a great opportunity to discover the realities which according to Fairclough (1995) has been distorted and naturalized as "non-ideological common sense" (p.27).

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The C-E Translation of Business Promotional Material Based on Skopostheorie

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Abstract—**Based on Translation Skopostheorie, the author briefly expounds the purpose of C-E translation of businesses' promotional material. Simultaneously, the typical problems appeared in the translation process have been explored and analyzed. With practical examples, the author probes into some rules for solving these problems. The problems in such translation can be often found in the following four categories---straying away from the source text, being constrained to the source text, lacking in cultural elements, having grammatical errors and improper expressions. However, three rules of Skopostheorie---skopos rule, intratextual coherence rule, and inter-textual coherence rule may be used as guidance for solving these problems.**

Index Terms—**Skopostheorie, businesses promotional material, problems analysis, C-E translation rules**

I. INTRODUCTION

Under the background of the increasing process of economic globalization, the economic exchanges between China and other countries all over the world become more and more frequent. And there come not only the great opportunities, but also challenges to all the enterprises of China. Therefore, in order to comply with the trend of development of global economy, the enterprises have to struggle into the global market instead of being confined to the domestic, and with the constant development and optimization, finally mingle with the world economy. In the process of entering into the global market, enterprises need to provide quality products and services, publicize their own brands and products, so as to establish a good corporate image and enhance consumers' awareness of the brand. Therefore, the high quality of businesses' promotional material is particularly important, and the needs for its translation are increasingly high. The material translation may appear in a variety of media such as magazines, newspapers, and websites or in forms of brochures, flysheet and the like.

However, at present, in some C-E translation of businesses' promotional material, people pay too much attention to such translating principles as "faithful" and "equivalent", which leads to some mistakes. The translation fails to be understood by the target readers. Consequently, such kind of translation is not conducive to businesses' overseas development. The main cause is the promotional material does not reflect the difference between "the internal and the external". The literal translation of material for promotion does not fit external publicity (Tao, 2005).

This article will first give a brief introduction of the Skopostheorie, and then make analysis of the main problems in translation process. Finally, it will probe into the rules which can be used as guidance for solving these problems.

II. SKOPOSTHEORIE

The word Skopos comes from Greek, which means purpose n English. Hans J. Vermeer first put forward this theory in 1970. It was regarded as a landmark of the German functional translation and it is a important part of the functionalist theory as well. Before the functionalist theory, the functionalist equivalence theory proposed by Nida was in the dominant status in the translation domain. However, Vermeer was opposed to the viewpoint that translation is a simple process of language conversion. And he raised the Skopostheorie that has broken the limitation of equivalence theory. Skopostheorie holds that "translation is a complex action designed to achieve a particular purpose". (Nord, 2001, p.13) It means that any translation strategies or principles should serve for the purpose of the translation. He deems that translation is cross-cultural and the translator should be proficient in both languages. In his opinion, translation is a kind of action, that is, a kind of human behavior with purposes.

As Vermeer(1984) mentioned, translation is an "intentional, interpersonal, partly verbal intercultural interaction based on a source text". Thus, Skopostheorie will decide the translation strategy just according to the intended purpose in the perspective of target readers. Since people use the different languages in the different culture background could hardly understand each other, the Skopostheorie take advantage of the intended purpose to make them achieve the communication.

In Vermeer's view, the Skopos of the translation is set by the translator based on the initiator's instructions. As we all know that almost all the businesses are bound up in the benefit they can obtain. Therefore, according to the

Skopostheorie, the C-E translation of businesses' promotional material should all base on its commercial purpose as all the businesses are benefit-oriented.

III. Main Problems in the Businesses' Promotional Material Translation

Although there is no denying that Chinese scholars, professors, translators and other relevant personage have gained a numerous volumes of achievements in this issue, there is still much room for improvement. Due to the differences in language, social habits, religious beliefs, aesthetic taste and thinking patterns, the translator will inevitably encounter many problems in C-E translation of businesses' promotional material. The following sections intend to delve into some typical problems that frequently appear in translation.

A. Straying Away from the Source Text

During the translation, it is not advisable to translate words literally from source language. Translation is essentially a translator's recreation of the source text. But that does not mean that the translator can stray far away from the original text and indulges in free translation, which normally results in two major problems, mistranslation and undertranslation.

1. Misinterpretation

Misinterpretation is mainly due to the translator's low English proficiency. Translation is based on what they take forgranted without seeking any supporting evidence. For example, "我们公司生产腰包", it was mistranslated as "Our company specializes in producing body bags". Here, 'body bags' is not what we understand from the literal meaning of the 'body-related package', but refers to the 'body bag' which is used to wrap the corpse. And its preferred translation is "Our company specializes in producing wallets". Mistranslation, existing commonly, fails to achieve the purpose of accurate translation of the source text, and even makes it rather ridiculous.

2. Undertranslation

The second problem is undertranslation which is also called overloaded translation. This means that the translator ignores the understandability and readability of the text, or overestimates the knowledge of the target readers so that the readers cannot get a good understanding of the text. Take the word "拳头产品" for example. If literally translated it as "fist product", it will be quite difficult for the target readers to understand its meaning in that they cannot grasp the concept of "拳头产品" as the Chinese readers. For this, Mr Lu Gusun(1998) proposed that it could be translated as "knockout product" which not only achieves the purpose of conveying the main information, but also seems more vivid and fits with the source text.

B. Being Constrained to the Source Text

Translation is not the translator's personal recreation. The first thing the translator should do is to be faithful to the original so as to convey the right information. As the principles "Faithfulness, Expressiveness and Elegance" advocated by Yan Fu in the "Theory of Evolution" say, "Faithfulness" is the most important one that the translator should observe in translation. However, with the pursuit of accuracy, they rigidly adhere to the source language and pay too much emphasis on "faithfulness". As a result, some improper translations occur which leaves a great gap between the source language text and the target language text. As Mr. Huang Youyi (2004) pointed out that "the best foreign publicity translation is not done by verbatim translation or word by word translation but is done on the basis of appropriate processing of the Chinese text in line with the foreign readers' thinking habit". Verbatim translation often leads to Chinglish and lengthiness.

1. Chinglish

John Pinkham (2001) defined Chinglish as misshapen, hybrid language that is neither English nor Chinese but that might be described as English with Chinese characteristics.

If the translator simply strives for their translation to be identical in form to the source text, it probably causes some unnecessary misunderstanding. A common expression "欢迎您来到..." is invariably translated as "Welcome you to...". Though "welcome" is a cliche, it is always misused. Such translation results from being over constrained to Chinese sentence patterns.

2. Lengthiness

If translation is constrained too much to the source text, it will also result in lengthiness. In China, it is commonplace to have lengthy promotional material which has a mass of ornate rhetoric, while the westerners more appreciate the simplicity of language. For example, "我公司经营的产品中有举世闻名的贝雕工艺品;色彩艳丽,种类繁多的人造花卉;令人爱不释手的小工艺品......稀有名贵的钻石珠宝;技艺精湛,巧夺天工的玉石雕刻......", it is an emblematic example of Chinese expression. But in order to cater to the taste of target readers and reach the goal of promotional publicity, the translator had better make it brief or concise, like "Our famous products include carvings, a variety of colorful artificial flowers, small arts...... rare jewelry, meticulous jade carvings......"

C. Lack of Cultural Elements

Culture is an extremely abstract and broad concept. It is difficult to define it, but it is ubiquitous. Each nation has owned its unique culture. Even an inadvertent gesture may show the characteristics of culture. Culture includes people's beliefs, habits, values, behavior, and modes of communication and so on.

Nida (2001) once said that without careful consideration of language and cultural background, any text cannot be fully understood. When translating the source language into the target language, the translator needs to keep thinking about the coherence point of the two different cultures in order to avoid misinterpretation. A familiar example is the word "龙". In China, some associative expressions about "龙" can be frequently employed such as "龙的传人" and "龙头企业". Dragon has a good image as well as a remarkable meaning in the Chinese long history. Ancient Chinese people always regarded the emperors as dragons. Nevertheless, dragon is considered as an awful and fearsome monster in the west. There is great disparity between China and the west. Hence, in this case, the translator could not translate these expressions literally so as to avoid cultural misunderstanding. Thus, "龙头企业" can be translated as "leading enterprises" or "corporate champion".

D.   Grammatical Error and Improper Expression

The grammatical error and improper expression are most common problems in all material translations. But they are most fundamental problems that cannot be ignored.

Grammatical errors include subject-predicate inconsistency, conjunction abuse or misuse, spelling and punctuation errors, etc. For instance, in the sentence "Our company is specialize in toys production". the error lies in that the original form of the verb cannot be used after the copula. Take another example --- "With our advance technology, efficient product lines and professional management, we guarantee that all our products are in excellent quality and will satisfy every customer needs." There are more grammatical errors in this sentence. "advance" is a noun not an adjective. It is not "all our products are in excellent quality but "all our products are excellent in quality". And at last, it is not "customer needs" but "customer needs".

Each language has its own habit and there are some distinctive ways of expression in a language. Since the translator is inclined to exactly keep the Chinese writing style, the improper expression can be frequently seen in the C-E translation of businesses promotional material. For example, the expression "保存 (preserve) 完好 (well)" in Chinese is "well preserved" in English rather than "preserved well" which is confined to the order of Chinese expression. In addition, improper expressions appear due to the wrong choice of words. The translator must be absolutely careful in choosing the proper words for the certain context. Otherwise, such mistakes will definitely cause confusion or even misunderstanding among foreign readers.

IV.   RULES FOR THE C-E TRANSLATION OF BUSINESSES PROMOTIONAL MATERIAL

The equivalence-based translation theory lay emphasis on the source text, and asks the translator to make a faithful replica of it. But because of the differences both in language and culture, the faithful replica seems not so easy to be achieved. Since the concept of 'equivalence' can not work out problems in some situations, the Skopostheorie was raised with three basic rules: the Skopos rule, the intratextual coherence rule and the inter-textual coherence rule.

As for so many typical problems that may arise in the C-E translation of businesses promotional material, based on the Skopostheorie, three main rules can be employed to cope with these problems. The translator can render a perfect translation if they can follow the three main rules.

A.   Skopos Rule

Translation is a behavior with certain purpose and result. And there are a series of rules that should be observed in the process of translation. According to Skopostheorie, the prime principle determining any translation process is the purpose of the overall translation action (Nord, 2001). And in the viewpoint of Vermeer, there are three possible types of purpose in the translation which are divided as: the general purpose aimed at by the translation process, the communicative purpose aimed at by the target text and the purpose aimed at by a particular translation strategy or procedure. The Skopos breaks through the limitation of equivalence theory which is focusing on the source language.

Therefore, in line with Skopos rule, the translator must have a clear awareness of the company in their mind while translating the businesses' promotional material. It is obvious that the C-E translation here is motive-driven. Because the ultimate purpose of the business is to appeal customers to purchase their products. The translation must be customer-oriented in order to achieve this goal. And the translation in the end should be both acceptable and attractive. Hence, the translator who neglects the Skopos rule will probably make the translation meaningless. This can be proved by the following example:

Source text:

这里三千座奇峰拔地而起,形态各异,有的似玉柱神鞭,立地顶天;有的像铜墙铁壁,巍然屹立;有的如晃板垒卵;摇摇欲坠...神奇而又真实，迷离而又实在，不是艺术创造胜似艺术创造，令人叹为观止。——《武陵源风景》

The translator should be quite explicit about the expectation of the readers when he or she is going to render the text into English. As it is a tourism brochure, the main information should be conveyed to the readers who want to know more about it. The following is a target text which justifies the motive of the products.

Target text:

3000 crags rise in various shapes-pillars, columns, walls, shaky egg stacks and potted landscapes...--- conjuring up fantastic and unforgettable images. (Jia, 2000)

As we can see in the target text above, the source language is really magnificent but intricate. Literal translation may lead to unintelligibility. The translator adopted an omission approach in the translation which highlighted the key information that could be conducive to the readers' better understanding of the material. Thus, the purpose of attracting customers is reached.

B. Intratextual Coherence Rule

Intratextual coherence rule means that the target text should be coherent with the situation of the readers so as to make the readers understand the text easily. It places emphasis on the readability and acceptability of the target text. To achieve this goal, the target text must be fit in the culture and communicative customs which the readers have. Vermeer once defined culture as "the entire setting of norms and conventions an individual as a member of his society must know in order to be 'like everybody'" (Nord, 2001, p. 33).

Apparently, culture element is one of the most significant aspects that deserves people much attention. Therefore, while translating businesses promotional material, the culture of target language must be taken into consideration so that the target text can be more acceptable for the foreign readers. Here is an example.

Source text:

禹陵左侧是禹祠，祠前一泓碧水，名曰放生池。(Xu & Hu, 2008)

In this source text, some unacquainted culture phenomenon arise, such as "禹陵", "禹祠" and "放生池". If the translator just transliterates them as "yulin", "yuci" or "fangsheng pond", it would be arcane for the foreign readers and cannot reach the goal of the translation. As a result, some pertinent explanation should be provided in the translation. Target text is as follows:

To the left of the Mausoleum is the shrine to King Yu, where his descendants and admirers offered sacrifices to him. And in front of the memorial temple lies a limpid pool called 'Fang-sheng Pond' at which believers in Buddhism freed small animals they had bought from their captors as a philanthropic act.

Cultural elements are fully reflected in the target text which has removed the cultural barriers. Moreover, it can be approved by readers without a hitch and then achieve the purpose of publicity.

C. Inter-textual Coherence Rule

Intertextual coherence rule which is also named fidelity rule indicates the coherent relationship between source and target text. Different from the intratextual coherence which focuses on the relationship between the target text and receivers, the intertextual coherence rule sticks out the importance of the source text. It is rather similar to the Faithfulness proposed by Chinese scholar Yanfu which claims the target text should be faithful to the source text. The faithfulness can be seen from the linguistic level which includes words, sentences, grammars, and figure of speech. The form taken to maintain intertextual coherence depends on the translator's interpretation of the source text and on the Skopos of translation. Some useful background information offered by the translator can make it easier as well as clearer for foreign readers to understand. Duan Liancheng(2004) once pointed out that "Do not underestimate the audience's intelligence. But never over-estimate an ordinary foreigner's knowledge of China". Intertextual coherence signifies that the receiver should be able to understand the target text both in its cultural context and communicative situation.

Here is an example for this:

Source text:

... 诞生于上世纪末的虎豹集团，信守孜孜以求，永不言退的发展理念，在市场经济的大潮中，任凭浊浪排空，惊涛拍岸，独有胜似闲庭信步的自信，处变不惊，运筹帷幄。尽握无限商机于掌间，渐显王者之气于天地... (choose from Hubao Group in Jiangsu, China)

Target text:

Founded in the late 1980s, the Hubao Group is determined to succeed... The Hubao Group has a high standard of quality and is well-equipped with the world's most advanced technology. They are taking the lead in designing new fashion an maintaining high quality products... (Zhou, 2003)

Since the source text has some information which makes no sense to the readers, the translator singled out the main information expressed by the source text and pruned the useless ones, such as "孜孜以求", "浊浪排空", "惊涛拍岸", etc. These expressions have such strong cultural background that the foreign readers probably cannot get the resonance and even feel repugnant for it. Therefore, in this translation, the translator needs to select the substantial information so as to get the acknowledgment of the foreign readers and eventually achieves the Skopos of the translation.

In the functionalism perspective, the source text is merely an offer of the information, where the translator picks the essential information that can serve the ultimate goal. In this way, the function of the businesses' promotional material can be realized within the expectation.

V. CONCLUSION

Good C-E translation of businesses' promotional material should be faithful but not rigid, flexible but not divorced from the content. Also, it should be both concise and elegant in the structure. Besides, some grammatical mistakes and improper expressions should be avoided as well. As the businesses' promotional material is quite different from other

types of ordinary text, the translator needs to pay attention to the correct handling of the new vocabulary and jargon translation related to a certain industry, so as to successfully achieve the purpose of the translation. It can help the target readers take a deep understanding of the enterprise and its products, so as to achieve the effect of publicity, improve brand awareness, expand the scope of the enterprise's cognitive groups and sales market, and eventually bring great economic and social benefits. In addition, the translator should also have a good understanding and mastery of two kinds of languages, two cultures, with one or more areas of professional knowledge, at the same time with an objective and cautious attitude and a high sense of responsibility.

As the Skopos of businesses' promotional material is to "convey the information, display the peculiarity, set up the image, stimulate the demand and expand the sales", (Yang & Bao, 2006, p.32) it should be given full consideration and be the benchmark for the translation. This article utilized the Skopostheorie to probe into some typical problems of C-E translation of businesses promotional material and analyzed the rules for dealing with these problems. Since no single translation theory can summarize all the probable situations, the analysis cannot be very satisfactory. More efforts should be made in the further research on this subject. With rapid economic globalization, enterprises face more opportunities, but challenges as well. The Skopostheorie can be adopted as guidance for the C-E translation of businesses' promotional material, which may act as a catalyst for their business expansion in the global market.

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Dynamic Assessment in English Pronunciation Teaching: From the Perspective of Intellectual Factors

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Abstract—This study is to empirically investigate the effect of dynamic assessment on Chinese learners' development of English pronunciation proficiency and their non-intellectual factors by adopting a teaching model of dynamic assessment in English pronunciation class. This experiment was carried out among 36 English majors from a newly-upgraded local Chinese university within one semester, and the findings indicated that the participants showed a great improvement in their mastery of segmental features and supersegmental features. As for the non-intellectual factors, the participants presented a stronger interest and lower anxiety level in practicing English pronunciation after the experiment, though there was only little change in their motivation.

