

Theory and Practice in Language Studies

ISSN 1799-2591

Volume 1, Number 5, May 2011

Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

| | |
|---|-----|
| Role of Consciousness in Second Language Acquisition <i>Abbas Pourhossein Gilakjani and Seyedeh Masoumeh Ahmadi</i> | 435 |
| Conceptual Structure and the Interpretation of Some Polysemous Verbs in a Few Specific Verses in Holy Qura'n: Jackendoff's Semantic Theory (1990) <i>Atef Mustafa Jalabneh and May F. Al-Shaikli</i> | 443 |
| Effects of Teacher's Corrective Feedback on Accuracy in the Oral English of English-Majors College Students <i>Ruili Chu</i> | 454 |
| Exploring Metaphors in Vietnamese Prepositions and Adverbial Particles <i>Luu Trong Tuan</i> | 460 |
| A Reflection on Chinese "Chi": From the Perspective of Cognitive Linguistics <i>Bin Wang and Fan Zhang</i> | 466 |
| Code Switching in the Lexical Corpora of Children <i>B. A. Mahalakshmi Prasad and Prema K. S. Rao</i> | 471 |
| A Comparative Study on English Translations of Culture-loaded Words in <i>The Art of War</i> <i>Hongman Li</i> | 478 |
| The Syntax of Sentential Negation in Jordanian Arabic <i>Islam M. Al-Momani</i> | 482 |
| Action Research of Young College English Teachers <i>Xiaoqian Duan and Suzhen Ren</i> | 497 |
| Arguing for the Use of Portfolio in L2 Classrooms <i>Mahmood Hashemian and Ghasemali Azadi</i> | 501 |
| Mechanisms Leading to Negative Transfer <i>Xiaorong Luo and Jian Gao</i> | 507 |
| Quantification and Graphic Representation of EFL Textbook Evaluation Results <i>Mohammad Reza Ghorbani</i> | 511 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Function-oriented Approaches in Commercial Advertisement Translation <i>Lu Wang and Guodong Zhao</i> | 521 |
| A Comparative Study of the Test Tasks and Target Use Tasks <i>Seyyed Ali Ostovar-Namaghi</i> | 525 |
| A Study of Professional Development of College English Teachers through Narrative Inquiry <i>Jing Ma and Suzhen Ren</i> | 530 |
| Online Interactional Feedback in Second Language Writing: Through Peer or Tutor? <i>Khalil Motallebzadeh and Somaye Amirabadi</i> | 534 |
| Micro-study on Travel Process of ‘Identity’ in Postcolonial Theory in Chinese Context <i>Jun Tong</i> | 541 |
| The Effect of Contextualizing and Decontextualizing Techniques on Lexical-oriented Knowledge of Persian EFL Language Learners <i>Kamal Heidari Soureshjani</i> | 547 |
| Culture Integration in Translating <i>Xiao Geng</i> | 553 |
| The Impossibility of Verifying Reality in Harold Pinter’s Old Times <i>Noorbakhsh Hooti</i> | 556 |
| Jazz Chants in English Language Teaching <i>Jin Zhang</i> | 563 |

Role of Consciousness in Second Language Acquisition

Abbas Pourhossein Gilakjani

School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia

Email: abbas.pourhossein@yahoo.com

Seyedeh Masoumeh Ahmadi

School of Languages, Literacies, and Translation, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia

Email: s_m_a57@yahoo.com

Abstract—No concept raises more hackles in second language acquisition circles than consciousness. The role of consciousness in second language acquisition is currently being heatedly debated and should be particularly considered if we are to make progress in understanding how this acquisition takes place. The researchers review the previous empirical studies on the important role of consciousness in second language acquisition (SLA) through stating the views of different authors, philosophers, scholars. Then, the role of consciousness in terms of concepts such as attention, awareness, intentionality, and control comes up for review. These concepts provide growing support for the view that the role of consciousness is vital for second language learning. Finally, it is concluded that conscious awareness of language is necessary if learner wants to use it appropriately. This notion has gained wide support from research findings which state that conscious learning seems to contribute to successful second language acquisition.

Index Terms—consciousness, acquisition, role, attention, awareness, intentionality, control

I. INTRODUCTION

Consciousness is a core issue in the field of second language acquisition. The role of consciousness in SLA is of considerable importance and should be specifically considered if we are to make progress in understanding how this acquisition takes place. SLA researchers interested in consciousness should start by considering what others have to say about it. This is necessary to develop a comprehensive picture of consciousness. The debate in SLA needs to be informed by an adequate notion of what consciousness is. Only in this way can we reach an adequate view about its role. The researchers present a review of the research findings on the role of consciousness in SLA. Schmidt (1993a) provided a valuable basis for further investigation in terms of concepts of consciousness such as attention, awareness, intentionality, and control. It is argued that a multidimensional view of consciousness provides growing support that the role of consciousness is vital for second language learning. By understanding the functions and effects of the four concepts of consciousness in SLA, students will be able to use language consciously and appropriately. Finally, based on research findings and their relevance to the issues of consciousness, the researchers discuss that conscious learning can contribute to successful second language acquisition (Robinson, 2003; Leow, 2000).

II. DEFINITION OF CONSCIOUSNESS

There is no widely accepted definition of consciousness yet. Physicists attribute a different meaning to consciousness than psychologists do. Some philosophers claim that consciousness resists or even defies definition. Amit Goswani(in his book *The Self-Aware Universe* (chapter 7, p. 105) writes that the Oxford English Dictionary gives not one but six definitions of consciousness:

1. Joint or mutual knowledge.
2. Internal knowledge or conviction, especially of one's own ignorance, guilt, deficiencies, and so forth.
3. The fact or state of being conscious or aware of anything.
4. The state or faculty of being conscious as a condition of concomitant of all thought, feeling and volition.
5. The totality of the impressions, thoughts, and feelings which make up a person's conscious being.
6. The state of being conscious regarded as the normal condition of healthy waking life.

Another general definition of consciousness that accommodates most views (Vimal, 2010b) is:

'consciousness is a mental aspect of a system or a process, which is a conscious experience, a conscious function, or both depending on the context and particular bias (e.g. metaphysical assumptions)', where experiences can be conscious experiences and/or non-conscious experiences and functions can be conscious functions and/or non-conscious functions that include qualities of objects.

III. PREVIOUS EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON THE ROLE OF CONSCIOUSNESS

Nissen and Bullemer (1987) questioned participants as to whether they had noticed a sequence to report when they had noticed it. Nine out of 12 participants in the single – task repeating group reported an awareness of the sequence, and 11 out of 12 in the dual – task repeating group did not report any such awareness. Since the performance of the single – task group was superior to that of the dual – task group, Schmidt (1995) cites these awareness reports as evidence that "there was a very strong relationship between awareness and learning in this experiment" (p.21). Awareness was assessed in Curran and Keele's (1993) SRT study. One group of participants (n = 14) was explicitly informed about the pattern of the lights before the trial. Another group (n = 30) was administered an awareness questionnaire that asked them if they thought the lights appeared at random locations or according to some pattern. Those who thought there was a pattern, were asked to describe it. Participants were classified as more aware if they were able to correctly identify four of the six sequence positions, and less aware if they could identify three or fewer. Results showed that participants who were explicitly informed did better than the more aware group (n = 19), who in turn did better than the less aware group (n = 11), which suggests that awareness may play a facilitative role in learning.

Schmidt (1994) argues that consciousness of input at the level of noticing is a necessary condition for L2 development. Many other researchers support this view. They use terms like focus – on – form (Long, 1991), consciousness – raising (Ellis, 1993; Fotos and Ellis, 1991; Rutherford, 1987), and input – enhancement (Sharwood Smith, 1991). All of these terms are about directing learners' attention to grammatical form in order to help them internalize the L2 system. Teaching should include opportunities for learners to focus on form and consciously notice features of the L2 they are learning. Bialystock (1981a), Sharwood Smith (1981), R. Ellis (1993) all define explicit knowledge as conscious awareness of the formal properties of the target language, verbalizable on demand, contrasted with implicit knowledge, which is intuitive and cannot be introspected or reported. Consciousness is defined by Vygotsky as the "objectively observable organization of behavior that is imposed on humans through participation in sociocultural practices" (Wertsch, 1985, p. 187). Two roles are stressed about consciousness: organizational role and social role. Vygotsky says that consciousness forms the highest level of mental activity. In Vygotsky's view, the two subcomponents of consciousness – intellect and affect – are interconnected to each other. Therefore, it constitutes human socio – cognitive activity by means of intellectual and affective processes. The second definition of consciousness by Vygotsky is that it is an awareness of the activity of the mind (Wertsch, 1985). With regard to the first definition of consciousness, it can be said that it has definitely an important role in language learning. That is, its intellectual and affective processes are responsible for the organization of learning. Concerning the mentioned definitions of consciousness by Vygotsky, it is proposed that consciousness has certain implications for the teacher:

1. To find the suitable social interaction for learning to happen.
2. To train their students to make their own decisions. They should help them to be able to regulate their own language learning.

At first he acts as the student's "vicarious consciousness" (Bruner, 1986, p.72) and through the process of scaffolding, increasing responsibility and autonomy are given to the student and the teacher remaining on the growing edge of the student's competence. The other view of consciousness is related to Csikszentmihalyi's view (1990) on the notion of flow. He states that consciousness, while is self - directed, has developed the ability to override its genetic instructions and to set its own independent course of action. He describes function of consciousness as follows:

The function of consciousness is to represent information about what is happening outside and inside the organism in such a way that it can be evaluated and acted upon by the body. It functions as a clearinghouse for sensations, perceptions, feelings, and ideas, establishing priorities among all the diverse information. Without consciousness, we would still know what is going on, but we would have to react to it in a reflexive, instinctive way. With consciousness, we can weigh what the sense tells us, and respond accordingly. We can also invent information that did not exist before: it is because we have consciousness that we can daydream, make up lies, and write beautiful poems and scientific theories (1990, p.24).

Therefore, it means the organizing, controlling, and evaluating of experience. We might be able to respond to the environment without consciousness, but it would be more like the leaf of a plant which moves in the direction of the sunlight. Clearly, the bulk of human learning can only be accomplished by a consciously acting person. The last view of consciousness deals with its relationship with language. Vygotsky says that to become conscious of a mental operation means to transfer it from the plane of action to that of language, i.e., to recreate it in the imagination so that it can be expressed in words (1962, p.88).

Without language and without social interaction, consciousness could exist at all. This means that both consciousness and language are inextricably connected like two sides of a coin. It can be stated that the growth of language means the growth of consciousness as well and that learning equals the acquisition of consciousness. Schmidt (1990; 1995; 2001) has frequently stated that conscious awareness of the target language system is necessary if learners are to produce correct forms and use them appropriately. Schmidt (2001:26) has told that second language acquisition is driven by what learners pay consciously attention to and notice in the target language input and what they understand the significance of the noticed input to be. Leow (1997) viewed that meta – awareness appeared to correlate with an increased usage of hypothesis testing and morphological rule formation, whereas absence of meta – awareness appeared to correlate with an absence of such process and that learners of high level of awareness performed significantly better

than those with a lower level on both the recognition and written production of the targeted forms. Ellis (1993) recommended the use of grammatical consciousness – raising exercises to foster explicit knowledge, to be used as a complement to a functional or task – based syllabus intended to promote implicit knowledge. He added that explicit declarative knowledge cannot directly become implicit procedural knowledge but can foster its development through intake facilitation, causing learners to pay consciously attention to formal features of the input and to notice the gap between these features and those of their interlanguage (Schmidt; 1990; Schmidt & Frota, 1986). Rosa (1999), Rosa & O'Neill (1999) expressed that whereas both awareness at the levels of noticing and understanding contributed substantially to a significant increase of learners ability to recognize the targeted structure, awareness at the level of understanding also had a differential effect on the amount of intake when compared to awareness at the level of noticing. The Noticing Hypothesis of Schmidt (1990; 1993b; 1994; 1995a; 1995b; Schmidt & Frota, 1986) claims that conscious awareness of grammar plays an important role in the process of second language acquisition. It says that noticing is a necessary condition for learning. The Noticing Hypothesis requires conscious awareness of grammatical details rather than simply global awareness of input. It is also associated with the influential notion of consciousness raising (Ruherford, 1987; Sharwood Smith, 1981). Proponents of noticing give much attention to "noticing the gap" – learner's awareness of a mismatch between the input and their current interlanguage (Schmidt and Forta, 1986).

Leow (2000) stated that learners who demonstrated awareness of targeted morphological forms were able to take in and produce in writing significantly more of these forms, compared to learners who did not appear to be aware of these forms during exposure. De Souza (1959) argued that a conscious effort at figuring out how to say things will be rather more efficient than hoping that we will unconsciously learn how to say things if we memorize enough basic sentences. He also puts it, "we found in our experiment that the practical results, such as reading, writing, speaking and understanding, were achieved in greater proportion and in less time when the technique involved a maximum amount of conscious reasoning". Schmidt (1990; 1993b; 1995b) argued that research has found attention necessary for learning and that it can equated with awareness. Therefore, attention research supports the claim that consciousness is necessary for learning. Krashen (1982) stated that language learning is a means of developing competence in a second language. The term learning refers to conscious knowledge of a second language. So learning is a conscious process and the result of learning is a learned competence.

IV. CONSCIOUSNESS AND SLA

According to Robinson (1996), current debate in SLA is centred on the role of consciousness in L2 development. This controversy is centred in turn on the question of whether or not grammatical instruction is effective for L2 acquisition and if so what kind of grammatical instruction is best. There are researchers who argue that grammatical instruction has only minimal effect on L2 acquisition, Krashen (1981) for example.

According to him, L2 development is largely an unconscious process. Krashen does allow that there are two processes involved in L2 development, a conscious process of learning and an unconscious process of acquisition. The conscious process of learning is a system based on rules and their application, while the unconscious process of acquisition is a system responsible for language production. According to Krashen, conscious learning is limited to a small set of simple rule-governed domains. By contrast, development of the much more substantial acquired system is fostered by avoiding instruction and the provision of L2 rules. In his view, learners only have to be exposed to comprehensible language input in order to acquire grammar. On the other side, there are researchers who argue that comprehensible input alone is not enough for optimal acquisition of the different aspects of grammar and that conscious grammatical instruction is necessary if learners are to have the data they need to acquire grammar (Strozer, 1994). In particular, Schmidt (1994) argues that consciousness of input at the level of noticing is a necessary condition for L2 development. Many other researchers support this view. They use terms such as focus-on-form (Long, 1994), consciousness-raising (Ellis, 1993, Fotos & Ellis, 1991; Rutherford, 1987), and input-enhancement (Sharwood Smith, 1991). In one way or another, all of these terms are about directing learners' attention to grammatical form in order to help them internalize the L2 system. According to these researchers, teaching should include opportunities for learners to focus on form and consciously notice features of the L2 they are learning.

V. CONCEPTS OF CONSCIOUSNESS

There are four concepts of consciousness. They are as follows: attention, awareness, intentionality, and control.

A. Attention

Attention is of key importance for learning. Learning should pay particular attention to the feature of language and this can be an essential condition for learning a second language (Schmidt, 1993b). Psychological theories say that consciousness is the product of an attention mechanism (Posner & Rothbart, 1991). It can be voluntarily controlled; that is, we can force ourselves to attend to one stimuli rather than another for a short time. Therefore, we can see a relationship between this sense of consciousness and that of as intention, but attention is not completely under voluntary control (Vander Heijden, 1992). Pieneman (1984) has expressed that attention capacity is a limited resource and deals with psychological constraints. Based on the studies among children in the L1 have demonstrated that children identify

interest as a condition for attending to any learning task (Miller, 1985), and affect as a recognized relevance to attention (van Lier, 1991). It is widely argued in psychology that learning without attention to what is to be learned is impossible (Nissen & Bullemer, 1987) and in applied linguistics, attention is necessary for the conversion of input to intake (Schmidt, 1993a, 1993b; Scovel, 1991). Tomlin and Villa (1994) suggested four elements of attention in SLA. The first is related to the limited capacity system. Brain is presented with an over-whelming number of stimuli and it is impossible to process them all. The limitations of attention refer to both the amount of attention that may be given to a single stimulus and the number of stimuli that may be attended to simultaneously. The second is pertinent to the process of selection. The overwhelming amounts of incoming stimuli force the attention system to be selective. The third involves controlled rather than automatic processing of information. That is, some tasks require more processing effort than others. A person may perform two tasks at the same time, particularly if one requires automatic processing (low attention). It is more difficult to perform two tasks if both require controlled processing (high attention). The fourth involves the process of coordination among competing stimuli and responses. Attention must be established, maintained, discontinued, and redirected in order to perform different actions.

Tomlin and Villa (1994) propose a model of attention in language learning that is based on research conducted in the fields of cognitive psychology and neuroscience. According to them, attention involves alertness, orientation, and detection. Alertness is an overall, general readiness to deal with incoming stimuli and is related to motivation. Orientation is responsible for directing attention resources to particular sensory information and is related to some input enhancement techniques in L2 tasks. Detection refers to the 'cognitive registration of sensory stimuli' (Tomlin and Villa 1994:192), and both alertness and orientation enhance the likelihood of detection. The three distinguishing features of Tomlin and Villa's model are: (1) the three functions of attention are separable; (2) detection is the most important subsystem of attention for language processing, and alertness and orientation are not required for detection; and (3) detection without awareness (i.e. preconscious registration) is possible, and thus awareness can be dissociated from attention. This suggests that awareness is not required for any of the three functions of attention (Truscott, 1998). The relationship between L2 proficiency and attention allocation has been investigated in the framework of the information processing theory (e.g. McLaughlin et al., 1983; Nation and McLaughlin 1986; Bialystok 1988, 1993, 1994; Hulstijn, 1990). Among them, Bialystok has extensively explored the relationship between learners' selective attention in L2 input processing and their proficiency in the target language.