Index Terms—English pronunciation, dynamic assessment, non-intellectual factors

I. INTRODUCTION

The introduction of summative assessment and formative assessment into language testing has shifted people's attention away from only emphasizing the testing results to valuing the interaction between teaching and testing, which is one of the revolutionary changes in language testing. Because in teaching, language teachers do not just need a static report of examinees' linguistic proficiency, but they also need to organically connect the teaching process with the testing feedback and know what their students could achieve with the scaffolding from teachers or peers instead of taking the test as an end of learning process.

Dynamic assessment (DA), which originated from Vygotsky's Social-cultural Theory, or more precisely, from his theory of the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978), has further enriched the theory of formative assessment. It tries to combine teaching with testing to advance and promote teaching by testing, for it is such kind of assessment in which teachers' intervention and interaction work as the essential components targeting at delving more into learners' potentials. Since its birth, it has attracted researchers' interest from different aspects of foreign language teaching and learning (Kozulin& Grab, 2002; Poehner, 2005).

This study, based on the previous studies, is an empirical one to reveal the effect of DA in Chinese learners' learning process of English pronunciation. More specifically, it intends to certify the validity of DA in EFL by dynamically evaluating the changes of learners' pronunciation proficiency and the levels of their non-intellectual factors.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Theoretical Foundation of Dynamic Assessment

Dynamic assessment was based on Vygotsky's theory of the Zone of the Proximal Development, in which he wanted to point out there existed differences between the examinee's actual developmental level and their potential developmental level. The former is determined by their current ability while the latter can be achieved with the help from teachers or other more competent peers (Vygotsky, 1978). DA is a kind of interactive assessment of language teaching and learning. Different from other assessments, DA puts more emphasis on the process of scaffolding learners to promote the development of their potential to its extreme. In the process, examiners and examinees interact with each other about the learning difficulties so that examinees' potential can be inspired individually. As said by Kirschenbaum (1998), the examiner shoulders the responsibilities of both the teacher and the assessor. He also gives guidance to learners to tackle the learning problems while promoting the development of their ability to solve similar problems.

B. The Application Models of Dynamic Assessment in Foreign Language Teaching

DA makes clear the active roles of interaction between teachers and learners and the individual differences of learners, which have always been ignored in the traditional assessment. After its introduction, there have been a variety of models and procedures of its application in education. Among them, two models are identified and discussed most frequently, that is the interventionist and the interactionist approach by Poehner and Lantolf (2005). The interventionist model puts emphasis on the intervention from the teacher by use of reminders, hints, inspiring questions or even demonstrations. It is also called *sandwich* format, because it is composed of three parts, a pre-test, a mediation phase

and a post test. The mediation part is just like something 'sandwiched' between the two tests, which makes it more psychometrics-orientated. The interactionist model, also called *cake* format, advocates the embeddedness of instruction in assessment so as to combine the two together organically. This model, unlike the former, puts little focus on the qualitative assessment of learners' ability. Examiners are not to measure learners, but to interpret them, through the interaction with them. The difficulties in learning are solved by dynamic dialogues or cooperative interaction. The difference between the interventionist and the interactionist models mainly lies in their different ways of mediation.

Although there are arguments about the strengths and shortcomings of the two models, a review of the researches in foreign language teaching and testing can show that the more widely adopted approach is the interventionist model (Haywood & Lidz, 2007). Erben, Ban and Summers (2008) proved the feasibility of applying the interventionist type of DA in computerized teaching of reading in French as a second language. The findings by Aleeva (2008) also supported the effects of DA on L2 learners' listening comprehension in French. In his research, learners' listening proficiency was promoted significantly with mediated guidance compared with those performed in an unmediated situation. Anton (2009) indicated that there was a clear difference between learners' actual and potential abilities in a research of a group of third-year Spanish language majors who were given necessary mediation in writing and speaking learning. The investigation by Shabani (2012) revealed the significant progress in learners' reading comprehension ability by exposing them to a DA approach of mediations in teaching process.

C. Research Statement and Questions

Since language learning is a gradual process, in which we want to know what is happening and what will happen instead of just looking back on what happened in the past, it is enlightening to dynamically involve both the examiner and the examinee, or both the teacher and the student, in the process. However, little research has focused on the role of DA in teaching EFL pronunciation while most of them have concentrated on the study of DA in English reading, listening and writing process. Based on the previous studies, in order to present a full picture of its validity in foreign language teaching and testing, this research is to investigate the role of DA in the situation of Chinese learners' learning of English pronunciation, mainly from the perspective of its influence on learners' pronunciation proficiency and non-intellectual factors. Non-intellectual factors include interest, motivation, needs, anxiety, and attitude and so on, which may play a negative role in learning if not developed well. However, because of the limited time and energy, for our investigation, we only chose three factors: interest, motivation and anxiety. Therefore, this study is to figure out the answers to the following two questions:

1. What are the effects of DA on Chinese learners' development of English pronunciation proficiency?
2. What are the differences made by DA in Chinese learners' interest, motivation and anxiety in learning English pronunciation?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This research involved 36 participants who were first-grade English majors all from the same class in a normal university in Southwest China. They were chosen because English pronunciation weighed a lot in their major and nevertheless they had not accepted any specific instructions of English pronunciation before. All of them were told that they would be in an experimental class of English pronunciation for one semester which aimed to help them with the difficulties in learning English pronunciation, and they had the right to decide to stay in or leave the class anytime before the class was completed.

B. Materials and Instruments

For the one semester's English pronunciation class, we designed eight tasks covering all the basic parts of English pronunciation, including the segmental features as vowels and consonants, and the supersegmental features as stress, elision, linking and intonation.

In order to compare the differences of the participants' English pronunciation proficiency, we designed an oral test about their pronunciation proficiency and skills based on the teaching design for the experimental class. The oral test was composed of two parts: the test of segmental and supersegmental features. In this first part, the participants needed to read the phonemes listed and pairs of words which were minimal pairs. In the second part, they needed to finish reading some phrases, sentences and a paragraph in which their mastery of the supersegmental features were tested.

Besides, two questionnaires were designed to evaluate the changes of the participants' learning interest, motivation and anxiety before and after the experimental class. In the pre-experiment questionnaire, Questions 1-3 were about their learning interest in practicing English pronunciation, for example, "1. I would like to spend more time practicing English pronunciation than other aspects like writing and grammar; 3. It is interesting to practice imitating English pronunciation." Questions 4-5 were about their motivation, for instance, "4. I practice pronunciation because I like English and English culture; 5. I learn English pronunciation because I have to fulfill the requirements of the course." And Questions 6-9 were about their anxiety in learning English pronunciation, such as "7. I am worried that I might make pronunciation mistakes when speaking English in class; 8. It is Ok if others evaluate my pronunciation when I speak English." In the post-experiment questionnaire, the questions were arranged almost in the same way only with

one exception that three extra questions were added to find out the participants' evaluation of the experimental class, for example, "9. The teacher's guidance and my competent peers' demonstration helped me a lot in learning pronunciation."

C.   Procedure

Before the implementation of the experimental class, a survey was made to look into the participants' mastery of English pronunciation and their interest, motivation and anxiety in learning English pronunciation. All the participants were required to take an oral test about their pronunciation proficiency and fill in a questionnaire about their interest, motivation and anxiety.

The whole experimental class was composed of eight tasks, and each task was a comparatively independent assessing stage, which could be further divided into three parts: The pretest, the intervention and the posttest. As for the participants, they were supposed to have acquired some basic knowledge and skills of English pronunciation before entering the university. However, because of various factors, such as their learning motivation, learning environment, learning attitude in high schools, many of them failed to meet the basic requirements of English pronunciation as a high-school graduate. Therefore, it is necessary for us to have their English pronunciation diagnosed at the beginning of each learning task so as to locate the actual pronunciation level of each participant, which could help to expose the real problems.

At the beginning of each task, the teacher would give a pretest according to the content arranged in that task. In the second stage, the teacher's intervention would be provided in terms of what had been indicated in the pre-test. The intervention was mainly carried out in the way of verbal mediation, which could be some hints, suggestions, explanations or demonstrations, varying in the specific degrees of difficulties and the individuals' competence. In the third stage, a post-test was fulfilled to reveal their improvement or their existing problems if there were any until those problems were solved with the help of the teacher's or peers' specific guidance.

In the end, all of the 36 participants remained in the class until it was finished. After that, the participants were required to take part in an English pronunciation test orally and to fill in a questionnaire which was to investigate their non-intellectual factors like learning interest, learning motivation, and anxiety in English pronunciation learning after the experiment. Three native speakers of English were invited to score each student's performance on the spot. Their final scores were the average of the scores given by the three teachers.

D.   Data Analysis

Statistical Packages for Social Science (SPSS) version 18.0 was employed to analyze the quantitative data collected in this research so as to present the descriptive statistics of the participants' scores in English pronunciation tests before and after the experiment. Besides, Excel 2007 was adopted to present the results in graphs to compare the changes found in the two questionnaires before and after the experiment.

IV.   RESULTS

A.   The Participants' English Pronunciation Proficiency

The descriptive statistics are adopted to present a general picture of the research results. As is shown in Table 1, the changes in the participants' English pronunciation proficiency before and after the experimental class are quite clearly listed, including the minimum score, the maximum score, the mean score and the standard deviation. Before the experiment, the participants' mean scores of segmental and supersegmental scores are 65.6 and 64.8 respectively. After that, the mean scores of the two are 79.6 and 68.2 respectively. There are clear differences between the two groups of mean scores. In addition, the minimum scores show a greater improvement than the maximum scores. The minimum score and the maximum score of segmental features before the experiment are 55 and 70, while those after the experiment are 80 and 88. The minimum score and the maximum score of supersegmental features before the experiment are 52 and 68, while those after the experiment are 70 and 78.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SOURCES OF SELF-EFFICACY AND ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION PERFORMANCE

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
pre-experiment(segmental features)	36	55	80	65.6	6.95
post-experiment(segmental features)	36	70	88	79.6	4.82
pre-experiment(supersegmental features)	36	52	70	64.8	6.21
post-experiment(supersegmental features)	36	68	78	75.2	5.23

B.   The Participants' Interest in English Pronunciation Learning

The degrees of the participants' interest in English pronunciation learning before and after the experiment are shown respectively in Figure 1 and Figure 2. For Question 1, only 31.3% of the participants claimed they liked practicing pronunciation more than other aspects like writing and grammar, while there are 96.7% of them choosing to practice pronunciation more. In Question 2, 41.9% thought that acquiring a native-like pronunciaiton was very attractive, while

after the experiment, 73.3% thought so. In Question 3, 44.4% would like to practice imitating English pronunciation in English movies or TV series, while that number rised to 69.0% after the experiment.
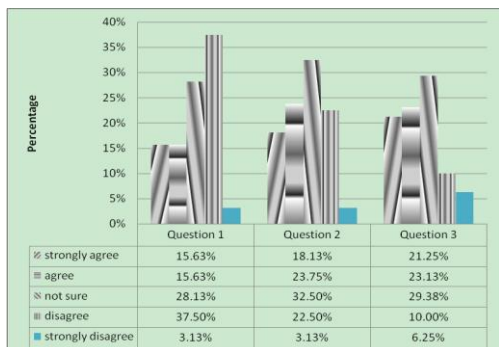

	Question 1	Question 2	Question 3
strongly agree	15.63%	18.13%	21.25%
agree	15.63%	23.75%	23.13%
not sure	28.13%	32.50%	29.38%
disagree	37.50%	22.50%	10.00%
strongly disagree	3.13%	3.13%	6.25%

Figure 1

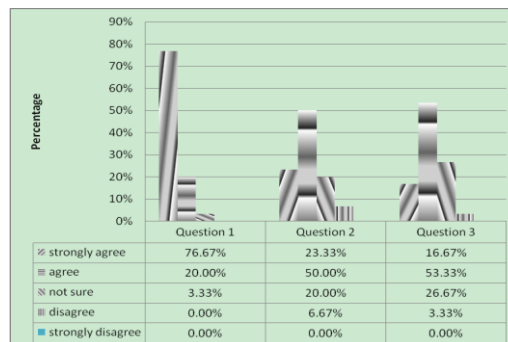|	Question 1	Question 2	Question 3
strongly agree	76.67%	23.33%	16.67%
agree	20.00%	50.00%	53.33%
not sure	3.33%	20.00%	26.67%
disagree	0.00%	6.67%	3.33%
strongly disagree	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%

Figure 2

C.   The Participants' Motivation in English Pronunciation Learning

Motivation is one of the most focused non-intellectual factors in foreign language teaching and testing. Figure 3 and Figure 4 presents the distribution of motivation before and after the experiment respectively. In Figure 3, as for Question 4, 71.9% of the participants thought that a good English pronunciation could improve their communicative proficiency. As for the same question in Figure 4, 100% of the participants thought that a good English pronunciation could improve their communicative proficiency, and among them more than half strongly thought so. As for Question 5, before the experiment, 78.1% of them chose to learn pronunciation because they were attracted by English language and its culture. The number for the same question shows a little change after the experiment, that is 80%.
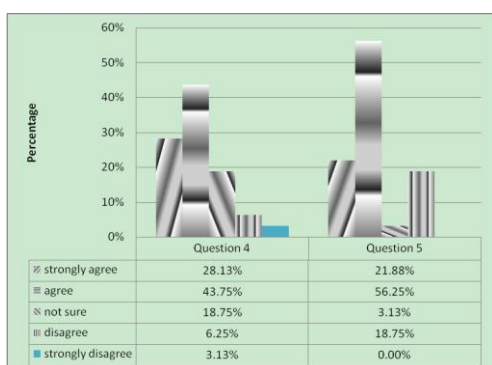

	Question 4	Question 5
strongly agree	28.13%	21.88%
agree	43.75%	56.25%
not sure	18.75%	3.13%
disagree	6.25%	18.75%
strongly disagree	3.13%	0.00%

Figure 3

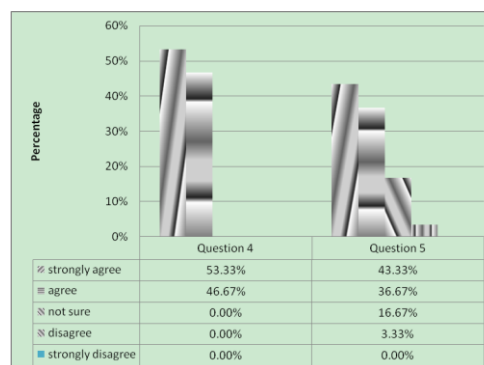|	Question 4	Question 5
strongly agree	53.33%	43.33%
agree	46.67%	36.67%
not sure	0.00%	16.67%
disagree	0.00%	3.33%
strongly disagree	0.00%	0.00%

Figure 4

D.   The Participants' Anxiety in English Pronunciation Learning

As is shown in Figure 5, the result of Question 6 indicates that 25.0% of them said that they were not scared to communicate with natives, but still 53.1% were not sure before the experiment. But after the experiment, there were 72.3% of them claiming that they did not fear to communicate with foreigners. From Question 7, we could see that 28.7% of them claimed that they were not afraid of communicating with teachers in class while the number for that question was raised to 73.3% after the experiment. For Question 8, 26.3% were not uneasy when facing others' judgments of their pronunciation before the experiment and that number increased to 63.3% after the experiment. In Figure 3, Question 9 indicates that 25% of the participants thought they were not afraid of making pronunciation mistakes, while in Figure 6, 86.7% said that they were not afraid after the experiment.
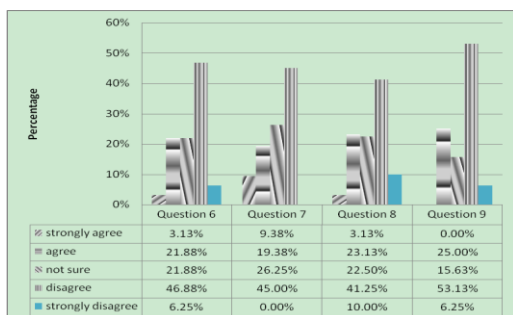

	Question 6	Question 7	Question 8	Question 9
strongly agree	3.13%	9.38%	3.13%	0.00%
agree	21.88%	19.38%	23.13%	25.00%
not sure	21.88%	26.25%	22.50%	15.63%
disagree	46.88%	45.00%	41.25%	53.13%
strongly disagree	6.25%	0.00%	10.00%	6.25%

Figure 5

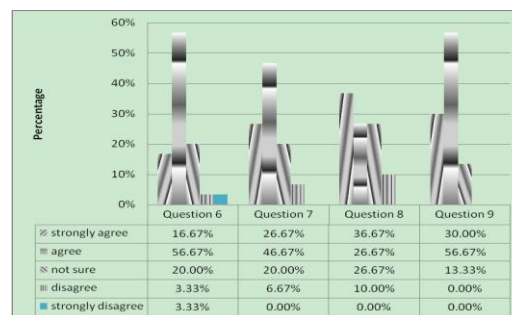|	Question 6	Question 7	Question 8	Question 9
strongly agree	16.67%	26.67%	36.67%	30.00%
agree	56.67%	46.67%	26.67%	56.67%
not sure	20.00%	20.00%	26.67%	13.33%
disagree	3.33%	6.67%	10.00%	0.00%
strongly disagree	3.33%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%

Figure 6

E.   The Participants' Evaluation of the Experimental Class

As is shown in Figure 7, we can find that 50.0% of the participants strongly believed and 40.0% of them believed that the teachers' guidance and their competent peers' demonstration helped a lot in learning pronunciation; 100% of them claimed their willingness to participate in the process of teaching and learning; 80% claimed DA was more meaningful and helpful for their improvement while 16.7% were not sure.
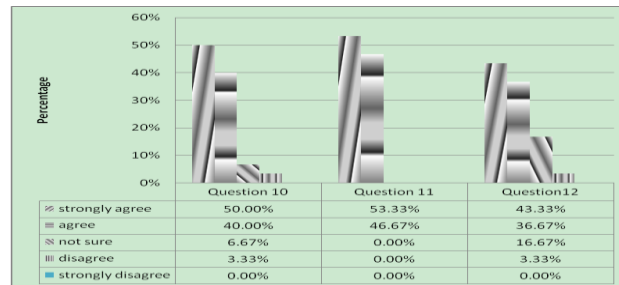

	Question 10	Question 11	Question12
strongly agree	50.00%	53.33%	43.33%
agree	40.00%	46.67%	36.67%
not sure	6.67%	0.00%	16.67%
disagree	3.33%	0.00%	3.33%
strongly disagree	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%

Figure 7

V.   DISCUSSIONS

From the results, we can conclude that the intervention type of DA plays an active role in helping learners improve their pronunciation proficiency and promoting the positive effects of non-intellectual factors in the learning process, for 100% of the participants claimed that they were willing to participate in such kind of teaching process and 90% of them thought that the help from either their teacher or their peers got them through the difficulties in learning, which positively supports the previous studies. From the results of the two oral tests, it is clear that the participants' mastery of segmental and supersegmental features were greatly improved. However, it also needs to be pointed out that the improvement of supersegmental mastery was slower than that of segmental elements.