Bialystok's (1993, 1994) model distinguishes two dimensions: the analysis dimension (related to mental representation) and the control dimension (related to executive procedures). Learner's L2 proficiency develops in accordance with the change in their knowledge representation from unanalyzed to analyzed states, and with a change in levels of control of selective attention from lower to higher levels. Of particular interest is the control dimension of the model. Bialystok's model predicts that learners with higher proficiency can allocate processing resources more efficiently than those with lower proficiency. In other words, advanced learners have at their disposal more automatized basic linguistic skills, which allow them to allocate more attention resources to more difficult tasks (Nation and McLaughlin, 1986). By specifically referring to the development of pragmatic competence, Bialystok (1993) proposes that more proficient learners are able to give selective attention to the target pragmatic features more accurately (and faster) than less proficient learners (Hassall 1997; House, 1996). The information processing model thus suggests that proficiency is among the essential determinants of learners' attention allocation in processing L2 pragmatic input.

B. Awareness

Awareness is an individual's subjective experience of a stimulus or cognitive content. Just as there are conditions on attention, so there are on the ability to notice target language features. Ellis (1993a) said that explicit knowledge prompted by grammar instruction can facilitate learners' intake, serving as an advance organizer but not feeding directly into the implicit knowledge system unless the learner is developmentally ready for it. He stated that explicit knowledge is a conscious representation which is not the same as articulated knowledge (Ellis, 1993a:93). The important issue is not just whether learners can make use of metalinguistic information in the form of rules and corrections provided by teachers, but whether awareness is differentially stimulated by oral or written language, by reference or not, by single or multiple sensory modes, by timing, by different social arrangements, by formal or functional activities involving a focus on L2 input or reflection on input (Long, 1991; Stern, 1992; Harley, 1993). Allport (1988) states that three conditions are necessary for a person to be aware of a given experience. First, the person must show a behavioral or cognitive change as a result of experience. For example, a learner might begin using *-ed* endings as a result of having been exposed to input that targets the past tense. Second, the person must report that he / she was aware of the experience at the time it took place. For example, the learner might report having been aware of *-ed* endings in the verbs at the time of exposure. Finally the person must be able to describe the experience. For example, the learner must be able to articulate the morphological rule underlying the regular past tense. Battista (1987) & Bowers (1984) have proposed that we should know different levels of awareness. The issues of learning without awareness refer to awareness at a higher level, like awareness of a rule or generalization. Philosophers distinguish between a lower level of consciousness and a higher level of consciousness. The first is an awareness of immediate events that need not spill over into the generalized kind of consciousness with which we humans are so familiar, a type of consciousness shared with many organisms (Edelman, 1989). The second includes the ability to know about one's self (self consciousness) as well as to reason about the contents of primary consciousness, which may be a uniquely human attribute (Edelman, 1989; Pinker, 1992).

Consciousness as awareness embraces noticing which is the registration of the stimulus event in conscious awareness and subsequent storage in long term (Schmidt 1994: 179) and requires of the learner a conscious apprehension and awareness of input (Schmidt, 2001:26). To understand the role of awareness in learning, Paradis (1994) identifies two types of knowledge. The first is implicit knowledge, which is acquired without awareness, unavailable to conscious memory even after competence and put to use spontaneously without conscious control (e.g., linguistic competence). The second is explicit knowledge, which is knowledge that the learner is aware of and can access on demand (e.g., linguistic competence). Schmidt (1990) argues that learners have to pay some kind of attention to language forms in order for the acquisition of accuracy. Consciousness – raising in one term, according to Andrews (2007), which has come to the fore in relation to reassessment of the role of consciousness – raising and explicit knowledge of grammar in L2 acquisition. Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) believe that consciousness – raising activities are those which are on a continuum range from the intensive promotion of conscious awareness via the articulation of pedagogical rules through to exposing the learner to special grammatical phenomena. Considering the subjects' satisfaction with being informed of their mistakes observed by the researcher, language teachers are suggested to try to increase the learners' attention to any kinds of the forms which will improve their fluency and accuracy. Andrews (2007) confirm that consciousness – raising places significant demands on the L2 teacher's language awareness. Consciousness – raising tasks are designed to cater to explicit learning. They are intended to develop awareness at the level of understanding (Ellis, 2003, p.162). Therefore, the designed outcome of a consciousness – raising task is awareness of how some linguistic features work. He adds that the rational for the use of consciousness – raising tasks draws on the role of explicit knowledge as a facilitator for the acquisition of implicit knowledge.

C. Intentionality

Intentionality refers to desires, beliefs and other propositional attitudes. It is pertinent to the notion of creature – consciousness; that is, people are capable of having desires, aims, beliefs while stones, planets, and computers are not. Hatch (1983) argues that learners intend to learn only to converse and interact and learn grammar in the process. Krashen (1989) has reviewed the evidence supporting incidental approaches to the teaching of spelling and vocabulary, arguing that extensive reading is as effective as focused study, although intentional subjects generally do somewhat better than incidental subjects in controlled studies. Various theorists in applied linguistics have argued that intentional and incidental learning do result in different knowledge types. Paradis argues that incidental acquisition of grammar leads to an implicit competence that is used automatically, while deliberate learning leads only to explicit knowledge that is not available for automatic use. The incidental learning can make heavier demands on individual learner's prior knowledge and skill, leading to greater diversity of outcomes than an intentionally-oriented instructional approach that is designed to preorganize the language data and the learning tasks.

D. Control

Learning a second language is like learning to drive a car: it has both a skill aspect and a knowledge aspect. In early stages, learners are aware of using mental translation, trying to remember paradigms they have been taught in class and grouping for words and structures to express their intentions. As learning progresses, there is a gradual shift to a stage in which more attention is devoted to what one wants to say, with the process of grammaticization becoming more and more automatic. Another aspect of control in language use is evident in code-switching. There are cases in which bilingual speakers control their choice of language, but there are other times when learners have no conscious reason for speaking one language rather than another, do not control their switches and are not aware of which language they are speaking. The activation of new knowledge in language processing may involve conscious mental effort and an important pedagogical issue is how to facilitate the transition from highly controlled processing to the point of relative automaticity. The other point is how to match the processing requirements of different kinds of tasks not only with the learners' level of skill, but also with the learning goals concerned. Language teaching should avoid placing undue processing demands on learners and it may be that the application of some mental effort is facilitative in language learning as is stated by Tomasello and Herron (1989):

A teaching approach which makes few control demands on the L2 learner is not necessarily conducive to continued L2 progress. Once learning reaches the stage of automaticity, it may become less accessible to conscious control and therefore resistant to change (Mc Laughlin, Ross and McLeod, 1983). Many theories like the Shiffrin and Schneider (1977) theory of the development from controlled to automatic processing, the notion of restructuring (Mc Laughlin, 1990b), and Anderson's account of the mechanisms responsible for the transition from declarative to procedural knowledge (Anderson, 1989) state that spontaneous performance derives from an earlier stage of consciously guided performance.

Baddeley (1976) argues that a continuum of consciousness mediates our selection of input and that it ranges from being a largely unconscious process to a highly conscious one. Once we have selectively attended to informative stimuli, our subsequent storage decision can range from a quick perusal with immediate forgetting or a highly conscious attempt to remember the stimuli. Schmidt (1990) proposed that conscious cognitive effort involving the subjective experience of noticing is a necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake in SLA. Schmidt's noticing hypothesis was the theoretical motivation for subsequent research efforts, both in laboratory experiments (Hulstijn and Dekeyser, 1997) and in the classroom, into the role of consciousness in SLA. The primary conscious involvement in

SLA is the explicit learning involved in the initial registration of pattern recognizers for constructions that are then tuned and integrated in to the system by implicit learning during subsequent input processing. Explicit memories can guide the conscious building of novel linguistic utterances through processes of analogy. Formulas, slot – and – frame patterns, drills, and declarative pedagogical grammar rules all contribute to the conscious creation of utterances whose subsequent usage promotes implicit learning and proceduralization. It is the results of thinking that come to consciousness, not thinking itself, but consciousness then broadcasts these results throughout the brain to the vast array of our unconscious sources of knowledge (Ellis, 2005).

VI. CONCLUSION

Some level of consciousness is necessary for second language acquisition. The review presented in this paper on consciousness has certainly important implications in SLA. Consciousness provides an opportunity to unite useful concepts from cognitive psychology in SLA. Research on the general nature of learning including work on its relations to consciousness, forms an important source of information and ideas, a source the SLA theory cannot afford to ignore. Throughout the discussion, we stated that conscious awareness of language is a necessary condition for its acquisition. We reviewed the four concepts of consciousness: (a) consciousness as attention. It claims that learning without some form of attention is not possible; (b) consciousness as awareness. It says that conscious awareness of language is necessary if learners want to use it appropriately; (c) consciousness as intentionality. It deals with the distinction between intentional and incidental L2 learning; and (d) consciousness as control. It says that automatic, fluent output processing should not be under full conscious control. And finally, it is concluded that consciousness and language are inextricably interconnected; the development of one goes in hand with the development of the other.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Alizadeh, Ahmadi, Babaei, and Khazaei for their extensive and insightful discussions.

REFERENCES

- [1] Anderson, J. R. (1989). Practice, working memory, and the ACT theory of skill acquisition: a comment on Carlson, Sullivan, and Schneider. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 15, 527 – 530.
- [2] Andrews, S. (2007). Teacher language awareness. Cambridge: CUP.
- [3] Baddeley, A. (1976). The psychology of memory. New York: Basic Books.
- [4] Battista, J. (1978). The science of consciousness. In K. Pope and J. Singer (Eds.). *The stream of consciousness. Scientific investigation into the flow of human experience* (pp. 55 – 87). New York: Plenum Press.
- [5] Bawers, K. (1984). On being unconsciously influenced and informed. In K. Bowers and D. Meichenbaum (Eds.), *The unconscious reconsidered* (pp.227 – 272). New York: Wiley.
- [6] Bialystock, E. (1981a). The role of linguistic knowledge in second language use. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 4, 31- 45.
- [7] Bialystock, E. (1988). 'Psycholinguistic dimensions of second language proficiency' in W. Rutherford and M. Sharwood Smith (eds): *Grammar Second Language Teaching*. New York: Newbury House, pp. 31 – 50.
- [8] Bialystock, E. (1993). 'Symbolic representation and attentional control in pragmatic competence' in G. Kasper and S. Blum – Kulka (eds): *Interlanguage pragmatics*. New York: Oxford University Press, pp.43 – 57.
- [9] Bialystock, E. (1994). Analysis and control in the development of second language proficiency: *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16: 157 – 68.
- [10] Bruner, L. (1986). Actual minds, possible words. Cambridge, M. A: Harvard University Press.
- [11] Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). Flow: The psychology of optimal experience. New York: Harper & Row.
- [12] Curran T., & keele., S. W. (1993). Attentional and nonattentional forms of sequence learning. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 19, 189 – 202.
- [13] Edelman, G. (1989). The remembered present. New York: Basic books.
- [14] Ellis, R. (1993a). The structural syllabus and second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly* 27, 91 – 113.
- [15] Ellis, R. (2003). Task – based language learning and teaching. Oxford: OUP.
- [16] Ellis, N. C. (2005). 'At the interface: Dynamic interactions of explicit and implicit language knowledge', *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27, 305 – 352.
- [17] Fotos, S. & Ellis, R. (1991). Communicating about grammar: a task – based approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25, 605 – 628.
- [18] Goswami, A. (1993). The Self-Aware Universe. New York: Jeremy P. Tarcher/Putnam.
- [19] Harley, B. (1993). Instructional strategies and SLA in early French immersion. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 245 – 259.
- [20] Hassall, T. J. (1997). Requests by Australian learners of Indonesian. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Australian National University, Canberra.
- [21] Hatch, E. (1983). Psycholinguistics: A second language perspective. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- [22] House, J. (1996). 'Developing pragmatic fluency in English as a foreign language; Routines and metapragmatic awareness.' *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18: 225 – 52.
- [23] Hulstijn, J. H. (1990). A comparison between the information – processing and the analysis / control approaches to language learning.' *Applied Linguistics* 11: 30 – 45.

- [24] Hulstijn, J. & Dekeyser, R. (eds.): 1997. 'Testing SLA theory in the research laboratory.' *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 2.
- [25] Krashen, S. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- [26] Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. London: Pergamon.
- [27] Krashen, S. D. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *Modern Language Journal*, 73, 440 – 64.
- [28] Leow, R. P. (1997). Attention, awareness, and foreign language behavior. *Language Learning*, 47: 467 – 505.
- [29] Leow, R. P. (2000). A study of the role of awareness in foreign language behavior. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 22: 557 – 584.
- [30] Long, M. H. (1991). Focus on form: a design feature in language teaching methodology. In de bot, K., Ginsberg, R.B., and Kramsch, C., editors, *Foreign language research in cross – cultural perspective*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- [31] Mc Laughlin, B. (1990b). Reconstructing. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 113 – 128.
- [32] Mc Laughlin, B., & Rossman, T., & McLeod, B. (1983). Second language learning: An information – processing perspective. *Language Learning*, 33, 135 – 57.
- [33] Miller, p. (1985). Metacognition and attention. In D. Forest Pressley, G. Mackinnon and T. Waller (eds.), *Metacognition, Cognition, and Human Performance*. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.
- [34] Nation, R. & McLaughlin, B. (1986). 'Novices and experts: An information processing approach to the good language learner problem', *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 7: 41- 56.
- [35] Nissen, M., & Bullmer, P. (1987). Attentional requirements of learning: Evidence from performance measures. *Cognitive Psychology*, 19, 1 – 32.
- [36] Paradis, M. (1994). Neurolinguistic aspects of implicit and explicit memory: Implication for bilingualism and SLA. In N. Ellis (ed.), *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp. 393 – 420). New York: Academic Press.
- [37] Pienemann, M. (1984). Psychological constraints on the teachability of languages. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 6, 186-214.
- [38] Posner, M. I., & Rothbart, M. K. (1991). Attentional mechanisms and conscious experience. In D. Milner and M. Rugg (Eds.) *The neuropsychology of consciousness* (pp. 911 – 111) San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- [39] Robinson, P. (1996). *Consciousness, Rules, and Instructed Second Language Acquisition: Theoretical Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Peter Lang Publishing Inc.
- [40] Robinson, P. (2003). Attention and memory during SLA. In C.J. Doughty & M. Long (eds.). *The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*. pp. 631- 678. Oxford: Blackwell.
- [41] Rosa, E. (1999). A cognitive approach to task – based research: Explicitness, awareness, and L2 development. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Georgetown University, Washington. D.C.
- [42] Rosa, E. & O'Neill, M. D. (1999). Explicitness, intake, and the issue of awareness: Another piece of the puzzle. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21: 511 – 556.
- [43] Rutherford, W. (1987). *Second language grammar: learning and teaching*. London: Longman.
- [44] Rutherford, W., & Sharwood Smith, M. (1985). Consciousness-raising and universal grammar. *Applied Linguistics*, 6(3), 274 – 282.
- [45] Schmidt, R. 1994. Deconstruction Consciousness in Search of Useful Definition for Applied Linguistics. *Aila Review*. 11.11-26.
- [46] Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11: 129 - 158.
- [47] Schmidt, R. W. & Frota, S. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case – study of an adult learner. In R. Day (ed.) *Talking to Learn*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.
- [48] Schmidt, R. W. (1993). Awareness and second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 13: 206 – 226.
- [49] Schmidt, R. W. (1994). Implicit learning and the cognitive unconscious: of artificial grammars and SLA. In Ellis, N.C., editor, *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*. London: Academic Press.
- [50] Schmidt, R. W. (1995a). Attention and awareness in foreign language learning. Honolulu, HI: Second language teaching and curriculum center, University of Hawai'i.
- [51] Schmidt, R. W. (1995b). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In Schmidt, R. (Ed.) *Attention and Awareness in Foreign Language Learning* (pp. 165). Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- [52] Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (ed.) *Cognition and second language instruction*, pp. 3 – 32. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [53] Sharwood Smith, M. (1981). Consciousness – raising and the second language learner. *Applied Linguistics*, 7, 239 – 256.
- [54] Scovel, T. (1991). Attention, appreciation, awareness, and acquisition. Paper presented at the Thai TESOL Eleventh Annual Convention, Bangkok.
- [55] Sharwood Smith, M. (1991). Speaking to many minds: on the relevance of different types of language information for the L2 learner. *Second Language Research*, 7, 118 – 132.
- [56] Shiffrin, R. M., & Schneider, W. (1977). Controlled and automatic human information processing I: perceptual learning, automatic attending, and a general theory. *Psychological Review*, 84, 127 – 90.
- [57] Stern, H. H. (1992). Issues and options in language teaching. P. Allen and B. Harley (eds.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [58] Strozer, J. (1994). *Language Acquisition After Puberty*. Washington: Georgetown University Press.
- [59] Tomusello, M. & Herron, C. (1989). Feed back for language transfer errors: the garden path technique. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 11, 385 – 395.
- [60] Tomlin, R., & Villa, U. (1994). Attention in cognitive science and second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16, 183 - 203.
- [61] Truscott, J. (1998). 'Noticing in second language acquisition: A critical review'. *Second Language Research*, 14: 103 – 35.
- [62] Vander Heijden, A. H. C. (1992). *Selective attention in vision*. London: Routledge.
- [63] Van Lier, L. (1991). Inside the classroom: learning processes and teaching procedures. *Applied Language Learning*, 2, 29 – 68.

- [64] Vimal, R. L. P. (2010b). On the Quest of Defining Consciousness. [Longer version is available at <http://sites.google.com/site/rlpvimal/Home/2010-Vimal-DefineC-LVCR-3-2.pdf>]. Forthcoming in Mind and Matter.
- [65] Vygotsky, L. S. (1962). Thought and Language. Cambridge, MA: MT.
- [66] Wertsch, J. V. (1985). Vygotsky and the social formation of mind. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.



Abbas Pourhosein Gilakjani is a Ph.D. student of SLL at Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia. He is also a faculty member of English Translation Department at Islamic University of Lahijan, Iran. He has taught English courses for over 11 years at 3 open universities in Guilan, Iran.

Seyedeh Masoumeh Ahmadi received her B.A. degree from Islamic Azad University of Lahijan, Iran. She will start her education in M.A. in Computer Network at Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia 5 months later.