Before the experiment, what they had experienced in English pronunciation learning was some repeated mechanic practice, and all they could get from their teachers after learning were static scores as a report of what they had acquired. However, numbers cannot talk, so they hardly knew what the specific problem was or how the problem could be solved. DA centered on learners' proximal development zone focuses on promoting individuals' advancement by delving and maximizing their potential by inputting knowledge and skills based on their existing level. In the teaching process, the assessment puts more weights on the progress than on the final score. Teachers play the roles of instructors, examiners, and also assistants to provide learners with scaffoldings through inspiring them or demonstrating them how to do according to the specific difficulties different individuals face.

The findings also show that DA did make a difference in the participants' non-intellectual factors, like interest, motivation and anxiety. The participants' interest was greatly stimulated: After the experiment, 96.7% of them claimed their willingness to practice English pronunciation, and 73.3% said they were in love with the Standard English pronunciation. After the experiment, they had a stronger motivation in learning pronunciation for improving communicative competence: 100% of them had understood the important role of pronunciation in learning English. The change is more significant in the case of anxiety. Before the class, only 28.7% said they were not afraid to communication with natives and 25% not afraid to communicate with teachers in English class. After the class, we found that 72.3% declared that they were not afraid to speak English and communicate with teachers in class, and 73.3% believed they were not scared to communicate with English natives. It seems that DA functions to improve their confidence in learning English pronunciation and lower their anxiety level. In the intervention model of DA, there are always direct interaction between the teacher and learners. After the pretest, the mediation can function as scaffoldings for learners to conquer the difficulties. Meanwhile, the interactive assessment can help teachers respond promptly according to learners' affective and psychological status, and adopt proper strategies to guide learners. As a result, the learners can lower their affective filter levels and be more active in learning, which just works in a virtuous circle to stimulate learners' interest and confidence in learning pronunciation.

VI.   IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATION

Dynamic assessment is an evaluation system which organically combines teaching and assessment, and makes the two coordinate with each other. In DA application process, the biggest challenge is for teachers. While applying DA in English pronunciation teaching, the teacher plays the role of a designer, a monitor and a guide. As a designer, he needs to make an overall plan of the teaching content, to design the pretest and the posttest, and to choose the intervention strategies in terms of the pretest results and learners' difficulties. As a monitor, the teacher needs to supervise the whole teaching process to know learners' progress and their difficulties in real time. As a guide, the teacher needs to find a proper way to help learners to construct their knowledge and skills and develop their cognitive ability gradually. Therefore, teachers should fully understand their role in teaching. Especially in the intervention stage, teachers should

consider the influence of social culture and affective factors, to adopt an active intervention strategy in teaching. In addition, the intervention model of DA usually does not give students instruction in advance, but provides learners with proper strategies and skills to help them with learning difficulties. The guidance in this stage may range from a simple right-or-wrong feedback to an explanation or even to a demonstration. As for those who have difficulties understanding the verbal explanation, teachers could adopt a more direct way to show them how to solve the pronunciation problem. Meanwhile, it is advisable to adopt a model of multiple dynamic assessments, which means to take into consideration the combination of teacher-evaluation, peer-evaluation, and self-evaluation to promote learners' progress in learning.

This research, just like any other one of this kind, may suffer from some limitations. Firstly, the non-intellectual factors chosen were limited to learners' interest, motivation and anxiety. More information is needed to indicate the DA influence on other non-intellectual factors, such as belief, learning style, and attitude. Secondly, it might be worthwhile to investigate whether DA works differently between high-level and low-level learners to further certify the role of DA in teaching and learning process. Thirdly, the sample of this study is also quite limited and other factors like age, gender, and cultures may also be useful variables in the study of DA in learners' development of pronunciation proficiency.

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Revising Low-level and High-level Issues in Iranian EFL Learners' Writings across Proficiency Levels, Age, and Gender

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Abstract—**The present study was intended to investigate differences in the kinds of higher-order and lower-order revising practices employed by less proficient and more proficient Iranian EFL learners using an ex post facto design. Moreover, it was aimed at examining if (and how) these learners' age and gender affected their revising practices. To do so, 70 EFL learners studying in Foreign Language Institutions were selected. The participants had attended language learning classes at least for two years; therefore they possessed the minimum proficiency level required for the purposes of this study. The ESL Composition Profile was used to analytically score the learners' writings, even though the writings were also holistically scored. The collected data were then submitted to SPSS for analysis. Some statistical procedures such as MANOVA, ANCOVA, and SPANOVA were used to test the hypotheses of the study. The obtained results revealed that there were significant differences in the kinds of higher-order and lower-order revising practices employed by the students with high and low writing ability. It was also revealed that the amount of differences between high-level and low-level students' revising practices did not change significantly after controlling for the effects of age and gender. The results of this study might have implications for teaching writing.**

Index Terms—**writing ability, higher-order revision, lower-order revision**

I. INTRODUCTION

As a major skill, writing includes a number of sub-processes in which the writer goes from global to local issues: from planning the outline of the text, to choosing ideas, selecting forms to convey meaning, monitoring the text, and revising according to both audience and goals of the writing. As a result, mastering writing skill necessitates "a set of abilities which include both 'lower-order' skills, such as the automation of handwriting and spelling, and 'higher-order' competencies, such as problem-solving strategies and manipulation of abstract thought" (Forrester 1996, p. 171). Writers should be concerned with both local and global issues and employ writing as an intellectual tool; however, it is not possible for them to give enough attention to local and global issues unless they revise their writings (Krashen 1989). The present study was an attempt to investigate differences in the kinds of higher-order and lower-order revising practices employed by less proficient and more proficient Iranian EFL learners. It also examined if these learners' age and gender affected their revising practices.

Since revision plays an important role in increasing writing quality, researchers have investigated L1 and L2 writers' revising practices. Some researchers like Beach (1976), Bridwell (1980), Faigley and Witte (1981), and Zamel (1983) have explored the relationship between revision and writing quality by examining the quantity and kinds of revisions employed by various groups of L1 writers. Other observations have attended to the way writers employ different revising practices (e.g., Gosden, 1996; Kobayashi, 1991; Matsumoto, 1995; Porte, 1996; Raimes, 1994). Most of such observations have discovered that unskilled writers are mostly concerned with surface characteristics, while skilled writers focus on deep-level segments, attending both to global and local issues.

Although differences in the kinds of revisions applied by expert and novice L2 learners is not dealt with adequately, the few studies done imply that L2 proficiency is associated with L2 writers' revising performance. For example, according to Raimes (1994) high proficiency students of ESL tended to revise and edit more frequently than low proficiency students; Aoki (1992), likewise, discovered that L2 learners' grammar scores correlated with correction of surface-level errors like misspelling, but not with high-level problems like content. Also it is proved that as L2 writers "learn more English and develop more fluency, concern about options sets in" (Rairnes, 1994, p. 160). There is still dispute over what other aspects of L2 writers' revising practices are related to second language proficiency. On the other hand, this issue is not investigated adequately in relation to age and gender of the second language learners. These are important issues because anything done to clarify these relationships can have a direct effect on the teaching methodology employed by EFL teachers. Teachers' enhanced understanding of the processes involved in writing may also help them set realistic goals for their students.

The present study was an attempt to test the following research hypotheses:

H0₁: There are no differences in the kinds of lower-order and higher-order revising practices employed by EFL learners with low and high writing ability.

H0₂: The amount of difference in revising practices of the high-level and low-level EFL learners will not change if the effect of age is controlled for.

H0₃: The amount of difference in revising practices of the high-level and low-level students will not change if the effect of gender is controlled for.

II. Review of the Related Literature

A. Importance of Writing

According to Jalaluddin (2011), writing is a system for interpersonal communication using various styles of language. It is of utmost importance in our daily lives. It allows us to interchange ideas and information with far away people. The significance of writing skill becomes evident when you see that it is almost an essential part of every teaching course (Ahmadi, Maftoon, & Gholami Mahrdad, 2012). In the academic world, too, the importance of writing is visible in journals, conference presentations, and publications through which the new concepts and ideas are transmitted (Fatemi, 2008). Writing is also vital for TEFL students since these students must acquire sufficient skill to write specific genres. In this matter, these days writing has gained even more importance because it is largely through this medium that ideas and information are transmitted in global networks. As a result, as Halliday (2003) and Hyland (2003) highlight, the ability to write is one of the most important skills that L2 learners must acquire.

According to Haiwen Mo (2012), writing is as an integral part of English language learning and an essential skill not only for post-graduate but also for undergraduate non-English students. A direct result of this belief is that teachers should help students develop their competence in writing throughout their schooling and enhance language development from multiple perspectives through building the foundations of written literacy from the early years of EFL learning.

B. Writing in L1 and L2

Some of the recent studies have found that the processes involved in second language writing differ from those of first language writing. Silva (1993) compared L1 and L2 writing processes by comparing 72 different studies and came up with remarkable differences between the first and second language writings with regard to both writing processes (transcribing, planning, and reviewing) and characteristics of final written products (quality, accuracy, fluency, and structure).

According to Bardovi-Harlig (1995) and Cumming (1989), the writer's proficiency level in the second language can be another source of differences between L1 and L2 writing, as is the writer's familiarity with the target language genres and associated sociocultural expectations of the discourse community (Cope & Kalantzis 1993; Silva 1997; Swales 1990).

The ways writers write in their first and second languages are clearly different (Manchón, Roca de Larios & Murphy 2000). This difference is quite obvious for low-proficiency second language writers who mainly rely on their L1 knowledge (Zimmerman 2000). Weissberg (2000) implies that writing is of crucial value in L2 learning for knowledgeable adults; therefore, such people write quite differently in their second language compared with those for whom writing in their first language plays a less important role. These differences may be less for writers who are more experienced in both their first and second languages. Matsumoto (1995) and Beare (2002) believe that skilled bilingual writers tend to use the same trends when writing in both L1 and L2.

C. Revision

Reid (1993) defines revision literally as "seeing again" (p. 233), reseeing or revisioning the text, but Piolat (1997) defines revision technically as modification or change made at "any point in the writing process" (p. 189).

As Faigley and Witte (1981) suggest revising is a recursive, ongoing, and problem-solving process. Skilled writers try to discover and approximate intended meanings at all stages of generating, reshaping, evaluating, and improving their goals, plans, concepts, and texts (Sommers, 1996; Witte, 1985; Zamel, 1982). Reynold and Bonk (1996) contend that the ability to revise is important since it enables writers to reform their thoughts, reconstruct and change content, and enhance their texts' quality. Consequently, almost all writing models and theories stress the essential role of revising in boosting the product and process of writing (Bartlett, 1982; Huot, 2002; Reynolds & Bonk, 1996; Van Gelderen, 1997).

D. Revising Practices of Skilled and Unskilled Writers

Bridwell (1980) found significant differences in the revising behavior of skilled and unskilled writers and attributed them to 'developmental differences' between the writers. He studied the revising practices of twelfth-grade students and found that the quality of texts which were revised between drafts were high compared with those which were revised only in the first drafts. He believed that the "mid-draft revisions were mainly at surface-level, as the writers were "mired

in spelling and mechanical problems during drafting" (p. 219); in contrast, between-drafts revisions seemed to lead to higher-order revisions.

Birnbaum (1982) in his protocol analysis investigated fourth and seventh grade writers revising strategies and discovered that good writers suspended more often to reread and reshape their texts. He believed that proficient writers possessed a larger repertoire of revising practices and were able to explain what they were reflecting during the writing task. Whereas, the poor writers were "enmeshed at the surface level of the task" (pp. 253–255) and it was difficult for them to explain what they were doing during writing. They were mainly concerned with checking the accuracy of their text and writing neatly without surface-level errors. Similarly, Faigley and Witte (1984), suggested that proficient writers modified their first drafts more than non-proficient writers and that poor writers revised very little at surface level.

The same patterns have been found to exist in EFL learners' writing processes. Many researchers have reported that novice and expert EFL learners employ revising and composing strategies similar to their L1 counterparts. Zamel (1983), for example, has noted that poor EFL writers spend less time on revision than skilled writers. Also, good EFL writers make substantial meaning-based changes on first drafts and delayed surface level changes at the end of the writing process. Phooi (1986), too, noted that the Chinese university students in his study frequently focused on cognitively easier word level changes like deletions, additions, and substitutions. Also, Hall (1990) reported that advanced EFL writers either made revisions that did not change the meaning of sentences or local changes that were restricted to word and phrase level. And finally, Moon (2000) conducted a research with EFL learners aged between ten and twelve and reported that addition at word and sentence level was the most common revising practice, though adding new sentences did not lead to inclusion of new ideas to the previous meaning.

To explain the revising practices of less-skilled EFL writers, Kellogg (1996) pointed out that novice writers usually make more grammatical and local errors when they are creating text because writing requires a large amount of operating memory. This limitation makes it rather difficult for them to draw on their specific knowledge to control their output as they begin to generate the text.

E. Revision and Age

Answers to issues like what kinds of revisions are made, how much revision occurs, and when it occurs mostly depend on writers' age and expertise. Some young students begin revising as they begin writing, but, generally speaking, children do not revise frequently (Calkins, 1980; Graves, 1975, 1979; Graves & Murray, 1980; Smith, 1982). Younger students, and even many older students, do not revise or revise to a small extent without teacher feedback or peer support (Butler-Nalin, 1984; Emig, 1971; Gould, 1980; Graves, 1979; Nold, 1981; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986). The findings of these studies are all indicative of the effect that age might have on the second language or foreign language learners' revising practices in addition to their proficiency level. Therefore, although there are marked individual differences (Faigley & Witte, 1981; Freedman & Pringle, 1980; Markham, 1983), revising practices tend to change with competence and age.

F. Gender and Writing

Since learner-centered education has been the dominant adopted standpoint in pedagogical systems recently, teachers must take students' characteristics into account in order to meet their needs. One of the characteristics which is related to learners' performance in language learning is gender. Gender is a socio-cultural construct. Some social classifications like age, gender, ethnicity, social class, education etc. determine the kind of language used by individuals (Kamiar, Gorjian, & Pazhakh, 2012; Muto-Humphrey, 2005). Although gender was viewed as an individual phenomenon previously, today it is considered as a social concept (Aslan, 2009; Block, 2002). As Kamiar et al. (2012) observe, gender displays the social and contextual behavior which society expects from each gender (male or female) in a clear manner.

Most research shows that in general females are better in language learning than males (e.g., Camarata & Woodcock, 2006; Gibb, Fergusson, & Horwood, 2008; Marks, 2008; Pajares & Valiante, 2001). The question, however, is if this finding can be extended to writing or if any significant differences can be found between males and females' revising practices. Peterson (2000) conducted a study on fourth and eighth-grade students' writing competence and noted the superiority of girls' writings over boys'; females' texts were more descriptive, detailed and greatly in conformity with writing rules and conventions. Also, a number of studies have indicated that females are more confident in writing than males (Pajares & Valiante, 2001; Peterson, 2000).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 70 male and female Iranian EFL learners whose ages ranged from 17 to 35. They were studying in English language institutes in the northwest city of Ardabil. These participants had been learning English for more than two years prior to the beginning of the study. The initial number of the students stood at 80 but since 10 of the students either did not write anything fitting the study in length or their handwritings were not legible enough, the number of the students included in the study dropped to 70.