Conceptual Structure and the Interpretation of Some Polysemous Verbs in a Few Specific Verses in Holy Qura'n: Jackendoff's Semantic Theory (1990)

Atef Mustafa Jalabneh

Department of English, Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia
Email: shalabi61@yahoo.com

May F. Al-Shaikli

Department of English and Translation, Faculty of Arts, Al-Isra National University, Jordan

Abstract—The objective of this work is to decompose the semantic primes of the polysemous verb *ṭagha* 'transgressed' and *qatala* 'killed' in some verses of Holy Qura'n in a new manner with reference to Jackendoff's (1990) Semantic Theory. The researchers make use of the conceptual level to specify their conceptual structures and translate them correctly and then match the semantic compositions available with their syntactic counterparts with reference to Argument Structure Theory. The two levels of representations are linked by Semantic Projection Rules to determine the exact meaning intended in translation at the Logical Form. The researchers compare the interpretable as well as incorporated semantic features of the verbs in the verses with other situations in which the verb are used. Discrepancies in meanings because of polysemy will be taken care of with reference to the Theories of Argument Fusion and Incorporation. Semantic primes are represented at first by syntactic axioms and then fused into semantic concepts, namely, Thing, Event, State, Action, Place, Path, Property, Amount and Affect. These concepts lead to derive the final version of the wanted meaning for the verbs at LF. The researchers provided better versions of translation different from those already given by Palmer (1942), Dawood (1965), Khan (1970), Arberry (1980), Piekthel (1982) and Al-Hilali and Khan (1996).

Index Terms—conceptual structure, argument structure, incorporation, argument fusion, constituent, representations, components

I. INTRODUCTION

Yule (2006, p. 107) has defined the term polysemy as "one form (written or spoken) having multiple meanings that are all related by extension". For instance, in English the word 'head' is used in different situations to refer to (i) the head of human body, (ii) top of glass of beer, (iii) a person at the top of a company or department and many other things. It is evident that there will be a single entry with a numbered list of the different meanings of that word.

A number of international prominent translators have tried to make use of the theory of polysemy as a module to translate verses from holy Qura'n in an attempt to give accurate interpretation easy to be understood by non- Arab speakers. Their work suffers a lot of deficiencies due to the following reasons: (i) translators such as Palmer (1942), Khan (1970), Arberry (1980), Piekthel (1982) and Al-Hilali and Khan (1996) are non native speakers of Arabic and have various cultural backgrounds, which have led to negative results in the translation of certain verses of Holy Qur'an. (ii) The discrepancies in their cultural perspectives made translation of the verses so hard to elicit covert meanings of such verbs involved. In short, they focused merely on the translation of meaning of the Holy Qur'an and do not get involved in other matters.

II. THE TRADITIONAL VIEWS

The translators focused on the surface representations in stead of paying attention to other relevant factors that play a crucial role in translation, namely, the underlying meaning. They based their translation on the nature of the verbs insofar the transitivity theory is concerned. For the convenient of the analysis, the researchers start with the verse in (1):

1. fa?mma man ṭagha
then, for such as had transgressed all bounds
'Then, for such as had transgressed all bounds.'
(Holy Qura'n; 1405 h, p. 1894, p. verse 37)

The verse in (1) has been translated by a number of translators in different ways. For instance, Dawood (1956, p. 52) translated it as [Those that transgressed], Sale (1877, p. 569) as [And who shall have transgressed], Rodwell (1978, p. 49) as [Then, as for him who hath transgressed]. A look at their analysis shows that the verb *tagha* 'transgressed' is used as an intransitive because there is no direct complement after the verb neither it shows the sense of an offence by violating a law. In other words, the violators are sinners. In contrast, Ali (1993, p.1565) translated the same verse as [then, for such as he has indeed transgressed all bounds]; he used the same verb as transitive due to the overt occurrence of the argument object 'all bounds' at the syntactic level. Though he tried to be more accurate than others; still, the meaning is incomplete due to the fact that the complement 'all bounds' does not specify what kind of boundaries or limits the transgressors have crossed nor show whether the bounds are realistic or abstract. Others such as Ali (1955, p. 603), Khan (1970, p. 603) and Piekthel (1982, p. 605) have translated the verse as [Then, as for him who rebels / rebelled]. The meaning of *tagha* is used in the sense of the verb *yathuuur* 'to rebel'. This verb, in Arabic, means one leads a revolution against a leader or any form of high authority for a change but definitely not god. You can say [*thaara al- jaishu 'ala al-qaa?idi* 'The army rebelled against the leader'] but not [*thaara al -musii?u 'ala rabbi-hi* 'The transgressor rebelled against God']. This meaning can never be adhered to *tagha* because one can defy a person but cannot stand in an enemy position with God because he is non- materialistic. Likewise in English, the verb 'rebel' means to renounce the authority of the law and government to which one owes allegiance or to take up arms and openly oppose the government. Thus, God is a power that cannot be embodied in a humanistic vision to be taken action against. In short, their perception of translation was inadequate due to misunderstanding of determining the best equivalent for *tagha*. Palmer (1942, p. 515), Ali (1963, p.1141) and Arberry (1980) have translated the verse as [Then, as for him who is outrageous, inordinate / insolent]. Their forms of translation do not even imply the verb *tagha* and is replaced by the adjectives 'outrageous, inordinate and insolent' respectively. It is evident that the translators had used a pragmatic nuisance of the verb but of course it is incomplete. In short, the inadequacy of the translation of all the writers above took place due to the diversity of polysemous meaning the verb *tagha* has.

III. PROBLEMS FACED WITH THIS VERB

The above analysis involves a number of shortcomings because the verb *tagha* involves polysemous related meanings. Problems take place in their translation due to the followings:

- (i). Their translation based solely on the syntactic structure meaning without taking into account the conceptual-structure in which incorporated and deleted arguments that play a vital role in determining the exact meaning roaming in mind of the native speaker of Arabic that may contribute to better understanding of the verse.
- (ii). The translators did not pay attention in translating the verse to the context of situation [place and time], or the occasion in which the verse itself was said or its relation to other verses in the surah. In other words, they focused on the associated not on the contextual meaning.

IV. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Chomsky (1986, p. 23-46) divided the term 'language' into External-Language and Internal-Language. The focus of study is on the latter as it characterizes the system of knowledge of language attained and internally represented in the mind. It purports to depict exactly what one knows about a language: that is what has been acquired and learned by innate principles.

Jackendoff (1990, p. 7-25) has adopted the term I- language and made it possible to explain the notion of concept in relation to semantic components and argued that it is a physical objects in the mind of a person rather than it is a concrete object in one's hand. He argued that syntactic rules alone are insufficient to mirror concepts of the mind; rather a speaker potential repertoire of syntactic structure must be mentally encoded in terms of a finite set of primitives and a finite set of principles of combination that collectively describe and generate the class of possible sentences. While interpreting an entity, say a verb, a language user is taken to be creating or invoking a mental information structure, the syntactic structure of a verb must be compatible with its conceptual semantic structure of the same verb. The researchers may argue that internal concepts must be mentally generated on the basis of finite set of primitives and principles of combination; likewise, lexical concepts must consist of finite schemas that can be creatively compared and rule governed. X- Bar semantics has been proposed to mirror the conceptual categories into reality (p. 22-25). The basic formation rule for such categories stated in (1):

$$2. \quad \text{Entity} \quad - \quad \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Event / thing / place / . . .} \\ \text{Token / Type} \\ \text{F (< Entity1 <Entity2 <Entity3 >)} \end{array} \right]$$

The model in (2) decomposes each conceptual constituent into three basic feature complexes: (i) the argument features allow for recursion of conceptual structure and hence an infinite class of possible concepts. (ii) The major syntactic phrases correspond to major conceptual constituent as in XP correspond to [Entity]. (iii) The basic correspondence of syntactic and conceptual argument structure can be formalized as a general correspondence rule of the form (3):

3. XP corresponds to [Entity].

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc} X^0 & & \\ \text{-----} & YP & ZP \end{array} \right] \text{ correspond to } \left[\begin{array}{cccc} \text{Entity} & & & \\ F & E1 & E2 & E3 \end{array} \right]$$

(Jackendoff, 1990, p. 25)

Here X^0 stands for any lexical item whose complements are optionally YP and ZP.