B. Instruments

The instruments used in this study were of two types. First the researchers used ESL Composition Profile proposed by Jacobs, et al. (1981) to rate the participants' written texts analytically. This ESL Composition Profile comprises the five components of Organization and Content (global revisions) and Vocabulary, Language Use, and Mechanics (local revisions). The next instrument used was the participants' first and second drafts to determine their errors and the kind of revising practices they had engaged in. In addition, the learners' revised-samples were utilized to divide them into high- and low-proficiency students based on the mean of their holistic scores.

C. Procedure

First of all, the students were asked to go about a descriptive writing task on a conceptually familiar topic in 100 words and in about thirty minutes. The length of the text was kept short to allow the students to write attentively. The next day, the students were asked to read their first drafts and try to rewrite better drafts of them without receiving any feedback or specific instruction on the part of the teachers on the kind of revisions.

In the next step, the researchers rated all of the texts written by the students holistically; then they used ESL Composition Profile proposed by Jacobs, et al. (1980) to score the texts again but this time analytically. Subsequently, 20% of the texts were scored holistically and analytically by another experienced rater. This was done to establish inter-rater reliability. The inter-rater reliability was afterwards calculated between the averages of the pairs of scores given by the two researchers and the scores given by the other rater. Then, the students were divided into the two groups of low-proficiency and high-proficiency EFL writers based on the average of their holistic scores on the revised drafts.

At the hypothesis testing stage, first, the significance of the differences between the different lower-order and higher-order revising practices employed by the low- and high-proficiency EFL writers was examined using the MANOVA test without controlling for any moderator variable. After that, an ANCOVA test was run to investigate the significance of the differences between the high-level and low-level students' revising practices after controlling for the effect of age. Finally, a SPANOVA test was used to see if the differences between the two groups remained significant after controlling for the effect of gender.

D. Design of the Study

This study involved no instruction or any other intervention. That is, the independent variables of the study (writing proficiency, age, gender) were not manipulated to create a particular kind of effect; therefore the design of the study was ex post facto.

IV. Data Analysis and Results

A. Examining the First Research Hypothesis

As mentioned earlier, another rater rescored 20% of the written samples both holistically and analytically. The correlations between the averages of the pairs of scores given by the researchers and the other raters' scores were all above .76 and in some cases close to perfect. Consequently, inter-rater reliabilities in both analytic and holistic scorings were established.

Hypothesis one stated that there are no differences in the kinds of lower-order and higher-order revising practices employed by the students with low and high writing ability. To test this hypothesis we needed a One-way MANOVA to be run. Applied to this study, MANOVA would incorporate information about all kinds of revising practices. Before running MANOVA, however, it was necessary to check for the assumptions of this test.

The first assumption of MANOVA is sample size, that is, the number of cases in each cell should be more than the number of dependent variables. A large sample size also avoids violations of other important assumptions like normality. Since the number of dependent variables in our study was five and the number of students was 70, this assumption of MANOVA was met. That is, we had many more cases than this number in each cell.

Multivariate normality is another essential assumption of MANOVA which refers to the normality of distribution of all scores of dependent variables by measuring their distances from a centroid. According to Pallant (2013) multivariate normality can be checked by calculating the maximum Mahalanobis distance. To meet the multivariate normality, the maximum Mahal distance should not overtake the critical Mahal value calculated for the same number of dependent variables. A Mahal distance which is smaller than the critical value also puts us on a firm ground to reject the existence of outliers. This value is calculated using the regression menu in SPSS. Cooks' distance also indicates the overall influence that a case exerts on the model and should not exceed 2.

TABLE 1.
TESTS OF MULTIVARIATE NORMALITY AND LACK OF OUTLIERS

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Mahal. Distance	1.119	19.599	4.929	3.298	70
Cook's Distance	.000	.125	.018	.026	70
Centered Leverage Value	.016	.284	.071	.048	70

In this analysis, Maximum Mahal distance was 19.599 which did not exceed the critical value of 20.52 for five dependent variables. The maximum Cooks' Distance was also .125. Therefore, multivariate normality was not violated and there was no outlier in the sample.

The other assumption to be checked was linearity. The Matrix of scatter plots generated below displays the existence of a straight-line correlation between each pair of dependent variables. The graph only indicates lack of correlation between high-level students' use of mechanics and their ability. Of course, mechanics is the least important component of writing ability and slight deviations from linearity are acceptable.
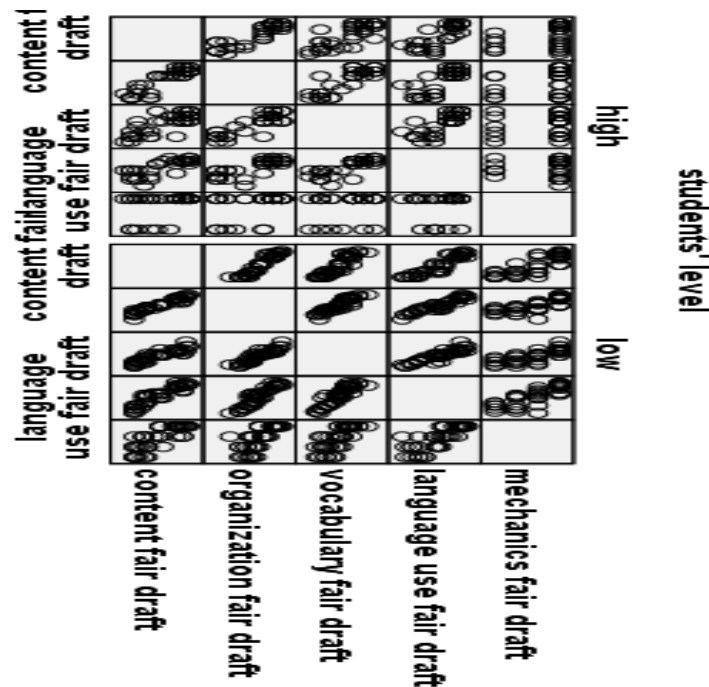

Figure 1. Linearity Matrix Of Scatter Plots

Examining the homogeneity of the variance covariance matrices is the next step in checking MANOVA's applicability. Obtaining Box's Test can tell us whether the data violated the assumption of homogeneity of variance covariance matrices or not. This statistic either accepts or rejects the null hypothesis of covariance matrices equality in the two groups. If the statistic is non-significant, it can be inferred that the matrices are the same. In this table our reference level of probability should be .001. The following table shows that the assumption of homogeneity was met since the Sig. value is larger than .001.

TABLE 2.
HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCE COVARIANCE MATRICES

Box's M	58.963
F	3.616
df1	15
df2	17439.981
Sig.	.331

The last important assumption of MANOVA to be checked is the equality of error variances. This assumption is verified by looking at the Leven's Test of Equality of Error Variances table. In the *Sig.* column in this table we should look for values that are smaller than .05. Any value smaller than .05 will indicate that the assumption of equality of variance for the related variable is violated. If we violate this assumption we should set a more conservative alpha level for determining the significance for that variable. As it can be seen in Table 3, the *Sig* values for two of the dependent variables are smaller than .05 meaning that we have to look at these variables' significance values in the Tests of Between-Subjects Effects or ANOVA Summary table to judge if the differences have been significant.

TABLE 3.
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
content fair draft	15.068	1	68	.303
organization fair draft	6.341	1	68	.014
vocabulary fair draft	13.218	1	68	.016
language use fair draft	21.330	1	68	.264
mechanics fair draft	34.535	1	68	.151

Of course, there are some other general assumptions of MANOVA, such as independence and linearity that we did not talk about here. This is because these assumptions were met by the way the data were collected.

There are two very important tables in the output of the MANOVA test in SPSS. The first of these tables is the Multivariate Tests table which shows if the difference as a whole is significant. The second table is the table of Tests of Between-Subjects Effects which tells us where the difference, if any, lies.

In the Multivariate Tests table statistics are quoted for the intercept of the model (which is not important for us) and for the group variable, in the case of our study high-level vs. low-level learners. The group effects are important because they tell us whether or not writing ability had an effect on revising practices. SPSS lists four multivariate test statistics. In the next column the F-ratios are given with degrees of freedom. The column we are interested in, however, is the one containing significance values of F-ratios. If all of the four multivariate test statistics reached the criterion for significance, we could confidently reject the null hypothesis that there was no significant difference in revising practices of the students in terms of their writing ability.

TABLE 4.
MULTIVARIATE TESTS OF THE GROUPS' DIFFERENCES IN TERMS OF THEIR REVISING PRACTICES

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.972	439.067[b]	5.000	64.000	.000	.972
	Wilks' Lambda	.028	439.067[b]	5.000	64.000	.000	.972
	Hotelling's Trace	34.302	439.067[b]	5.000	64.000	.000	.972
	Roy's Largest Root	34.302	439.067[b]	5.000	64.000	.000	.972
Students' level	Pillai's Trace	.294	5.332[b]	5.000	64.000	.000	.294
	Wilks' Lambda	.706	5.332[b]	5.000	64.000	.000	.294
	Hotelling's Trace	.417	5.332[b]	5.000	64.000	.000	.294
	Roy's Largest Root	.417	5.332[b]	5.000	64.000	.000	.294

As it can be seen in Table 4, all four multivariate test statistics are significant, but still we do not know whether the effect of writing ability was on content, organization, language use, vocabulary, or mechanics. To determine the nature of the effect we have to look at the univariate test results in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
ANOVA SUMMARY FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLES (TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS)

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Students' level	content fair draft	529.264	1	529.264	21.492	.000	.240
	organization fair draft	268.426	1	268.426	21.121	.000	.237
	vocabulary fair draft	232.433	1	232.433	22.481	.000	.248
	language use fair draft	585.237	1	585.237	25.307	.000	.271
	mechanics fair draft	16.358	1	16.358	22.279	.000	.247

As a matter of fact, Table 5 is the ANOVA summary for the dependent variables and shows the *F* and *Sig* values for each dependent variable. Values in the students' level row will be the same as those obtained if a One-way ANOVA was run on each dependent variable with writing ability having the two levels of high and low as our independent variable. Any significant result means that proficiency level has really had a significant effect on the revising practice as the dependent variable, but a non-significant result would compel us to conclude that writing ability has had no meaningful effect on the revising practices of the students. Some unnecessary parts of the table are deleted for saving the space.

It is clear that all components of the students' revising practices differed significantly between the low-level and high-level students. This finding rejects our first null hypothesis stating that no difference exists in the kind of revising practices between the lower-order and higher-order groups. In fact, our findings show significant differences between these two groups in terms of all elements of their revisions. Also, since the Sig values are equal to .001, our violation of Equality of Error Variances in Table 3 (Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances) should not concern us. A descriptive analysis of the groups' statistics in relation to the dependent variables before running MANOVA is given in table 6.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE LOW- AND HIGH-LEVEL GROUPS BEFORE RUNNING MANOVA

Dependent Variable	students' level	Mean	Std. Error	99% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
content fair draft	low	20.605	.805	18.472	22.739
	high	26.125	.877	23.800	28.450
organization fair draft	low	13.132	.578	11.599	14.664
	high	17.063	.630	15.392	18.733
vocabulary fair draft	low	13.842	.522	12.460	15.224
	high	17.500	.568	15.994	19.006
language use fair draft	low	16.289	.780	14.222	18.357
	high	22.094	.850	19.841	24.347
mechanics fair draft	low	3.842	.139	3.474	4.210
	high	4.812	.151	4.411	5.214

B. Examining the Second Research Hypothesis

The second null hypothesis was formulated to see if the amount of difference in revising practices between the high and low ability students change after the effect of age is controlled for. This hypothesis was examined by running an ANCOVA test. ANCOVA or Analysis of covariance is an extension of analysis of variance that investigates differences between groups while statistically controlling for effect of the covariate, another continuous independent variable that we suspect may be affecting scores on the dependent variable (Pallant, 2013). SPSS uses hierarchical regression methods by entering the data in blocks to remove the covariate's effect and then performs the usual analysis of variance on the corrected scores.

There are a number of requirements and issues associated with ANCOVA. ANCOVA assumes that the relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate is straight-line. Scatterplots are checked separately for each of the groups (high-level and low-level students in the case of this study) to check linearity. Violations of this assumption may reduce the sensitivity of the test. Figure 2 illustrates the scatterplot that checks this assumption in this study. In the figure below the relationships are clearly linear, so the assumption of a linear relationship was met.
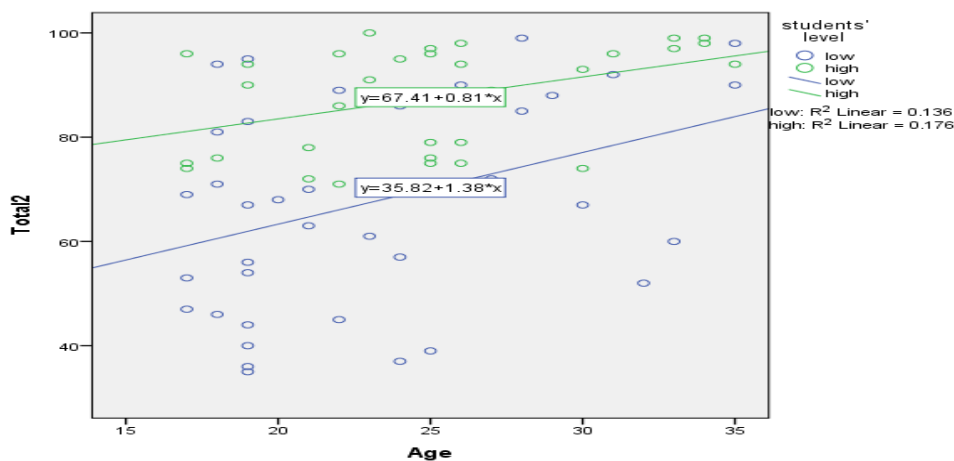

Figure 2. Linear Relationships of the Levels Dependent Variable and Covariate

Another assumption of ANCOVA is homogeneity of regression slopes. According to this assumption, the relationship between the covariate and the dependent variable for each of the groups must almost be the same. In figure 2 the two lines are very similar in slopes, so it does not seem that this assumption was violated either.

Information in the table labeled Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances (Table 7 below) also proves that the assumption of equality of variances was satisfied because the *Sig* value is greater than .05.

TABLE 7.
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.668	32	37	.067

The main ANCOVA results are presented in the table of Test of Between-Subjects Effects. In this table we can figure out if the amount of difference between our groups changes significantly if we control for the effect of age. Table 8 shows that this has not been the case.

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intercept	Hypothesis	302631.938	1	302631.938	1028.684	.000
	Error	6757.927	22.971	294.193[a]		
Students' level	Hypothesis	3923.139	1	3923.139	19.193	.000
	Error	3485.244	17.051	204.400[b]		
Age	Hypothesis	5441.902	18	302.328	1.501	.216
	Error	3017.339	14.977	201.467[c]		
Students' level * Age	Hypothesis	2577.115	13	198.240	.769	.686
	Error	9542.700	37	257.911[d]		

In this table the *Sig* value for the students' level and its interaction with age is .686. The effect of age is also non-significant. These values mean that difference in age did not affect difference in revising practices and that this difference could only be attributed to the students' difference in their writing ability. Therefore, our second null hypothesis was confirmed.

C. Examining the Third Research Hypothesis

To test the third research hypothesis, namely that, there are no differences between the high and low level students' revising practices if the effect of gender is controlled for, a split plot ANOVA (SPANOVA) test was run, with gender being the between-subjects independent variable and writing ability the within-subjects independent variable. SPANOVA tests whether the main effect of each of the independent variables is significant. It also measures the significance of the interaction between the two variables. This test supplies outputs for univariate and also multivariate ANOVA results. According to Pallant (2013) it is safer to explore the multivariate statistics provided in the output since univariate statistics requires the assumption of sphericity, that is, sameness of the variance of the samples difference scores for any two conditions with difference scores for any other two conditions which is mainly violated. Multivariate statistics do not make this assumption.

As in the case of other statistical procedures, before running SPANOVA we should have checked its assumption, i.e., homogeneity of inter-correlations. This assumption requires the same inter-correlations among the levels of the within-subjects variable for each of the levels of the between-subjects variable. We use Box's M statistic to test this assumption. This statistic should exceed the alpha level of .001 for the assumption to be met. As can be seen in the following Box's M table this assumption was tenable.

TABLE 9.
HOMOGENEITY OF INTER-CORRELATIONS

Box's M	3.927
F	1.267
df1	3
df2	2879047.111
Sig.	.284

In the first output box provided by SPSS, we are presented with the descriptive statistics (Mean, Standard deviation, N) for our two sets of scores. In this table we see that the means of females' first drafts and revised drafts have been larger than the means of males for the same drafts. This implies that females' writing ability has been somehow higher than males.

TABLE 10.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MALE AND FEMALE PARTICIPANTS

	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Total first draft	Male	67.16	16.361	32
	Female	72.89	17.500	38
	Total	70.27	17.111	70
Total revised draft	Male	72.94	19.026	32
	Female	79.87	18.732	38
	Total	76.70	19.049	70

In order to assess the interaction effect (Students' level*Gender), that is, to see if there has been the same change in revising practices for males and females in the two different groups (high-level/low-level), we should look at the second set of rows in Table 11 or Multivariate Tests table. The values of interest to us are Wilks' Lambda and its associated probability value given in the *Sig.* column. Although, for two independent variables, the values will be the same for all tests, Wilks' Lambda is the statistic that is commonly reported. In Table 12 the interaction effect is not significant statistically (*P* = .348>.05). This finding is a nice one because it saves us from the trouble of interpreting difference as a result of one independent variable's influence in terms of the other independent variables' influence. That is, we have to

look only at the main effects of the independent variables, specifically the main effect of gender which was the subject of our third hypothesis.

TABLE 11.
MAIN EFFECT OF STUDENTS' LEVEL AND ITS INTERACTION WITH GENDER

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Students' level	Pillai's Trace	.600	102.089[b]	1.000	68.000	.000	.600
	Wilks' Lambda	.400	102.089[b]	1.000	68.000	.000	.600
	Hotelling's Trace	1.501	102.089[b]	1.000	68.000	.000	.600
	Roy's Largest Root	1.501	102.089[b]	1.000	68.000	.000	.600
Students' level * Gender	Pillai's Trace	.013	.892[b]	1.000	68.000	.348	.013
	Wilks' Lambda	.98	.892[b]	1.000	68.000	.348	.013
	Hotelling's Trace	.013	.892[b]	1.000	68.000	.348	.013
	Roy's Largest Root	.013	.892[b]	1.000	68.000	.348	.013

After exploring the within-subjects effects, we need to consider the main effect of our between-subjects variable (gender) in the table below which is called Tests of Between-Subjects Effects.

TABLE 12.
MAIN EFFECT OF GENDER

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	744931.749	1	744931.749	1180.976	.000	.946
Gender	1394.178	1	1394.178	2.210	.142	.031
Error	42892.794	68	630.776			

In Table 12 the probability value for gender is .142. This is not less than .05, so we cannot conclude that the main effect for gender has been significant. Put differently, there was no significant difference between revising practices of the high and low ability students' arising from their gender. The partial eta-squared value for gender is also .031 which is a very small effect size; therefore, it is not surprising that it did not reach statistical significance.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Our results from analyzing the data compelled us to reject the first null hypothesis. $H0_1$ stated that there are no differences in the kinds of lower-order and higher-order revising practices employed by students with low and high writing ability. The MANOVA we ran on the data revealed that the revising practices and components of writing had been affected by students' writing ability differently. This is logical since novice writers commonly find it difficult to revise their texts with their writing goals and audience in mind and so many studies agree with this finding (e.g., Bartlett, 1982; Daiute, 1985; Faigley & Witte, 1981; Hayes et al., 1987; Matsuhashi & Gordon, 1985). Unlike the less skilled writers, whose attentional resources are consumed by surface-level issues, skilled writers do global changes to their first draft (Schriver, 1990; Sommers, 1996; van Gelderen, 1997; Wallace & Hayes, 1991; Witte, 1985). The findings also agree with the results of studies carried out on second language writers revising strategies (e.g., Hall, 1990; Krashen, 1984; Roca De Larios et al., 2002; Porte, 1997; Victori, 1999). Bridwell (1980) also noted significant differences in the revising practices of skilled and unskilled writers; she reported that good writers revised more while writing their initial drafts and mainly revised at the deep level.

The second hypothesis was posed to see if there were any differences between the high and low level students' revising practices after controlling for the effect of age. Statistical results revealed that difference in the students revising practices did not change after controlling for the effect of age. That is, the found difference should entirely be attributed to their writing ability. The finding of this study in this regard disagrees with the finding of Graves and Murray (1980) who confirmed that younger writers do not revise frequently. The finding is also in conflict with Faigley and Witte's (1981) finding who examined the effect of age on revising practices of students and reported that there is marked individual variation which tends to change with age.

The next issue which was considered important in the study was investigating differences between the students' revising practices at the two levels of high and low after controlling for the effect of gender. According to the obtained results, like the effect of age, the effect of gender was not significant. The findings of this study also proved that mean scores of the females' first drafts and revised drafts were higher than those of males. This implies that females' writing ability may somehow be superior to males. The first finding, that the effect of gender on the students' revising practices was negligible, is consistent with Soori and Zamani (2012) who concluded that most language characteristics are employed equally by male and female writers. However, the second finding pointing to the slight superiority of females over males in writing is in conformity with Peterson's (2000) finding that reported an advantage for girls' texts over boys' texts. Peterson's study discovered that girls' writings are more descriptive and detailed than boys' writings.

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The Application and E-C Translation Methods of Common Archaisms in Business Contract

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Abstract—**Archaism (Old English) is rare in daily modern English, but often appears in business contracts. Business contract is a legal document, it has its own language style, one of the most typical characteristic is the use of archaism. It is necessary to learn the archaism in detail. This article mainly explores the archaism from three aspects----word-formation law, E-C translation method and the specific use in contracts.**

Index Terms—**archaism, business contract, application, translation**

I. INTRODUCTION

The language of business contract language is a variant of English language and a special English literary form. It belongs to ESP (English for Specific Purposes). In breakdown, the application of archaism is a major feature of contract language. The basic requirement of business contracts is not the beauty of language, but the formal, accurate expressions, to show its rigor. The archaism such as "hereby", "thereto" used in business contracts makes sentence structures more concise, and texts more solemn. Only to figure out the translation techniques of the archaism can we achieve its function in business contract at a maximum extent. Because archaism can be applied as a mean of linking up in contracts, it is highly vital to draft and translate the contract. Consequently, this article intents to discuss cohesion function and E-C translation method of archaism for further research.

II. THE DEFINITION AND HISTORY OF ARCHAISM

A. The Definition of Archaism

Archaism nearly occurs in the everyday use of modern English, but it often appears as a formal style like business contract. It is a language that is not current or that is used only within a few specific forms.

Actually, archaism refers to English from AD 450 to 1150. Archaism and modern English are very different in terms of pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary and grammar. The grammar of archaism is more like German's. And its morphological changes are very complex. In 410 AD, the Romans ended their occupation of England, and then the three Germanic tribes from the northern plains of Germany: the Anglos, the Saxons and the Jurts began to settle in Britain. The English is the language spoken by the Anglo-Saxons.

The editor of The Short Oxford History of English Literature Andrew Sanders (2000) pointed out that the creation of the word "archaism" is due to the need of patriotism and English literature. It is true. In 1871, the British linguist Sweet Henry presided over the publication of Alfred's translation of the Latin work PastoralCare. He used the term "archaism" to refer to pure English which has a various vary in suffix, replacing the widely known, savage and meaningless Anglo-Saxon (Henry, 1871). Sweet stressed it in the note of the preface. It is obvious that Sweet indirectly pointed out the inappropriateness of the term Anglo-Saxon out of patriotic enthusiasm (Hu, 2007). On one hand, it is easy to reminisce the barbaric history of Anglo-Saxon's invasion in Britannia in the middle of the 5th century AD. On the other hand, from the perspective of English literature, archaism is more suitable for describing the three important stages of English language development: Old English, Middle English and Modern English (Zhang, 2014).

B. The History of Archaism

1. Old English period (also known as Anglo-Saxon period, AD 450 - 1100)

After the Germanic tribes settled in Britain, they occupied some areas severally. Each tribe established a number of small kingdoms, which brought about the appearance of the seven eras in the British history. As the country had not been unified for a long time, there were abundant dialects in old English period. There existed four main dialects: Western Saxonian, Kent, Moses and North Enriya. These four dialects all once occupied the predominant position in history. Among them, the Western Saxon retained the largest manuscripts. Other dialects have also gone a long way to the formation of English.

There were two critical historical events in old English period, which had an influence on the English vocabulary. The first thing was the introduction of Christianity into Britain. In AD 597, a priest named Augustine came from Rome

to Britain to peach. Therefore, Roman culture was introduced to England being accompanied with Christianity. At the same time, large numbers of Latin words got right into English. The second thing was the invasion of Nordic. Beginning from AD 790, a mass of Scandinavians had settled in the Britain. The king of Denmark, Carnot, even became the monarch of England for a time. Upon that time, Scandinavian and Britisher had frequent contacts, so there were plentiful words of Scandinavian countries being merged into English.

2. Middle English period (1100 - 1500 years)

In AD 1066, the Norman conquest was an important turning point in British history and has a tremendous impact on the progress of English. After two or three hundred years, Norman French had become the official language of the Britain. Although ordinary people still spoke English, the records of written English were almost interrupted. However, after1204, English gradually regained its dominant role. During the Middle English period, English had undergone dramatic changes. Most of the changes in the suffix and the genders of nouns faded away. Word order, function words and tone became the main means of expressing the relationship between sentences. Vocabulary changes were also significant. As Norman French was once the language of the British ruling class, a large number of French words came into English which was reflected in all areas like politics, religion, law, military, clothing and diet that related to the ruling class. Along with many French loanwords being absorbed into English, some affixes of French and Latin had also been anglicized and turned into vital materials for the formation of English. Such as prefix "dis-", "en-", "inter-", "pre-", "re-", "semi-", "sub-", and suffix "-able", "-acy", "-al", "-ate", "-al", "-ory", "-ance", "-ant / -ent", "-ise" (Hornby, 2014). In the meantime, some affixes of native English were abandoned. These phenomena were called Romance of English in the history of linguistics. This is why from the aspect of phylogenetic relationship, English and German are cognation languages while the modern English vocabulary is more similar with French.

3. Modern English (1500-)

At the end of Middle English, English had established itself as a national language. Massive English literatures proved that English had become a mature literary language. The grammar simplification process had been generally completed. Spelling had fixed, and the basic vocabulary had also formed. In short, the foundation of modern English had been laid.

Since the twentieth century, Anglo-American science and culture has improved rapidly. A wide range of media has been more and more popular. What's more, there broke out two world wars. With all these factors, people connect with each other more and more closely, and English vocabulary enrich continuously. English is the most widely used language in the international community, playing an important role in international exchanges.

III. WORD-FORMATION LAWS OF ARCHAISM

A. Common Word-formation Laws of Archaism

In the formation of archaism, it generally starts with the root and affix to comprehend the law. For instance, among the words that represent the spatial position, there are many prefixes indicating directional relations. For example, in Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary (Hornby, 2014) "by-" means "near", "around", such as "bypath", "bypass"; and "de-" expresses the meaning of "downward", like "descend", "degrade"; "extra-" indicates "more than usual", e.g. "extraction". Besides, "over-" is "higher than sth.", such as "overlook", "overhead", "overboard"; "pre-" means " before sth", such as "prefix", " preface" and "preposition"; "Pro-" is " in favour of sth or support sth", like "progress", " proceed". In addition, there are several similar prefixs like " sub-", "suc-", "suf-", "sug-", "sum-", " sup-", "sur-" and "sus-" expressing the same meaning of "under", e.g. "submarine", "suffix", "suppress", "supplement".

B. The Law of Transformation in the Word-formation Law

Generally speaking, a word owns only one part of speech, which is a common phenomenon in old English and modern English. However, in many specific contexts or other cases, a word may have the second or the third part of speech. It is called lexical conversion in lexicology, which means that one word has many different parts of speech in a specific situation (Leng & Peng, 2014). There are two forms of lexical conversion: complete transformation and partial transformation.

1.Complete transformation

Verbification and nominalization are mainly mentioned here. Verbification refers to verbs that are transformed from nouns, adjectives, adverbs. Usually, there are three cases. Firstly, a noun transforms into a verb, like "fish" ---- "to fish", "bloom" ----"to bloom". Secondly, an adjective transforms into a verb, like "wet" ---- "to wet", "yellow" ---- "to yellow". Thirdly, an adverb changes into a verb, such as "much" ---- "to much" and "but" ---- "to but". Nominalization indicates nouns that are transformed from verbs and adjectives. One part of its content is that a verb transforms into a noun, e.g. "look" into "have a look", "walk" into "take a walk". Another part is an adjective into a noun, e.g. "silly" into "you are such a silly".

2. Partial transformation

a. Verb into noun

Lots of verbs can turn into nouns, but their meanings will not change accordingly, such as "Let's go out for a walk". "To move or go somewhere by putting one foot in front of the other on the ground, but without running" is the original

meaning of walk. In this sentence, it means "go walking".

But sometimes, the meaning will have some change, like "He is a man of strong build." Build indicates "to make something, especially a building." But in the example "build" means the shape and size of the human body.

Furthermore, some verbs with indefinite articles can compose phrases, expressing an action, e.g. "Let's have a swim."

b. Noun into verb

Many nouns to express the meaning of objects, body parts, and certain groups of people can be used as verbs to express actions. In addition, some abstract nouns can also be used as verbs. Here are several sentences as examples to illustrate this transformation: "Did he book a meeting room?"; "Hand me an text please." and "They lunched together".

c. Adjective into verb

A few adjectives can be converted into verbs. For example: We will try our best to better our living conditions.

IV. SPECIFIC USE AND E-C TRANSLATION METHODS IN BUSINESS CONTRACTS

A. Language Features of Business Contracts

Business contracts belong to legally binding official document that defines the rights and obligations of the contract signatories. So there is significant difference between the language of business contract and literary works. It's generally considered that business contract has a solemn style, namely, the highest degree of formality style in all kinds of English.

The appearance of a vast number of archaisms in business contracts totally shows the solemn and serious style of business contracts. Except the inseparability from the social function of language of business contracts, it also demonstrates the particularity of this sector. Businesses and legal persons have a special preference to archaism.

Compound adverbs are the most commonly used archaism in business contract which consist of "here", "there", "where" respectively with one or several words like "after", "at", "by", "from", "in", "of", "to", "under", "upon", "with", etc.

B. Function of Archaism in Business Contract

Archaism is a typical contract language. Archaism is an English language which transmitted from countries like France, Greece, and Latin in old English period or middle English period (Li, 2003). Archaism is commonly used in official documents such as legal contracts. The correct use of archaism in contract can make language more serious, accurate and concise.

Seriousness, formality, accuracy, rigor and logic are the language features of business contract. Therefore, it is important to address the link-up problem of language in contracts between sentence and sentence, sentences and paragraphs.

Hallidy and Hassan's (2001) definition of cohesion function is "the meaningful relations existing inside the text, and can make all characters form a discourse. In their views, cohesion function is the connection of semantics. They divided it into five types, that is reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexicon cohesion (Ling, 2011). The use of archaism is a language style of business contract. And archaism plays a role as a useful substitute, connecting sentence and text. It has significant meaning of improving the reading and comprehension of business contract after we figure out the functions of archaism.

1. The Cohesion Function of Archaism in Sentences

The cohesion function of archaism in sentences is achieved by substitution. If the demonstrative pronoun "this" or "that" appears separately in the business contract, it is easy to cause ambiguous reference. In this case, these two demonstrative pronouns are merely used in business contract solely. There are various terms in a contract which requires a lot of demonstrative pronouns, so how can we draw up a complete precise contract without them? Actually, it can be achieved through archaism. As mentioned earlier, "hereof" can be understood as the meaning of "of this" while "herein" can be understood as "in that". Demonstrative pronouns like "this" and "that" can be replaced by the archaism which is composed by the prefix of "here-" and "there-", so as to realize the inductive function.

The following is an abstract from a business contract, which can demonstrate the use of archaism.

The Borrower shall under this Agreement and the Note, fulfill the obligations of making all payments. All the reimbursements to the Bank shall be free and clear of any other changes and exempt from all taxes and such reimbursements as are received by the Bank will not be subject to taxes. The Borrower shall under this Agreement pay all taxes as provided for here in (Ling, 2011).

In the paragraph, "here" indicates "in this agreement". The last sentence can be paraphrased as "the borrower shall pay all taxes as provided for in this agreement." The archaism "here in" in the sentence substitutes "of this agreement", highlighting the seriousness of the business contract language. In the meantime, it also makes the language cohesive.

2. The Cohesion Function of Archaism in the Paragraph

The cohesion function of archaism between paragraphs is achieved by lexical cohesion. There are certain links between paragraphs and paragraphs, such as conditional relation, causality, turning relation, and so on. Some archaisms such as "whereas", "not with standing", can be applied to link up the paragraphs to form a whole text.

The following is another example from a contract.

Not with standing any other provision of the contract if the contractor intends to claim any additional payment pursuant to any clause of these conditions or other provisions, the contractor in question shall with in 26 days after the event giving rise to the claim has first arisen notify the engineer of his intention with a copy to the employer (Ling, 2011).

The archaism "not with standing" mentioned above means "in spite of". This word tells us that there are many other terms in front of the contract. The archaism used in the beginning of this paragraph reflects the logical cohesion with the previous paragraph, and it plays the role as the cohesive word in the beginning of the paragraph.

C.   Specific Translation Methods

Archaism is commonly encountered in business English. And it is a form of business English that expresses information compendiously, elegantly and accurately. Only by fully figuring out its usage and exact semantics can we translate business contract well. Archaism in business English is used to modify verbs or nouns. They are usually placed behind the modified words. The archaism has mainly three categories. The followings are detailed descriptions.

1. With "here" as the core component in archaism

With "here" as the core component, familiar ones are "hereinafter", "hereunder", "herein", "hereof", etc.

The basic usage of "hereinafter", "hereafter", "hereunder" is the same and can be interchangeable. And their meanings respectively are "after this; under this; in the following part of this (writing or document)". Translate these archaisms into Chinese "自此以后；此后下文中".

However, "hereinafter" is more formal than "hereafter" and "hereunder". The following example can show its formality.

This contract is made this 20ʰ day of May, 1997 by ABC enterprise hereinafter referred to as "sellers", and XYZ enterprise hereinafter referred to as "buyers".

This paragraph is translated into Chinese "本合同由 ABC 公司(以下称卖方)"与 XYZ 公司(以下称买方)于 1997 年 5 月 20 日签订。"

And in this sentence *"Each payment to be made hereunder shall be made in America currency"*, "hereunder" can be replaced by "hereafter". In Chinese, it means "本条款以下，以下". It indicates "under this clause; the following". "以下规定的每项款项都要以美元支付。" is the Chinese meaning of this sentence.