Jackendoff (1990, p. 43-46) has proposed that the innate formation rules for conceptual structure include a repertoire of major conceptual categories regarded as the semantic parts of speech. These categories include entities such as Thing, innate formation rules for conceptual structures which include a repertoire of major conceptual categories namely semantic parts of speech. These categories include entities as Thing, Event, State, Action, Place, Path, Property and Amount. Each of these entities can be elaborated into a function argument organization of general form in the schema (3). Within the constraint of this schema, each category permits a variety of more specific elaborations, which can be stated as a specialized formation rules. Some of the most important ones for the spatial domain primary of our analysis appear in (4):

4.

a. [PLACE] – [place PLACE-FUNCTION ([THING])]

b. [PATH] – $\left[\begin{array}{c} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{TO} \\ \text{FROM} \\ \text{TOWARD} \\ \text{AWAY-FROM} \\ \text{VIA} \end{array} \right\} \left(\left(\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{THING} \\ \text{PLACE} \end{array} \right\} \right) \right) \end{array} \right]$
Path

c. [EVENT] – $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} [\text{Event GO } ([\text{THING}], [\text{PATH}])] \\ [\text{Event STAY } ([\text{THING}], [\text{PLACE}])] \\ \text{Event INCH } ([\text{State} \quad \quad]) \end{array} \right\}$

d. [STATE] – $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} [\text{State BE } ([\text{THING}], [\text{PLACE}])] \\ [\text{State ORIENT } ([\text{THING}], [\text{PATH}])] \\ [\text{State EXT } ([\text{THING}], [\text{PATH}])] \end{array} \right\}$

e. [EVENT] – $\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{Event} \quad \text{CAUSE} \quad \left(\left(\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{THING} \\ \text{EVENT} \end{array} \right\} \right) \right) \quad [\text{EVENT}] \end{array} \right]$

(4a) illustrates that a conceptual constituent belongs to the category Place can be elaborated as a place- function plus an argument that belongs to the category Thing. The argument serves as a spatial reference as in the expression [*under the table*]; *the table* designates a reference object and the preposition *under* expresses a place- function that maps *the table* into the region beneath it. (4b) elaborates a Path as one of five functions that maps a reference Thing or Place into a related trajectory; for instance, [*in the house*]. (4c) elaborates that the category Event can be elaborated as either of the two Event- functions GO, STAY or INCH one and two of which take two arguments. The arguments of Go, which denotes motion along a path, are the Thing in motion and the Path it traverses; for instance, [*Bill went to New York*]. The arguments of STAY, which denotes stasis over a period of time, are the Thing standing still and its location, as in [*Bill stayed in the kitchen*]. The expansion of Inch is to cover State as in [*the light is red*]. (4d) gives three State- functions: (i), BE, is used for specifying the location of objects as in [*the dog is in the park*]; (ii) ORIENT, for specifying the orientation of objects as in [*the sign points toward New York*]; (iii) EXT, for spatial extension of linear objects along a path as in [*the road goes from New York to San Francisco*]. (4e) elaborates an Event as the Event – function CAUSE plus two arguments. (i) If a Thing, it is an agent as in [*John opened the door*] and if an Event, it is a cause as in [*the door opened*] (ii) if an Event, it is the Effect as in [*he drank*].

A. The New Perspective

The researchers try to solve the above problems with reference to Jackendoff's (1990, p. 7-37) theory of semantic structure. The researchers use categories such as entities as Thing, Event, State, Action, Place, Path, Property and Amount to translate the verbs in question. The researchers argue that these terms do not convey their literal meaning in translation; but, in stead, they reflect conceptual concepts, which accurately build up the intended meaning at LF.

In order to come up with plausible solutions for the abovementioned inadequacies in translation, the researcher propose the following hypothesis:

B. The Hypothesis

Each lexical entity X in a sentence has both syntactic as well as a conceptual meaning. The translated meaning must be the result of mapping the conceptual with the syntactic meaning by semantic rules. The conceptual structure detremines the meaning of the syntactic structure but not vice versa.

Before the researchers start analyzing the same verse, the concept of argument fusion is discussed as the basic machinery for relating arguments in the conceptual structure to arguments in syntax though they are not visible at the

the Thing which is co-indexed with external argument as they are identical. The Place- function is specified by the preposition AT and the Property 'atheist'. The fourth function specified as event-function is represented by the NP Thing *cadhaaban* 'chastisement' and the PP *cala man* 'on a person' which are also semantically selected at the conceptual level. The researchers may argue that the entity Thing is identical in all the projections and bears the unique co-indexation [i]. They argue that the projected constituents, excluding the external argument, are semantically "implicit arguments" at the conceptual structure and must be translated at the LF representations though they are not syntactically at the syntactic structure.

The question arises here: how do the researchers decide the ultimate form of translation of this verse at LF either for the benefit of research, or the readers as proposed in the hypothesis? The researchers argue that the translated meaning is decided by mapping the conceptual structure representations with the syntactic ones by referring to the following steps: (i) thematic roles such as Agent and Theme...etc are particular structural positions but with conceptual content, (ii) theta marking amounts to establishing a correspondence relation between the syntactic and conceptual arguments of a verb and formalize the co-indexing conventions, (iii) the argument fusion theory is used to integrate the readings of the syntactic complements and subjects with indexed argument positions in the conceptual structure of the head, (iv) the selectional restrictions are the conceptual information that a head supplies within an indexed conceptual constituent and (v) mapping between the conceptual structure and syntactic structure using the mechanism implicit argument in Jackendoff's terms as the last step.

Thus, the verb *tagha* is expressed as follows: the Go-function needs the theta role of agent to be assigned to the argument man 'those who', the theta role of location is assigned to the PP *huduudu allahi* 'the religious limits of God' in which the theta role of agent is meant for *allah* 'God' and the theta role of theme for *huduudu allahi* 'the limits of God'. The State – function has the theta role of experiencer assigned to the argument man 'those who' due to the effect of the predicative adjective *kaafiran* 'atheist'. The event function is assigned the theta role of theme to *cadhaaban* 'chastisement' and the theta role of location to the PP *cala man* 'on a person'. The second step is to match the syntactic with the conceptual arguments of the same verb. This process is done by co-indexation; the subject man of the matrix and the co-coordinated sentence carries the sign [i] as they are identical. However, the PP carries [j] as it refers to *allahi*. The third step is to integrate the syntactic complements with the subjects by the argument fusion. The subjects represented by the argument Thing in Go- function, State –function, and the complement objects of *fi* 'at' and *cala* are fused by man 'person' and the Path – function is fused by *cala huddudi allaahi*. The fourth step is to match the lexical verb *tagha* with the selected arguments semantically before being incorporated. The verb constituent- selects a subject as external argument and its semantic features are an adult and are able to commit either a sin or a virtue. It also semantically selects in specific the PP *cala huddudi allaahi*, the resultative clause *yuşbihi kaafiran* 'to become atheist' because the subject violates the limits of God and the eventive clause *cadhaaban cala man* 'chastisement on a person' as the sinner receives the punishment. The last step is the result of the process in which we end up with the syntactic structure; this is due to the mechanism of incorporation. The verb *tagha* is an intransitive, in Arabic, but at the conceptual structure it semantically selects a PP, CLAUSE1 and CLAUSE2. It has the ability to incorporate the two arguments at the syntactic level and still makes the sentence grammatical as in (6a). In short, though the arguments are not necessary to be overt at LF; still, they constitute the meaning of not only the verb form *tagha* but also its adjective form *taaghiyah* 'tyrant'; otherwise, the meaning of the verb in this verse can be variable and some other verbs can be used in the same context such as *tajaawaza* 'surpass' *tacadda* 'trespass' and *takhaṭa* 'cross'.

The mechanism of incorporation is of a great significance in translation in this fashion though such features are not visible at the syntactic level but necessary for the understanding of the required material. The researchers may look at (7) from English to prove the point.

7a. John ate an apple.

7b. John ate marble.

7c. John ate.

(7a) and (7b) illustrate that the objects 'an apple' and 'marble' are specified referents; however, in (7c) the referent is only 'a full meal' but not 'an apple' or 'marble' in particular. So, if (7c) is translated into Arabic, it is as [*?akala zaidun* 'Zaid ate']; it means the same as its equivalent English counterpart because the object is covert. Thus, the translator will not interpret the absorbed argument 'a full meal' which, in fact, compulsory contributes to the grammaticality of the sentence at all levels since *?akala* is a transitive verb and overtly needs an edible object. If we compare (7c) with (6e), the point of analysis is identical. The verb *tagha* is [+transitive] and needs internal arguments to be overt. However, it is translated as 'transgressed' or 'transgressed all bounds' but, in fact, it means *tajaawaza al-?insaanu al-qadr wa ?irtafac wa ghala fi al kufri wa ?istahaqa al- cadhaaba yawma al-qiyaamati* 'that who transgressed all limits of God became atheist and deserved the chastisement of God in the dooms-day'. Of course, one cannot expect the translator to write all these concepts; but, one should keep in mind that conceptually they are understood due to both the cultural specific and the religious backgrounds. Thus, translators who focused on the meaning of lexical words at the structural structure are, in fact, incomprehensive and thus their versions of translation are surely inadequate. In other words, the researchers cannot ignore the hidden semantic connotations which are more important than the only syntactic forms as the latter constitute the grammaticality of the sentence at the syntactic form. In other words, there are verbs in Arabic that can not only

syntactically absorb the internal arguments such as ?kala 'ate' but also semantically can absorb certain entities at the structural level and still construct grammatical sentences. (cf. Jalabneh 2000, p. 247-269 for theta absorption)

The researchers may look at some other nuisances of *ṭaḡha* from standard Arabic to prove that the theory of conceptual structure is fit for translation.

8a. *ṭaḡha* al- haakimu cala shacbi hi
 tyrannize det ruler over people his
 'The ruler tyrannized his people'

8b. *ṭaḡha* al- haakimu.
 tyrannize det ruler
 'The ruler tyrannized '.

In order to check the syntactic structures of (8a) and (8b), we posit the conceptual structure of (8c) and the syntactic structure (8e):

8c. [Event GO ([Thing al-haakimu 'the ruler'] i, [Path cala 'over' ([Thing shacbihi 'his people'] j [State yuṣbiḥu 'be' ([Thing [(al-haakimu 'the ruler']i [Place fi 'at' ([Property mutaṣalliḥan / ṭaaghyah 'tyrant']i))]))]].

8d. syntactic structure

ṭaḡha 'tyrannized'

V

----- NP (external), PP and S (internal)

[Event GO ([Thing], [Path])].

NP

([Thing])

cala 'over'

P

----- NP

[Path OVER ([Thing])].

yuṣbiḥu 'be'

S

----- AP

[State BE ([Thing] [Place ([Property] i))].

In (8a) the verb *ṭaḡha* 'tyrannize' is an intransitive verb and it semantically takes the PP *cala shacbi hi* 'over his people' as its internal complement at the conceptual level. In (8b) the verb absorbs the same complement PP at the syntactic structure. It is evident that (8b) is correct though the complement PP is not syntactically covert. This is because it not selected in syntax. Thus, syntactic structure alone does not solve the problem of meaning if we rely on the structural interpretations of this verb. Also, this level cannot tell us about other relevant arguments that contribute to the LF meaning; it is due to these deficiencies we opt for the conceptual structure theory to overcome such faults. Thus (8c) specifies every single concept that formalizes the meaning of the verb *ṭaḡha*. The verb means 'tyrannize' is another nuisance of the verb; but this time it is related to the legal human rights. It semantically selects the PP *cala shacbi hi* 'over his people' and the embedded clause *yuṣbiḥu ṭaaghyah* 'be a tyrant'. These semantic facts are visible at the conceptual structure and are very specific in Arabic as they not only depict the meaning of *ṭaḡha* but also the adjective *ṭaaghyah* 'tyrant'. In this case, they determine the needed meaning at LF. In short, the verb *ṭaḡha* in (8c) cannot be translated literally as 'transgressed' as in (6d) because in the former the verb has a different nuisance of meaning. The ruler violates human rights and the entity can be specified at the conceptual structure; however, in (6d) the verb *ṭaḡha* is inclined towards implying the generic sense of violation as the verse is directed to everyone who violates the limits of God; however, the verb *ṭaḡha* in (8c) specifies the meaning of being a tyrant in this structure. This is due to the fact that ruler violates the norms and the rights of humanity founded by the civil rule; otherwise, some other verbs are used but do not illustrate the same meaning of *ṭaḡha*. Such verbs are *tacdda*, *tajanna* and *tajaawaza* 'violate'. Thus, the difference between (6d) and (8c) is related to the kind of selection at the semantic level.

Other shades of meanings of the verb *ṭaḡha* found in standard Arabic are presented in the subsequent specimens (9) and (10):

9a. *ṭaḡha* al -sail cala difatay hi.
 flooded det stream over banks its
 'The stream flooded the banks'

The conceptual structure of (9a) is represented in (9b) whereas the syntactic one is shown in (9c):

9b. [Event CAUSE ([Thing al-sailu 'the stream'] i [Event GO ([Thing mai 'water']j [Path cala 'over' ([Place ([Thing difatayhi 'its banks']k)]]))]].

9c. syntactic structure

ṭaḡha 'flooded'

V

----- NP (external)

[Event CAUSE ([Thing]).

----- NP and PP (internal)

[Event GO ([Thing], [Path])].

cala 'over'

P

----- NP

[Place cala 'over' ([Thing])ujmn]. m

In (9b) the verb *ṭagha* 'flood' projects the event-CAUSE and the event – GO functions in the conceptual structure but not in the syntactic structure. This is because the verb semantically incorporates the argument *mai* 'water' which covers the banks of the stream. This argument is to be deleted after being fused in the function. Thus the possible translated meaning is that the verb *tagha* means cover with only water but nothing else. In other words, the verb cannot be related to tyranny in Arabic particularly in this context. If (9b) is compared to (10b), the verb *atghaa* made superior' is transitive and its meaning is related to superiority complex in the sense of being bad character.

10a. *atghaa hu al -maalu*
made superior him det money

'Money made him superior'

10b. [Event CAUSE ([Thing al- maalu 'money'] i [Event GO ([Thing] i[Path cala 'over [Place ([Thing hu 'him']j [State BE ([Thing]j [Place fi 'at' ([Property fawqi superior]j)]]))]])]].

10c. syntactic structure

ṭagha 'made superior'

V

----- NP (external)

[Event CAUSE ([Thing])i.

----- NP and PP (internal)

[Event GO ([Thing]i [Path [Place ([Thing]j))]].

S

----- NP, PP

[State BE ([Thing]j [Place ([Property]j))]

(10b) illustrates that the verb *tagha* 'made superior' in its new nuisance projects the event CAUSE-function in which *al- maalu* 'money' is indexed with [i]. It also projects the event- GO function which is illustrated by the identical entity [i] and the PP *cala hu* 'over him'. The embedded clause represented by the state-function implies the entity [j] and the PP *fi fawqi* 'at superior'. All the functions constitute the meaning of the verb at all levels though some of them are absorbed by the verb at LF. Thus, the native speaker of Arabic is able to recognize the difference in meaning through the conceptual concepts.

11a. *ṭaghat al - baqaratu*

shouted det cow

'The cow shouted'

(11a) is in (11b) as the conceptual structure.

11b. [Event MOVE ([Thing al-baqaratu 'the cow'])]

The verb *ṭagha* 'shouted' is a intransitive one because *al-dahik* 'laughter' is not a part of the conceptual structure of such verb. Thus, it syntactically projects only the event-move function in which is the external subject which is filled by the argument *al-baqaratu* 'the cow'. It is significant to notice that the subject must be non-human or else the sentence is ungrammatical.

12a. *ṭagha al - bahru*

rose det sea

'The sea is rough'

(Ibn- Manzoor, p. 169-170)

12b. [Event MOVE ([Thing al-bahru 'the sea'])].

(12b) shows the verb *tagha* 'rose' is intransitive and it indicates that the sea is rough due to the rise of level of water in it. Hence, it selects the move-function in which the argument is fused to the subject position. The subject is inanimate and it indicates the meaning of water level. In short, (11b) indicates the sense of shout and the subject has to be non human whereas in (12b) the sense is related to the level of water and the subject is non- animate. Thus, the verb has two different semantic connotations which should not be mixed with *ṭagha* 'became a sinner' as in (8b).

To sum up, the verb *ṭagha* in (6d) is translated in different manner due to the help of the conceptual structure theory. It is obvious the syntactic structure theory is not enough to give a complete meaning of the verb in translation because certain arguments are not visible at the syntactic form; however, the conceptual structure theory followed in this work is needed for translation at LF because not only of language specific culture features but also to specify covert meanings projected at the conceptual level. A translator cannot keep close eyes when it comes to such factors in a language. Thus, the entities *cala huduudi allahi* 'over the limits of God', *yusbihi kaafiran* 'became atheist' and *yastahiqu al- cadhaaba* 'deserves the chastisement' are taken care in the theory by mechanisms of (i) incorporation and (ii) argument fusion because they constitute the form as well as the semantic connotations of the verb in Arabic in this verse at LF. This

theory accounts for (8b) in which the same verb incorporates the arguments *cala huquuqi shacbihi* 'over his people' rights' and *yuşbihi ṭaḡhiyah* 'be a tyrant' in the conceptual meaning but cannot be neglected in translation at LF as they constitute the form of the verb in this context. In (9b), the verb *ṭaḡha* 'flooded' can cover *difatayhi* 'its flanks' only with *mai* 'water' and nothing else. These arguments are semantically visible at the conceptual level but not at the syntactic form. However, the same verb can be used in the reflexive sense of syntax and semantics as in (10b) in which the subject of the functions is fused with *hu* 'him' as the verb is causative. The adjective *fawqi* 'superior' is recovered from the verb at the structural form though it is not necessarily to be overt at the syntactic level. Hence; such theory is essential is needed to translate the verse in (6d) or else the version that relies on the syntactic structure alone is surely inadequate. Likewise, the verbs *ṭaḡha* 'shouted' in (11a) and *ṭaḡha* 'is rough' in (12a) are used in one sense as far as the constituent selection is concerned. For instance, in the former, it cannot incorporate any internal arguments as they are not selected and it has the concept of 'shout' as it is the only selected argument at the conceptual structure (cf. Jackendoff, p. 1990-90). In the latter, the verb *ṭaḡha* includes the meaning of 'rough' and illustrates the level of water in the sea; thus, such verbs in (7,9,10,11 and 12) do not include the real meaning of the verb as in (6d).

In order to test the validity of the theory of decomposition at the conceptual level and analyze more of polysemous verbs, the researchers may look at the verb *qatala* 'killed' in the verse (13):

13. *bi ai dhanbin qutila -t*
 for what crime was killed fem
 'For what crime she was killed'
fgvvvv (Holy Quran, 1405 h, p. 1906, verse 09)

The verb *qutila* has been translated by a number of translators in different nuances; for instance, Palmer (1942, p. 518), Dawood (1986, p. 17), Arberry (1980, p. 26), Pieckthel (1982, p. 609) and Khan and Al-Hilali (1996, p.1090) have given the meaning of 'slain'. Some like Ali (1955, p. 606), Ali (1963, p. 1148), Khan (1970, p. 606) and Ali (1993, p. 1607) have given the meaning 'to bring an end to someone's life'. Others like Sale (1866, p. 571) and Rodwell (1978, p. 45) have used the meaning of 'to put to death'. It is obvious that the translators almost roam around one meaning 'to bring someone's life to an end'; but what attracts the attention is that none of them was able to be specific and give exactly how the female has been killed and the reasons behind the killing in this particular context. These facts are obvious in the analysis of the conceptual structure of the predicate in the verse in which the context carries a number of religious as well as cultural facts that help us to give better understanding of the verse in translation. The researchers may first look at the verb *qatala* 'killed' in a normal Arabic sentence (14a), then shift to the analysis of the verse in which the same verb is used as in (14c) respectively.