In addition, the meaning of "herein" is "in this (place, passage or document)". Its Chinese meaning is "在此当中，于此处". It is used to modify verbs . For example, *it is to inform your herein below of A enterprise's terms of shipment.*

The example means "兹将 A 公司装运条款告知如下。"

As for "hereof", it means "of or about this (writing or document)", and it is translated as "于此，关于此点" and modifies nouns.

2. With "there" as the core component in archaism

The common archaism with "there" as the core body are "thereafter", "therefor", "therein", and "thereof",etc.

ABC enterprise and XYZ enterprise shall advise the other party by telex and thereafter send a registered letter to confirm.

It means "ABC 公司和 XYZ 公司应用电传通知对方，并且用挂号信确认。"

The above excerpt from a contract reveals the meaning of "thereafter". It means "after that; from then on according to that". It is translated into Chinese as "此后，其后". Apparently, in translation, "thereafter" should be covered by "within 15days".

And "therefor" means "because of that; for that reason; on that ground". It can be translated as "因此，为此，为彼". In the following example,

When one party removes and replaces any directions whom it has appointed it shall give written notice to the other parties, the former and newly appointed directions and the joint venture company and state the reason therefor (Zhang & Du, 1998).

In Chinese it means "合同任何一方撤换其已经任命的任何指挥人员时，应书面通知其他各方，原任指挥和新任指挥及合资公司，并说明其理由。" (Zhang & Du, 1998).

"therefor" indicates that "when one party removes and replaces any directions whom it has appointed." And it avoids unnecessary repetition of previous information in the text.

"In that place; in that respect; in that particular" is the meaning of "therein". And in Chinese it indicates "在那地方，在那里，那样". It also can be understood better through the following concrete example.

The contractor shall, without limiting his or the employer obligations and responsibilities under clause 20, (a) the work,together with materials and plant for incorporation therein to the full replacement cost (Zhang & Du, 1998).

This paragraph is translated into Chinese as the following: "根据第 20 条规定，在承包商或雇主的义务和责任不受限制的条件下，承包商应对下列各项保险：(a)以全部更新成本对工程及其待安装材料和设备进行保险。"

In the example, "therein" equals "that" or "those".

"Therewith" means "with that" and is translated as "以那，于是". Let's see the point through the following example.

Such determination shall take account of any instruction which the engineer may issue to the contractor in

connection therewith, and any proper and reasonable measures acceptable to the engineer which the contractor may take in the absence of specific instructions from the engineer (Zhang & Du, 1998).

Its Chinese translation is "这类决定应考虑工程师可能下达给承包商的与之有关的任何指示，应考虑在工程师尚未下达具体指示时，承包商可能采取的而工程师可以接受的适当合理的措施。"

3. With "where" as the core component in archaism

The usual archaism with "where" have "whereas", "whereby", and "wherein", etc.

"Whereas" indicates "considering that; in view of the fact that". And it is translated into "鉴于，既然". Equally, its meaning can be conveyed through the example presented below.

Whereas, X company is a manufacturer of Y and has certain technical information and experiences which may be useful in developing the product as hereinafter defined, the parties hereto agree as follows. In E-C translation, the meaning can be conveyed as "鉴于 X 公司是 Y 的制造商，并拥有有助于开发下列产品的一定技术信息和经验，为此达成以下协议。" Just as the example, "whereas" is placed at the beginning of a sentence in a formal document.

"Whereby" can be understood as "by what; by which" or "as a result of which; in consequence of which" in relation to the example showed below. "凭什么，凭那个" or "因此，由是" are its Chinese translations.

Whereby the Q enterprise and U enterprise hereto agree to carry out the trade under the terms and clauses set forth below.

It is translated as "Q 方和 U 方同意按以下条款进行贸易。"

In this part, "whereby" as a relative adverb indicates "by which".

The final example is "wherein", e.g. "we are sending you a brochure wherein you will find the particular of the items." This sentence means "我公司寄给贵公司小册子一份，从中可以了解各种商品的具体内容。" This archaism "wherein" is a conjunction, indicates "in which; in what; in what respect; in regard to which". And "在那里，在其中，在那点上" are its Chinese meanings. It is used to connect two sentences.

In summary, because "here" is an adverb, the archaism including "here" emphasizes the terms of this contract or the closest thing to it. With "there" as the core component, it generally refers to the distant things as "there" is also an adverb. The archaism with the core body "where" has a connection function because it is a conjunction and its semantic function is represented by the following preposition. Therefore, in the translation from English to Chinese, these archaic words should not be translated word by word, as long as it can reflects its meaning in the overtone of the translation. But in the translation from Chinese to English, in order to ensure accuracy of language and to prevent interpreting out of context, it is necessary to utilize archaism as much as possible.

V. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDYING ARCHAISM IN BUSINESS CONTRACTS

International economic activities, such as trade, finance, investment, economic reform and so on can not do without business contracts. Foreign economic disputes arising from economic and trade activities are largely caused by the language of the contract. To avoid the occurrence of these disputes, it is prerequisite to comprehend the original contract. English contracts contain massive archaism. The archaism is rarely used in modern English, but it has a high frequency of occurrence in business contracts. The purposes of utilizing archaism in contracts are to avoid duplication, misunderstanding or ambiguity, so as to keep language's accuracy and concision.

The use of archaism is a major feature of business contracts' language. Only to master formation rules and usage, can we skillfully use it in contract terms, draft and sign the contracts. In addition, the linkage between archaism and cohesion function provides high-level analysis of internal logical relations between sentences and sentences, paragraphs and paragraphs. Thereby, it can make further efforts to deepen the comprehension of business contracts.

VI. CONCLUSION

It has great significance to understand business contracts with the study of archaism. This article begins with the definition and history of archaism. Then on the basis of Halliday and Hassan's cohesion theory it discusses word-formation law of archaism, the cohesion function and E-C translation method in business contract. Thereby this article utilizes multifarious examples to illustrate how to achieve the preciseness of contract's language. Hope this article will be beneficial to the writing and translation of business contract. And study of archaism is a complicated issue which needs to be explored further in the future. Master these commonly used meanings of archaism requires to start from formation law, and understand the specific usage of several typical archaism in business contracts. So we can learn and utilize archaism more accurately, and to facilitate foreign business exchanges and trade more smoothly. Therefore, it can help to comprehend as as well as write more authentic English in business contracts.

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An Analysis of Effective Paragraphs and Ways of Developing Paragraphs

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Abstract—**This paper aims to analyze qualities of effective paragraphs and ways of developing paragraphs. Through the analysis, it is hoped that English learners can know more about paragraphs so that they can write more impressive and effective paragraphs.**

Index Terms—**unity, coherence, ways of developing paragraphs**

I. THE DEFINITION OF A PARAGRAPH

A paragraph is a discourse unit smaller than the complete essay but larger than the sentence, building around one central thought or a single topic (Wang, 2003). In other words, if one begins a new paragraph, it means that he or she will introduce a new topic or thought to the readers.

II. QUALITIES OF EFFECTIVE PARAGRAPHS

As for an effective paragraph, it should possess at least two qualities, that is, unity and coherence.

A. Unity

"Unity demands singleness of purpose. A paragraph usually allows the writer to develop only one major thought, around which all the sentences in it hang together, and towards which they all contribute something. This major thought, also called the controlling idea, may be one aspect or one stage of development of a larger topic. Thus, a paragraph with a single major thought is said to have unity" (Wang, 2003, p. 109).

The following paragraph (example 1) written by a student certainly centres around one single topic: there are some disadvantages of enrollment expansion in Chinese universities.

Example 1:

Today I want to talk about the disadvantages of enrollment expansion in Chinese universities. Firstly, the enrollment expansion means that more and more college students will enter into universities every year. However, in colleges and universities, the facility and teaching staff are limited, which will not be beneficial for teaching and cultivating talents. Secondly, many colleges and universities have expanded their enrollment but fail to guarantee the quality of education. And it is regarded by some people that this kind of education policy is not reasonable because colleges and universities always teach students a lot of theoretical knowledge rather than some practical skills. Finally, since there are a lot of college students will graduate from colleges, the job competition is becoming more and more severe. It can be seen that every year in graduation time, the job fair is just like a battlefield because hundreds of students are fighting for the same job.

However, the following paragraph (example 1) written by another is not unified:

Example 2:

Today I want to talk about the phenomenon of enrollment expansion in Chinese universities. As we all know, the enrollment expansion gives many high school graduates valuable chances to further their study in universities. And through this opportunity, they can learn more knowledge and acquire a lot of skills. However, because of enrollment expansion, the teaching resources of many universities are very limited and can not meet the demand of students. At the same time, many college graduates will face unemployment problems because they can not find ideal jobs after graduation.

In example 2, the paragraph is not unified because it includes more than one idea. So it can be separated and revised into the following three paragraphs:

Today I want to talk about the advantages and disadvantages of enrollment expansion in Chinese universities.

The advantages of enrollment expansion are very obvious. As we all know, the enrollment expansion gives many high school graduates valuable chances to further their study in universities. And through this opportunity, they can learn more knowledge and acquire a lot of skills.

However, the enrollment expansion also has its own disadvantages. Because of enrollment expansion, the teaching resources of many universities are very limited and can not meet the demand of students. At the same time, many college graduates will face unemployment problems because they can not find ideal jobs after graduation.

Another unified paragraph is listed here:

Example 3:

One day, I bought a big case because my wardrobe was too small to place more clothes. I put it on the balcony and then went out. It happened that one of my roommates washed her clothes at that time. When I came back, I found that all my clothes in that case got wet. Then I got very angry and had a quarrel with that roommate.

B.   Coherence

To produce a unified and smooth paragraph, in addition to unity, another quality is coherence. By coherence, it means that the well-connectedness of words and sentences in a paragraph achieved proper arrangement and the use of certain words (Wang, 2003). "A paragraph is said to be coherent when all the sentences in it stick together and all the ideas in it develop smoothly from start to finish, so that as the reader is being led along he or she is aware of when he or she is going" (Wang, 2003, p.116).

Although coherence is an essential quality of an effective paragraph, some writers still write incoherent paragraphs such as the following:

Frank goes the same morning routine every weekday. He has breakfast and watched the morning news on TV. He brushes teeth and washed face. At seven he is awakened by an alarm clock and gets up. At eight he drives his car to his office. He walks in his garden for 15 minutes.

In the above-mentioned paragraph, it can be clearly seen that it has only central idea, that is, Frank goes the same morning routine every weekday. Therefore, we can say that this paragraph is unified. However, it is not coherent because the sentences in this paragraph are not arranged logically. To be specific, it does not follow time order and it lacks necessary transitions. Thus, we can revise the paragraph as the following:

Frank goes the same morning routine every weekday. At seven he is awakened by an alarm clock and gets up. Then, he brushes teeth and washes face. After that, he has breakfast and watched the morning news on TV. Then, he walks in his garden for 15 minutes. At eight he drives his car to his office.

III.   WAYS OF DEVELOPING PARAGRAPHS

A.   Development by Time

1. The usage:

When people want to recount an event or tell a story, they can use time order or chronological arrangement.

2. Transitional words and expressions:

While, when, as, before, then, later, earlier, after, during, formerly, meanwhile, at the same time, immediately, in the end, at once, eventually, finally, lastly, in conclusion, in the first place, in the second place, in the last place…

3. Organization:

Generally, earlier things are mentioned before later things.

4. Example:

The English translation of ancient books has a long history. As early as in the seventeenth century, some foreign sinologists began to translate Chinese literary classics, and they thought that the translation of classics can help the West to understand China better. In the early nineteenth century, Morrison, an England translator began to translate Chinese cultural classics. He is the first scholar who systematically introduced China's classic culture to the West. From 1861 to 1886, a famous modern sinologist in England, James Leger, translated the ancient Chinese classics "The Four Books" and "The Five Classics" systematically. In 1878, Giles, an English scholar, translated "The Strange Tales from Liaozhai". And in 1898, he translated "The Ancient and Modern Poems Election", which introduced Chinese ancient poetry culture to the West. In 1919, the British sinologist Waley translated "Chinese Poetry Translation". After that, he translated "Journey to the West" and he named it as "Monkey". His translation is faithful to the original, and because of his exquisite translation, the famous classic of "Journey to the West" is well known in the Western world. In 1920, another English sinologist David Hawks translated the complete translation of "The Dream of the Red Mansion", and this is the world first English translation of "The Dream of the Red Mansion". In the late Qing Dynasty and early Republic of China, the famous translators in ancient China Gu Hongming and Su Manshu also translated many Chinese classics. For example, Gu Hongming translated the "Analects of Confucius" and "Golden Mean". In the twentieth century, Lin Yutang, a modern Chinese writer and translator, wrote many books in English, such as the biography of historical figure "Wu Zetian", and the novel "The Wisdom of Life". In modern times, the famous translators Yang Xianyi, Dai Naidie couple translated many ancient Chinese classics (Shi, 2015).

B.   Development by Process

1. The usage:

It is usually used to explain how to do something step by step. Generally, in a process paragraph, people can use the present tense, the indefinite pronoun "you" and imperatives sentences.

2. Transitional words and expressions:

First, second, third…, firstly, secondly, thirdly, finally…, the first step, the second step, the next step, the final step, the last step…, primarily, prior to, initially, to begin with, as soon as, before, after…

3. Organization:

In the topic sentence, people always use conditional sentences, such as "If you want to want to become an excellent speaker in public, you can follow some steps." As for the supporting materials, people can present it in time order or describe it step by step. In the concluding sentence, the writer can tell the result or make a comment of the result of the process.

4. Examples:

Example 1:

If you want write a good composition, you can follow the following steps. Firstly, you should have a central idea. Secondly, you should accumulate some materials to support your central idea. Such as, you can use some typical, specific and relevant examples to prove your thesis. In addition, if you have more than one examples, you should arrange these examples logically. Lastly, you can offer a conclusion to your composition.

Example 2:

If you want to become a public speaker, there are some steps you can follow. First of all, you should select an interesting topic so that your audience can focus on your speech. Secondly, you should write and recite your speech thoroughly. Thirdly, you should dress appropriately so as to give a good impression to the listener. During the speech, you should establish eye contact with your audience. Besides, you should deliver your speech in a good manner. Next, you should pay attention to your pronunciation, intonation, vocal variety, pitch, volume, gesture and body movement. At last, when you are going to end the speech, you should signal your audience and say thank you to them.

C.   Development by Space

1. The usage:

When people wants to describe the spatial order of a certain place, they can develop a paragraph by space.

2. Transitional words and expressions:

Near, nearby, below, above, beyond, under, here, there, surface, vertical, midpoint, adjacent, parallel, edge, around, behind, inside, outside, interior, exterior, next to, close to, opposite to, in front of, at the back, on top of, at the same place, in the middle of, on the left, on the right, parallel to…

3. Organization:

In the topic sentence, people will generally select an angle that he or she is going to describe. And the supporting details can be arranged according to certain order, such as from right to left, up to down, side to side, near to far, center to side, north to south, and so on. In the concluding sentence, people can make comment of the description.

4. Example:

In the middle of the park, there is a garden. The flowers in the garden are all in full bloom. Two little girls are playing games along the garden. In one corner of the garden stood their parents, who were watching the blossoms with great interest. In another corner of the garden two young lovers were posing for a picture. In front of the garden, a group of people had gathered together to listen to the soft music.

D.   Development by Examples or Generalization

1. The usage:

In a paragraph, if the writer uses some specific and typical examples, the general or abstract statement will be clear, vivid, interesting and easy to understand.

2. Transitional words and expressions:

For example, for instance, in other words, in one instance, to illustrate, in other words, to substantiate, as an illustration, in substantiation, as follows, according to statistics, consider…as an example, take…as an example, let me cite…as an example…

3. Organization:

In terms of organization of this kind of paragraph, it can be classified in two ways. The first is "from general to specific" order, which means that the paragraph begins with a topic sentence, and then supporting details are mentioned to support the opening statement. The second way of organization is "from specific to general" order, which means that the paragraph starts with the details, and the general statement such as the topic sentence comes at the end of the paragraph.

4. Examples:

Example 1: From general to specific

It is useful to learn a foreign language. First, learning a foreign language is a great advantage for people when they are looking for a job because a lot of companies now are paying more and more attention to the language ability of their employees. Second, when people are learning a foreign language, they are also learning some information and the culture of that foreign country, which will broaden their horizon at the same time.

Example 2: From specific to general

Learning a foreign language is a great advantage for people when they are looking for a job because a lot of companies now are paying more and more attention to the language ability of their employees. Besides, when people are learning a foreign language, they are also learning some information and the culture of that foreign country, which will broaden their horizon at the same time. Therefore, it is useful to learn a foreign language.

E. Development by Comparison and Contrast

1. The usage:

Generally speaking, when people wants to list the similarities between two or more persons or things, people will use "comparison" to develop a paragraph. However, if they want show the differences between persons or things, they can apply "contrast" to describe them. In writing, people can use both comparison and contrast because they can compare two things that are similar in some ways and different in others.

2. Transitional words and expressions:

For comparison: similarly, as, like, alike, both, likewise, resemble, just as, furthermore, similar to, in the same way, almost the same as, in like manner, in addition to, have…in common, to be parallel in, at the same rate as, common characteristics…

For contrast: but, unlike, although, however, while, nevertheless, on the contrary, on the other hand, in contrast to, on the opposite side, be different from, once…, now…, the former…, whereas the latter…, in opposition to…

3. Organization:

Generally, in a comparison or contrast paragraph, the topic sentence tells the two things to be compared or contrasted.

As for the way of organization, it can be further divided in the following two: the first is "block comparison" or "block contrast", which means that one thing is examined completely, and then the other; the second is "alternating comparison" or "alternating contrast", which means that the two things are examined point by point at the same time.

In this way of developing paragraphs, the concluding sentence can restate the topic sentence or offer a summary.

4. Examples:

Example 1: block comparison

Sally and Ann are good friends, and they have a lot in common. Sally likes reading books, she spends a lot of time reading novels in a day. At the same time, Sally likes playing sports, and jogging is her favourite exercise. Sally has a pet dog, she likes it very much, when she is jogging, the dog will follow her. Sally also loves travelling. She has gone to many places, such as Beijing, Qingdao and Nanjing. Ann likes reading too. Every day she reads three to four hours. Ann is a sports fan, she also likes jogging every evening. Similar to Sally, Ann has a pet dog too. And the pet also accompanies her when she is jogging. In addition, travelling is also Ann's hobby, she likes to experience different folklores and customs of different places.

Example 2: block contrast

Life in senior high school and that in university are totally different. In senior high school, students have a lot of classes to attend and a lot of homework to do every day. Therefore, they do not have enough time to play sports and relax themselves. And students in senior high school have a fixed classroom to study, so they don't need to change and find classrooms. Besides, teachers are ready to help students in life and study. In other words, whenever students are in trouble, they will turn to their teachers for help. However, in university, students have less classes to attend and few homework to do, so they have a lot of time and much freedom to do something they want, such as they can join different clubs in college or do a part-time job. And college students have no fixed classrooms so they have to change and find another room for another class. In addition, university students are adults, so they have to make their own choices and decision without any teachers' help.

Example 3: alternating comparison

Sally and Ann are good friends, and they have a lot in common. Sally likes reading books, she spends a lot of time reading novels in a day. Ann likes reading too. Every day she reads three to four hours. Sally likes playing sports, and jogging is her favourite exercise. Ann is also a sports fan, she likes jogging every evening. Sally has a pet dog, she likes it very much. When she is jogging, the dog will follow her. Similar to Sally, Ann has a pet dog too. And the pet will also accompany with her when she is jogging. Sally loves travelling. She has gone to many places, such as Beijing, Qingdao and Nanjing. Travelling is also Ann's hobby, she likes to experience different folklores and customs of different places.

Example 4: alternating contrast

Life in senior high school and that in university are totally different. In senior high school, students have a lot of classes to attend and a lot of homework to do every day. Therefore, they do not have enough time to play sports and relax themselves. However, in university, students have less classes to attend and few homework to do, so they have a lot of time and much freedom to do something they want, such as they can join different clubs in college or do a part-time job. Students in senior high school have a fixed classroom to study, so they don't need to change and find classrooms. But college students have no fixed classrooms so they have to change and find another room for another class. Besides, senior high school teachers are ready to help their students both in life and study. In other words, whenever students are in trouble, they will turn to their teachers for help. However, university students are adults, so they have to make their own choices and decision without any teachers' help.

F. Development by Cause and Effect

1. The usage:

In daily writing, when people give their opinion on a certain topic, they can give reasons to support it. If they begin with a cause, they will go on explaining its resulting effects. While if they begin with some effects, they are going to state the cause responsible for them. And this kind of cause-effect writing, is also called causal analysis.

2. Transitional words and expressions:

So, thus, hence, therefore, because, because of, due to, owing to, since, accordingly, as a result, so that, so as to, result in, be responsible for, occur from, have an effect on, thanks to, the reason for, the cause of, seeing that, it follows that…

3. Organization:

There are two ways of organization in cause and effect paragraphs. The first is from cause to effect, which means that the writer will first state a cause and then mention or predict the effects. The second is from effect to cause, which means that the effect will be stated first, and the causes will be examined in the rest of the paragraph.

4. Examples:

Example 1: from cause to effect

Nowadays, more and more fertile land is taken up by new buildings. As a result, many farmers can not find jobs. And the grain output can not be guaranteed. However, it also brings positive effects. For example, the living standard of farmers is improved and it's beneficial for modernization.

Example 2: from effect to cause

I choose English as my major because of two reasons. First, To learn English is good for finding a job because nowadays a lot of employers require that the employees should be qualified in English. Second, it's useful to learn English because it is a world and universal language.

G. Development by Classification

1. The usage:

Develop a paragraph by classification means to sort things into different categories according to their characteristics.

2. Transitional words and expressions:

Divide, classify, sort, distinguish, classes, aspects, types, categories, kinds, sources, methods, factors, divisions, parts, regions, times, eras, origins, characteristics, qualities, …fall into…categories, …can be divided into…

3. Organization:

In a good classification paragraph, different parts should be parallel. That is to say, parallelism is essential to a good classification.

4. Examples:

Example 1:

According to different ways to spend their spare time, college students can be classified into four groups. The first group of students usually spend their spare time in studying so they may stay in the classroom and library all day. The second group of people will take part in a lot of activities such as join a certain club, play sports or simply make an appointment with their friends. The third group of students are spending their time in doing part-time jobs. They may be tutors who teach primary students or even waiters who work in a restaurant. The last group of students will kill their time by doing something in their dormitory, such as they may wash their clothes, clean their dormitory or simply sleep for several hours.

Example 2:

According to the purpose of doing a part-time job, students can fall into three groups. The first group of students want to earn money by doing a part-time job. In this way, they can buy something they want and release the economic burden of their parents. The second group of students want to learn something more about the society and apply what they have learned in college into practice. The last group of students want to gain some practical skills such as how to deal with personal relationship and work under pressure, which will benefit them in their future job.

H. Development by Definition

1. The usage:

To avoid confusion or misunderstanding, people can write a definition paragraph by defining a word, term or concept which is unfamiliar to some readers.

2. Transitional words and expressions:

To define, to clarify, to explain, in clarification, in definition, in explanation, in other words, that is to say…

3. Example:

Everyone has different understanding about happiness. As for me, happiness is easy to get. For example, it can be a cake made by my mother. It can be a present bought by my father. And it can be a kiss from my son.

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper mainly includes four parts. The first part is an introduction. The second part analyzes the qualities of unity and coherence in effective paragraphs. The third part introduces several ways to develop a paragraph. And the last part is conclusion. By analyzing the qualities of effective paragraphs and ways of developing paragraphs, English learners can know more information about paragraphs, thus they can write more impressive and successful paragraphs.

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The Effect of Using Metatalk Activity on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Knowledge of Tense

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Abstract—The present study aimed to investigate the effect of metatalk activity on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Knowledge of Tense. 60 intermediate institute learners took part in this experiment. They were randomly chosen from among a population of intermediate via an PET test score of at least on standard deviation below the mean. They were then randomly assigned into two experimental and control groups of 30. A pretest of English grammar was administered to both groups, then they were taught grammatical tenses for 8 sessions but with different methodologies: the experimental group was treated with metatalk activity while the control group received traditional method. A posttest of grammar was then administered to both groups. The data of the study were analyzed using the independent samples t-test and correlation coefficient. The results demonstrated that Iranian EFL learners in the experimental group received higher knowledge of tense score after being treated with metatalk activity for 8 sessions.

Index Terms—EFL learners, grammar, metatalk, tense

I. INTRODUCTION

It has been demonstrated by some scholars that it is essential to focus attention on grammar of L2 to attain high levels of proficiency (Doughty, 2003; Swain, 1995, 1998). So, regarding the extended significance of the use of English language correctly, the grammar instruction has gained a major place in language teaching. Debates of how to teach it includes accounts of a variety of pedagogical options available to teacher and the relative advantages of each option (see, e.g. Ellis, 1997, as cited in Ellis et al, 2002). Among the controversial issues raised by classroom SLA research is whether and how to include "grammar" in second language classrooms (Doughty & Williams, 1998). The present study attempts to investigate metatalk to find out if it has any positive effect on learning grammar. Metatalk, as a facet of foreign language (FL) teaching has not been the major interest for investigation over the years. The question of whether metatalk results in more accurate grammatical knowledge is of high importance, but one that has not been fully investigated. In accordance to the results from some studies, metatalk may have a positive effect only on the accuracy of a few individual grammatical structures.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definition of Grammar

Grammar is 'a difficult term to define', because of the diversity of phenomena it refers to and the disagreements among grammarians concerning its nature (Byram, 2000; p. 248). It is defined as "That department of the study of a language which deals with its inflectional forms or their equivalents, and with the rules for employing these correctly; usually treating also of the phonetic system of the language and its representation in writing" (Little et al., 1985; p. 878). Within communicative language teaching theory, as language learning is considered a social and cognitive process, learners must acquire both knowledge of grammatical structures and the knowledge of how to use the grammatical structures in discourse interaction (Widdowson, 1978). A useful pedagogical grammar, developed according to the principles of the language teaching theory it refers to, and its critical assumptions about the nature of language and its relationship to language learning, is needed by language teachers to access to details the regularities of linguistic aspects in native speaker discourse (Tomlin, 1994). VanPatten and Benati (2010) argue that the meaning of the term grammar depends on the users and the contexts where it is used. In instructional settings, grammar refers to the rules and formal traits of language that learners must master as part of coursework. This kind of grammar is often called pedagogical grammar and the focus tends to be on supporting accurate use of grammatical structures in speech and writing.

Linguistics is concerned with providing an explanation about the language structure and function in the process of human communication. In this respect, "grammarians account for sentences which are well-formed or grammatical

(formally correct), acceptable (meaningful) and, in some models, contextually appropriate" (Byram, 2000; p. 248). Linguistics illustrates how grammar is subdivided in morphology and syntax, and that it is "one of four 'levels' of language, [with] phonology, lexis and semantics. In Linguistics, 'grammar is often used to refer to the mental representation of language that native speakers possess regarding the formal aspects of language' (VanPatten & Benati, 2010; p. 91). Grammar as such is the representation of native speaker's competence: it refers to abstract features of language and how they are manifested in the actual language. This difference in thinking about grammar is, in essence, about the difference between prescriptive and descriptive grammar. Descriptive grammar refers to 'how people actually use language'; prescriptive grammar instead tends to be associated with the imposition of 'good language use' on others' 'bad grammar' (VanPatten & Benati, 2010; p. 91). Myhill (2011a; pp. 9-10) observed the following:

"Modern linguists all operate with a conceptualization of grammar as descriptive: a way of describing how language works. They analyze and examine language in order to describe language structures and patterns of language use. Descriptive linguists do not attempt to determine what 'correct' usage is or to make judgments of language use. In contrast, many non-linguists hold a prescriptive view of grammar: that there is a set of rules for how language should be used which are outlined and set down for common reference. A prescriptive grammar establishes a norm and sets a value on that norm, and critiques, as inherently inferior, usages which do not conform to that norm. Just as different understandings of the word 'standard' are at the heart of the Standard English debate, so too is the difference between descriptive and prescriptive perspectives at the heart of the grammar debate. One way to look at the language debate about Standard English and grammar is to see it as a fundamental difference in understanding between academic linguistic discourses and political and public discourses".

With regard to descriptive/prescriptive views of grammar and standard language varieties are contrasting views of grammar as fixed or changing. Myhill (2000; pp. 155-156) noted that "There exists a belief that grammar is a monolithic entity: just as many non-linguists find it hard to appreciate that Standard English and dialects each have their own equally systematic and organised grammar, so many non-linguists are also unaware that grammars vary from one language to another". Likewise, Bybee (2012; p. 61) stresses the constant flux of grammar, noticing that whilst the 'Language Police always deplore the loss of grammar', it is 'barely noticed that languages also develop new grammar'.

B. The Importance of Teaching Grammar

There is a considerable impact of grammar instruction on noticing and the grammatical points and using them accurately and creatively, inhibiting fossilization, and encouraging classroom participation actively. Initially, Hinkel and Fotos (2002, pp. 6-7) state that if learners are continuously exposed to a certain grammatical structure in formal instruction, they are more likely to notice the structure and realize the difference between grammatically correct speech and their current speech. Thus, the students' observation will help them to use the structure in communication automatically(Cited in Yu, 2013).

Another benefit of grammar instruction is to hinder fossilization. CelceMuricia and Hills (1988; p. 149, cited in Yule, 2013) define fossilization as using "a broken, ungrammatical, and pidginized form of a language". Moreover, they comment that purely meaning-based instruction, which does not focus on grammar, can facilitate this fossilization because some complicated structures cannot be acquired by natural conversation (Cited in Yu, 2013). Furthermore, Vasilopoulos (2012; p. 8, cited in Yule, 2013) in his essay titled Adapting Communicative Language Instruction in Korean Universities mentioned that "Korean EFL students may have difficulty developing grammatical form through an unfocused approach, especially if a large part of their exposure to L2 comes in the form of their classmates' production of L2, which may contain many errors". In other words, Korean students' exposure to English is insufficient for language fluency; this environmental limitation inhibits their ability to self-correct their own grammatical errors. Due to this, teaching grammar hinders the fossilization of students' language use.

In spite of the mentioned points regarding teaching grammar, it also helps learners to use language more accurately and innovatively. Littlewood (1981; p. 172, cited in Yule, 2013) also argues that if EFL students learn grammar in CLT classes, "they can not only use set phrases or insert alternative words into fixed patterns, but also make choices within the grammatical system itself". All in all, teaching grammar is beneficial for EFL students' actively classroom participation. In this respect, Vasilopoulos (2012; p. 3) comments that "EFL learners who are already familiar with grammar instruction can speak English with confidence only when they are convinced that their speech is grammatically correct. Specifically, EFL learners can be strongly motivated when they can prepare notes before inviting oral responses" (cited in Yule, 2013).

C. Verb Tense

Verb tense as an aspect of grammar receives a great deal of attention in English instruction. The tense, as a primary feature of the English verb, is generally identified as the inflectional affix of the verb and also causes the syntactic or morphological change of the verb in expressing time relation (Jacobs & Rosenbaum, 1970; Lester, 1976, cited in Mardani & Azizifar, 2014). Mardani and Azizifar (2014) mentioned that this inflection or morphological change also characterizes modals and aspect. They added Tense errors are the most common ones that students make and teachers of English find it difficult to solve it among students. According to Mardani and Azizi (2014, p. 418) "Verbs in English have two parts: the time and the aspect, or way of looking at that time". Time, as a universal concept, is realized variously as past, present, future. Although in most languages it has not been claimed yet about the syntactic

relationship between time and tense, in English it has been, i.e., time and tense bear explicit relation, especially, the past time (VáclavNovák, 2008, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014). The notion of tense is syntactic while that of time is semantic. The definition of the term 'tense' can be found in many dictionaries or grammar books. "The verb- Forms which show differences in time are called tenses" (Swain, 1992; p.605, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014). "Tense is any of the forms of a verb that show the time, continuance, or completion of an action or state that is expressed by the verb" (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2000, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014). According to Carter and McCarthy (2007; p. 405, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014) "tense gives information about time while aspect gives information about the speaker's perspective on time. Thus it could be said that aspect expresses how the speaker views an action." "Aspect is a grammatical category that reflects the way which the action of a verb is viewed with respect to time" (Greenbaum & Quirk, 1990; p. 51, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014). According to Mardani and Azizi. Swain (1992) emphasizes the fact that when we want to express whether the action is continuing or a past situation is connected with the present moment, we speak about changes in verb-forms. "Changes of this kind are often called changes of aspect" (Swain, 1992; p. 605, cited in Mardani & Azizi, 2014).

D. Definition of Metatalk

Swain's (2001; p. 50) definition of metatalk in her investigation of the role of student performance in task-based learning was as "the metalinguistic function of her output hypothesis: a learner uses language to indicate an awareness of something about their own, or their interlocutor's use of language" (as cited in Tsuzuku, 2015). According to Vanderheijden (2010) an example of metatalk could be asking the partner a simple question like, ―Shouldn't that word have X ending? Swain makes no mention of L1 or L2 use in metatalk; the assumption is that the language of expression is also irrelevant. Another assumption made by Swain is that metatalk is a cognitive tool. She characterizes it as a surfacing of language used in problem-solving. As such, it not only serves students in language learning, it also serves researchers as a visible sign of cognitive processes as work. This characterization firmly aligns such learner interaction with a sociocultural learning theory (as cited in Tsuzuku, 2015).

Swain (1985) initially introduced the term metatalk (MT) in relation to the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. She commented on Krashen's (1982) Input Hypothesis and concluded that, in practical terms and based on her observations, input is not sufficient for the attainment of native-like proficiency in the L2. She then turned her attention to output. Swain proposed three functions of output in L2 learning: noticing, hypothesis-testing, and metalinguistic reflection (or metatalk). She concluded that in output production, L2 learners may notice the gaps between what they want to say and what they can actually say (as cited in Zhang, 2013), may experiment with the language and test their own hypotheses, and may engage in metalinguistic reflections on their use and knowledge of the target language (Swain, 1998). While the terminology might vary, metalinguistic reflection, metacognition, and metatalk carry the same fundamental description and function in L2 development.

Kuiken and Vedder (2005) discussed metacognition, saying that it has a facilitative effect on L2 acquisition as it helps learners understand relations between meaning, form, and function. It has been highlighted the potential of metacognition as it is facilitated by interaction. Language production has been described as enabling learners to deepen their awareness of grammatical and lexical matters, test hypotheses with others, receive feedback and reprocess their output. In this manner, learners engage in co-constructing their L2. Ellis (2000) discussed the nature of tasks and interaction in connection with metacognition. She addressed production tasks in which learners are prompted to solve problems. It is in these settings that MT, or metacognitive verbalization, arises as learners are engaged in meaningful interactions. Such verbalizations may lead learners to understand the relationship between meaning, form, and function. At the same time, these verbalizations allow researchers to observe learners working with hypotheses as they experience the language learning process.

Another relevant term with a slight variation in meaning that has been introduced by Swain (2006) is languaging. She proposed this term to be a form of verbalization used to mediate cognitively-demanding activity. Swain (2006, p. 89) defined Languaging as "the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language". She introduced this term from a sociocultural psychology standpoint and claimed that, as L2 learners engage in languaging while producing and comprehending language, they benefit from an important source of L2 learning (Suzuki & Itagaki, 2009; Swain, 2006). Although the terms metacognition, metalinguistic reflection, languaging, and MT might vary slightly in form, they share the same functions at their core: the observation of language as an object of inquiry; the verbalization of such observations in a meaningful context; and the development of L2 knowledge that emerges from the process. In this study, the focus is that of MT in its oral form.

In the SLA field, MT has been variously defined as: a metalinguistic function (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Swain, 2000); a means to develop cognitive skills (Swain & Deters, 2007); a function of output (Swain, 1985), a window into the process of language learning (Storch, 2008); a surfacing of language used in problem solving (Swain, 1985, 1998); and a cognitive or semiotic tool that mediates language development (Donato & McCormick, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Swain, 1998). Others have found MT to occur on occasions wherein students talk about their own language and discuss it as an object of inquiry, or when language stops being a content vehicle and becomes a tool for analysis and thought that promotes development (Brooks et al., 1997; Gass & Selinker, 2001; Swain, 2001b; Vanderheijden, 2010). It must

be noted that MT is one type of collaborative talk; dialogue in which participants are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building, and which can occur in many domains (e.g. mathematics) (Swain & Lapkin, 2002; Swain, 2000).

Most researchers have reached a compromise about a major definition of MT that includes learners' speech about their own language production. However, they often shift their focus to areas derived from MT. For example, Brooks et al. (1997) considered a student's expression of frustration with L2 learning as an example of MT, while Storch's (2008) definition included notions of increased levels of attention and awareness that result from joint collaboration. In these examples, MT and its boundaries are not clearly delineated. MT is defined as the verbalization of aspects of the target language; that is, learners' awareness of something about the L2 that comes to surface through verbalization. Also, MT is a cognitive and semiotic tool that enables the mediation of lexical development and as such allows learners to work through knowledge layers of each vocabulary item through joint verbalization. MT occurs naturally in linguistic tasks that require collaboration as learners encounter a lexical problem that they work on together (Brooks et al., 1997; Swain, 2001). Hence, MT mediates lexical development by playing a role in how knowledge is enabled and how learners respond to the task, which is known as regulation.

MT is seen as comparable to other forms of mediation within SCT, including egocentric speech, inner speech, and private speech. Like other forms of speech, MT can serve individuals first and foremost by mediating knowledge as they negotiate with an interlocutor. Even if language is used for mediation in a social context, individuals take advantage of it it differently and will organize their own thoughts in a unique manner, as compared to their peers in the same social task.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study was an attempt to investigate the effects of using Metatalk Activity on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' knowledge of tense. For this study, the main question was addressed.

RQ1: Does intermediate students' knowledge of tense change according to using metatalk?

A. Participants

The sample for the present study included 60 learners studying at the intermediate level in an language institute. They were selected based on a convenience sampling method. The participants of this study then were those whose scores were at least one standard deviation below the mean. The rationale behind such a selection was that the target participants had to be weak in grammar to be able to show possible progression as a result of being treated. Over-the-mean participants might be able to receive high scores in grammar tests. Then, the participants were divided into two groups, one the experimental (N= 30) and the other the control (N=30). All of the participants were females and their ages varied from14-16 years of age. Their first language was Persian.

B. The Instruments

Preliminary English Test: To select homogeneous participants for the current study a preliminary English test (PET Test) was administered. The PET test contained 58 items. This test consisted of listening (25 items in forms of True-False, Multiple-choice, and Gap-filled), reading comprehension (25 items in forms of True-False, Matching, Multiple-choice, and Cloze-test), and writing (8 items including three topics for writing and five sentence transformations) for homogenizing their language proficiency. The allocated time for answering the questions was 2 hours. After correcting the papers, 60 students were selected as the intermediate group based on the PET manual (Those participants whose grades were among 65 to 100 (total grades=100) were selected).

Dictogloss: The dictogloss was used as another instrument of data collection, in terms of its comprehensive use in other studies on metatalk (MT) (e.g. Kowal & Swain, 1994; LaPierre, 1994), the explicit support this type of task has received from experts in the field because it motivates much collaborative talk and MT (Kowal & Swain, 1997; Swain, 2001b). The dictogloss is an activity where learners are introduced to a topic and are supposed to work through the reconstruction of a text on the same topic with a partner.

Grammar Pretest and Posttest: Students took a grammar pretest at the beginning of the study and a posttest after the treatments. Two types of tests were administered: a production-based test i.e. a fill in the blank test and a comprehension-based test, i.e. a multiple-choice test.

C. Procedure of the Study

In the current study grammar knowledge was aimed. First, the researcher selected two classes at intermediate level to do the research. Second, the PET test was administered to check the homogeneity of the participants. Next, a pretest of grammar was administered to measure students' grammar knowledge before treatment. Then it was started next stage, the treatment. Some selective tenses including simple past tense, simple present tense, present continuous tense, and present perfect tense were the grammatical points that were taught during eight sessions during one month. In each of the 8 sessions, one special tense was instructed. This paper set out to compare the performance of EFL learners of intermediate proficiency on four tasks: multiple choice, rational deletion (cloze), text reconstruction and composition. Each task was completed collaboratively. In Experimental group after instruction of grammar, these activities were done.

For dictogloss activity (text reconstruction) a text passage of approximately 100 words which contained the special instances of the L2 structure was presented to the participants to be reconstructed in experimental group. The texts were selected from Longman English Grammar Practice. The teacher read the passage out at normal speed twice. The first time students just listened, the second time they could make notes. In pairs or small groups, students had to share what they remembered and attempted to reconstruct the text. The instructor reminded the participants to pay attention to the usage of the L2 forms in the text. In metatalk group the participants were supposed to find a partner to work with during the task. The purpose of this task was working together with the partner in reconstructing a text. These learners were prompted to notice linguistic problems and then engage in discussing language forms so that the structure could be made correct. They discussed the content and shared their ideas in order to reconstruct the text. The time allocated to task performance was 30 min in each session. In control group the selected grammatical items were explained on the white board by the teacher. Then the students took notes. After the instruction, the students were given some texts to answer individually. Finally, a test of grammar was administered to both groups of the study to find out the possible effect of metatalk activity as the independent variable of the study on the participants' grammar knowledge as the dependent variable of the study. There were 20 items in the multiple choice test and 20 items in the fill in the blank test. Since the multiple choice test might provide participants with models for the production of target forms, it was administered after the fill in the blank test. Every correct response received one point and Partially correct ones were scored zero because based on the output hypothesis the correct and precise production of output can be a sign of learning (Swain, 1995, as cited in Abadikhah & Shahriyarpour, 2012). The focus of the gapped words in the fill-in the blank test was verb tenses. The answer was always a single word. In some cases, there might be more than one possible answer and this was allowed for in the mark scheme. A standardized Cambridge test (Cambridge English First Handbook for Teachers) was chosen for pretest and posttest of the present study so reliability of the test was not needed to be tested. The scores of posttest were compared with the pretest scores through statistical calculations.

IV. RESULTS

The data obtained from this study were analyzed via calculating the descriptive statistics as well as the inferential statistical method of independent samples T-test and correlation coefficient for determining the effect of the independent variable of the study on the dependent variable and the degree of progress of the participants from the pretest to the posttest of the study. The descriptive analysis of the data for both experimental and control groups of the study has been summarized below. Table (I) summarizes the descriptive analysis of the data of experimental group of the study.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
(PR=PRETEST; PO=POSTTEST)

Tests	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
PRgrammar	30	8.133	3.144
POgrammar	30	14.666	1.925

As is indicated in table (I), the number of participants has been 30 in experimental group (N=30). The mean for the PRgrammar (pretest of grammar) scores was shown to be 8.133 (X_{PRE}=8.133) as compared to the mean for the POgrammar (posttest of grammar) scores which was 14.666 (X_{POE}=14.666). As for the standard deviations obtained for the experimental group, there seems to be more variability among pregrammar scores than the scores in the postgrammar. This may give an image of the participants' posttest scores being more homogeneous after conducting the treatment of the study (treating with metatalk).

TABLE II.
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA FOR CONTROL GROUP
(PR=PRETEST; PO=POSTTEST)

Tests	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
PRgrammar	30	9.333	1.884
POgrammar	30	10.033	1.493

As is indicated in table (II), the number of participants has been 30 (N_{PRC}=30; N_{POC}=30). The mean for the PRgrammar (pretest of grammar) scores was shown to be 9.333 (X_{PRC}=9.333) as compared to the mean for the POgrammar (posttest of grammar) scores which was 10.033 (X_{POC}=10.033). As for the standard deviations obtained for the control group, there seems to be more variability among pregrammar scores than the scores in the postgrammar. This may give an image of the participants' posttest scores being more homogeneous after conducting the treatment of the study (treating with traditional method).

Table (III) summarizes the inferential analysis of the post-test scores for the control and experimental groups:

TABLE III.
THE T-TEST RESULTS OF THE STUDY

T-Test Results	Observed t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Between the Posttest Scores of the Experimental and the Control Groups of the Study (Equal variances not assumed)	6.923	47.452	0.000

As is indicated in table (III), the t-value of the study was calculated between the posttests of grammar the participants in the experimental and the control groups. The observed t was calculated as to be 6.923 ($t_{obs=}$ 6.923) and the degree of freedom was 47.452 (df= 47.452). The *t*-observed value, 6.923, at 47.452degrees of freedom is higher than the critical value of *t*, that is, 2.000. It can be concluded that there was a significant difference between the means of the experimental and control groups. Finally, the level of significance was calculated as to be 0.00 that is used in interpreting the data for the rejection or support of the hypothesis of the study.

The next inferential analysis of the data of this study was related to the degree of the relationship between the pretest and the posttest of grammar (here, Tense) in each group of the study. This was indicated by calculating the Pearson Correlation Coefficient. The results of the Pearson correlation coefficient between the pretest and posttest scores of the experimental and the control groups of the study have been illustrated in table (IV) below:

TABLE IV.
THE CORRELATION MATRIX FOR THE PRETEST AND THE POSTTEST OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	Between the Pretest and the Posttest of the Experimental Group	Between the Pretest and the Posttest of the Control Group
Correlation (Pearson)	0.095	0.878

Table (IV) indicates that the correlation coefficient between the pretest and the posttest scores of the experimental group of the study is 0.095 (R_{PREPOE}=0.095) as compared with the correlation coefficient between the pretest and the posttest of the control group to be 0.878 (R $_{PRC POC}$= 0.878). The $R_{PRE POE}$ is much more different in value than the R_{PRCPO} and thus, is representative of the low relationship as well as significant distance between the scores of the pretest and posttest of grammar in the experimental group. On the other hand, the higher value of RPRCPOC indicates that the scores in the pretest and posttest of grammar in the control group of the study are closer to each other than the scores in the experimental group. It can be inferred from such relationship that there has been no significant progress in the pretest scores of grammar in the control group after being compared with the scores in the posttest.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study set out to investigate the effect of metatalk activity on knowledge of tense. Regarding the research question, the results revealed the superiority of the metatalk activity over the traditional method in the acquisition of the tense structures. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the students' performance before and after raising the L2 learners' awareness about English Tenses. In other words, metatalk can be influential in acquiring tenses in different questions and statements. It was indicated that the metatalk activity could positively and comprehensively affect L2 learning when they had a specific linguistic focus. The relationship between the participants' pretest and posttest scores revealed that experimental group participants improved their production of the L2 forms. The experimental group participants' outperformance in the metatalk output group might be due to the reception of immediate feedback from their peers on their linguistic choices.

The findings from the present study lend support to Watanabe and Swain's (2007) claim that when involved in the collaborative dialog, the learners are more probably to get higher posttest scores regardless of the difference in their proficiency level. As the results showed the superiority of the collaborative output task, the study played its part in extending our understanding of how collaboration in doing language activities can be conductive in L2 instruction. This collaborative task (metetelk) includes interaction and output production that can promote noticing related to meaning or form; moreover, metatalk is expected to happen especially during the reconstruction period (as cited in Gallego, 2014). Metatalk is assumed to raise awareness and promote noticing (Swain, 1998; Cited in Gallego, 2014), which will consequently have a positive effect on the development of learners' interlanguage.

Within the context of measuring the effectiveness of metatalk, collaboration is thought to produce metatalk, which directs learners' attention towards certain linguistic features through reflection and discussion (Kowal & Swain, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; as cited in Gallego, 2014). Exploring the complexities of metatalk, Swain (1998) did a study with 48 students in an 8th grade French immersion class and sought to determine whether students could engage in metatalk following the modeled example they were previously provided and whether there was a relationship between metatalk and second language learning. Her study included two groups, the metatalk group (N = 26; it was exposed to modeled metatalk and explicit rule teaching) and the control group (N = 22; it was not exposed to modeled metatalk and explicit rule teaching). Results indicated that the metatalk group produced 2.5 times more LREs than the control group (metatalk group: 14.8; control group: 5.8), showing that modeling the metatalk increased the production of LREs. Findings also suggested that students' conscious reflection about language might be a source of language learning (as cited in Gallego, 2014).

Fortune (2005) carried out a study in which students at two different levels of proficiency engaged in a dictogloss task. The major goal was to investigate the metalinguistic terms used by the learners during interaction. It also sought to compare how frequently metalanguage was used by intermediate and advanced learners to establish whether metalanguage use enables more sustained engagement with the targeted form and whether it helps learners to attend to those forms more readily. Results indicated that advanced level students used metatalk 46.4% of the time and that intermediate level students used metatalk only 29.4% of the time. The advanced level students concentrated more on form, and they employed more metatalk in doing so, showing more readiness than the intermediate level students (as cited in Gallego, 2014).

Williams (1999, 2001) investigated whether English L2 learners from different proficiency levels differed in terms of the occurrence and the resolution of LREs during collaborative activities. Analyzing the collaborative negotiations of eight learners from four proficiency levels (beginning, intermediate, high-intermediate and advanced) indicated that the learners tended to discuss lexical items more often that grammatical items, and the overall rate of occurrence of LREs increased as the proficiency of the participants increased. The study also found that learners from higher proficiency levels may be more likely to have more metatalk and to reach more correct resolutions to their linguistic problems during collaborative engagements compared to their less proficient counterparts (as cited in Amirkhiz et al, 2013).

Storch (2008) in a classroom-based study examined the metatalk of learners working in pairs on a text reconstruction task. It investigated the learners' level of engagement with linguistic choices, and whether the level of engagement affected subsequent language development. In the first week of data collection, students completed one version of a text reconstruction task in pairs and all pair talk was audio recorded. In the second week, students completed another version of the task individually. Analysis of the pair talk data demonstrated that pairs attended to a range of grammatical and lexical items, but that the nature of their engagement ranged from elaborate to limited. Elaborate engagement was operationalized as instances where learners deliberated and discussed language items and limited engagement where one learner made a suggestion and the other repeated, acknowledged or did not respond to the suggestion. Analysis of learner performance on a set of items that were common to the two versions of the text reconstruction task indicated that elaborate engagement was more facilitative of learning/consolidation for both members of the dyad than limited engagement. The findings also suggested that it is needed to do more investigations about repetitions (as cited in Azkarai, 2015).

Now it's time to promote a discussion about the limitations of the present study to facilitate a possible replication or adaptation of the present research. In addition to the common drawbacks which a classroom research usually displays, our research study presented a number of other limitations. Because this study was carried out in one institute, the number of participants was limited. Another issue raised by this study concerns the time the learners had to reconstruct each text. In this case the participants were asked to reconstruct the text in 30 minutes. There might be some participants who could not do it well because of lack of time. It seemed that students of both groups needed extra time on doing so. The reason is that some texts were vague for some students and they needed more time processing the grammatical structure of texts.

One of the delimitations of this study was that the results of this study might not be applicable beyond the present context. The current study also can be reiterated at higher levels and universities in order to compare and generalize the results. Another delimitation of this study was that the participants were limited to female EFL learners. In other words, other researchers can carry out the research with different ages and levels of proficiency. Different situational and learner factors are said to influence the learners' use of metatalk in reconstructing the texts among which sex and proficiency level are of great importance. In the current study only one proficiency level (intermediate) was considered and only females participated in the present investigation. The same study may be conducted at other levels of language proficiency in order to obtain results that are more generalizable. Therefore, the present study can be duplicated in other places and the future researches are welcomed to be done on the performance of the same study at the university or high school levels. This study investigated the role of metatalk on knowledge of tense. Therefore the researchers can use metatalk in developing other grammatical skills.

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