Syntactic – Structure

- 14a. [NP *ahadun maa*] [VP *qatala al-binta*]
 one some killed det girl
 'Someone killed the girl'
 V

----- NP, PP

(14b) is the conceptual structure for the active structure (14a):

- 14b. [Event CAUSE ([Thing *ahadun maa* 'someone']i [Event GO ([Thing *al-bintu* 'the girl']j, [Path ([via [Thing *an tamuta* 'to die'])])])].

In (14b), the verb *qatala* 'killed' is decomposed into the functions event- cause in which the argument *ahadun maa* 'someone' is fused as the subject. Then, it selects the event – go function in which the object *al-bintu* 'the girl' is also fused. The path- function is posited at the structure to show that the verb causes someone's life has come to an end. This entity is covert at the syntactic level because it can be incorporated semantically. It is evident that the abovementioned translators can translate the meaning of the verb by saying 'to kill', 'to slain' and 'to put to death', of course, without a need to give the exact reason behind killing. However, if the verb is used in a verse as is the case in (13), the situation of translation is entirely different. This semantic fact is visible in the omission of the non specific agent and the reason behind killing in this particular verse. The generic meaning of the verb as 'to put to death' is insufficient because there are other semantic nuances are essential to be known and the translator has to be aware of such facts particularly when the case comes to the holy Qura'n. These facts are explicated in a clear manner in the sentence (14c).

Syntactic – Structure

V

----- NP, (PP)

- 14d. *bi ai dhanbin qutila -t*
 for what crime was killed fem
 'For what crime she was killed'

The conceptual Structure for the passive structure in (14d) is (14e):

- 14e. [Event CAUSE ([Thing *al-ʔab* 'the father']i [Event GO ([Thing *al-bintu* 'the girl']j, [Path ([Thing *ʔan tamuuta li annaha wulidat untha* 'to die alive as born a baby girl']j by [Event GO ([Thing *al-bintu* 'the girl']j [Path *fi* 'in' ([Place *al-huffrati* 'the whole'])])])])].

It is quite obvious that the specific agent *al-ʔab* 'the father' as per this analysis is fused in the subject position as the cause of killing; the reason of killing which is *ʔan tammuta li annaha wulidat untha* 'to die a live as she was born a baby girl' is fused in the path - function and the place of killing is *fi al-huffrati* 'to be buried in a whole'. Such meanings are not at all mentioned in the version of translation done by the traditional translators above. It is a fact that the decomposition of this verb in this verse shows that it has these three primary semantic notions in the conceptual structure and they are essential to be mentioned in translation; otherwise, the meaning will be generic as in (14a) which is in fact different. This is because Arabic cultural specifics impose such specific meanings to the verb which are understood by the native speaker. The researchers argue that Arabs before Islam used to bury the baby girls and keep the baby boys thinking that the former causes a shameful stigma for the father in his nomadic life. In short, one must keep in mind that not necessarily the verb *qatal* is to be treated semantically in the same manner in all the situations. In other words, the verb has generic meaning as in (14b) and very specific meaning in (14e) due to the interference of cultural and religious backgrounds.

V. CONCLUSION

As the traditional translators relied only on the information available at the syntactic structure in translating the two verses in which the verbs of polysemous meaning, namely *tagha* 'transgress', and *qutila* 'was killed' are used, their versions were insufficient. Thus, as an alternative, the researchers opted for Jackendoff's (1990) Semantic Theory in which the focus is on the content of the conceptual structure in addition to the syntactic level as well. For instance, we discovered meanings such as 'to violate the limits of God', 'tyrannize' 'made superior', 'shout' and 'is rough' in various contexts for the verb *tagha* and 'was slain' and 'to be buried alive as a baby-girl child in a whole' for the verb *qutilat* 'was killed'. To get more crucial unknown facts of the verbs, we have tested the validity of the semantic theory in translation and we have found that it is fit to be applied to Arabic religious texts. This is due to the fact that it makes use of the incorporated as well as overt semantic connotations in translation for the used verbs in the particular contexts. For instance, in (6d), the theory explains that the verb *tagha* 'violated the limits of God' engulfs specific conceptual concepts essential to be mentioned in translation. The researchers have found that the verb, in this context, has specific reference to the violation of limits of God and not to transgress all bounds as found in the traditional version. As a result of this violation, the transgressor became an atheist and due to this the person, in question, deserves God's chastisement in the doomsday. Such facts are confirmed if one has a look at the subsequent verses in the same Surat. All these entities are covert in the structure of the verse but they constitute the exact meaning of the verb at all levels; otherwise, Arabic selects to use other specific verbs such as *taʿadda* and *khaalafa* 'violate' as instances. The researchers argue that such significant meanings of *tagha* in (6d) cannot be neglected as they are crucial in translation. The researchers also argue that the meaning given by the traditional translators is merely syntactic since the object 'all bounds' satisfies the sub-categorization of the verb in question. In contrast, our version contains every single meaning in the conceptual structure and such arguments are linked to the syntactic structure by limited mechanisms, namely, argument structure, argument fusion and incorporation to be more specific. In (8c), the verb *tagha* is used in Modern Standard Arabic context; thus, it means 'to tyrannize'. The verb semantically incorporates the argument *huquuqi shaʿbihi* 'his people's rights' at the syntactic level, and due to this illegal act, the person, in question, becomes *taghiyah* 'tyrant'. Thus, the verb takes a negative religious depict of (6d). The difference between (8c) and (6d) is that in the former the verb at the conceptual level shows a kind of terrorism against human wrights but in the latter a kind of violation to Islamic rules proposed by God. In another context, in (9c), the verb *tagha* is used in a different sense; for instance, it incorporates the entity *mai* 'water' which is causative meaning. In similar situation, in (10b), the same verb incorporates the meaning *fawqi* 'made superior'. The similarity of (9c) and (10b) is that both of them do not carry a sacred meaning.

In contrast, in (11b) and (12b) the verb *tagha* is used in different senses. In the former it means 'shout' and in the latter 'rough'. These two entities as per the semantic theory are parts of the conceptual structures of the verbs in such contexts.

This theory is also very helpful to account for the derived meaning of the verb *qatala* 'killed' in (14b). As a matter of fact the verb is used in a standard Arabic sentence; it means 'cause some one to die due to killing'. This is, of course, a generic meaning. However, in (14c), the verb *qutilat* 'was killed' is used in the Qur'an verse; it has the specific meaning of 'cause a baby child to die in a dug whole as she born a girl but not a boy'. Hence, the meaning of killing used by the translators in (14b) is insufficient though the same verb is used. The researchers infer that the covert meanings of the verb *qutilat* 'was killed' in (14c) are religious based but not surface structure based. This is because the verb will give other meanings in standard Arabic which are different.

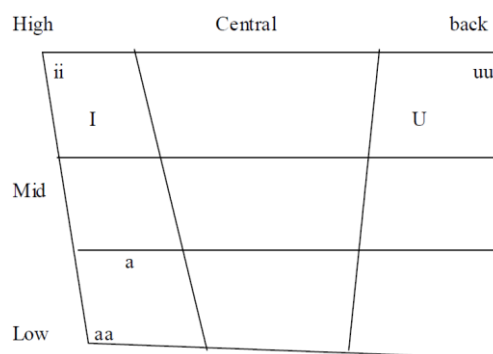
The researchers may argue that the syntactic structure theory alone is not a proper solution to be used in translation. As an alternative, we opt for the semantic theory as it accounts for both overt as well as covert arguments. The researchers can say that the theory of semantic structure with all its mechanisms, namely, (i) argument structure, (ii) argument fusion, (iii) incorporation and (iv) conceptual structure are universal properties and worth to be applied not only in religious texts but also in modern standard Arabic sentences. The researchers have succeeded in making the generalizations of Jackendoff's (1990) semantic theory correct. These generalizations about translation in specific contribute to better understanding of the religious book of Qur'an. Meanwhile, they also enrich the field of research in Arabic with new versions of translation by following new modern perspectives not in use before.

VI. TRANSLITERATION OF THE ARABIC PHONEMIC SYMBOLS OF CONSONANTS

| Arabic | Transliteration | Arabic | Transliteration |
|--------|-----------------|--------|-----------------|
| أ | ʔ | ض | <u>d</u> |
| ب | b | ط | <u>t</u> |
| ت | t | ظ | <u>z</u> |
| ث | th | ع | f ^c |
| ج | j | غ | gh |
| ح | <u>h</u> | ف | f |
| خ | kh | ق | q |
| د | d | ك | k |
| ذ | dh | ل | l |
| ر | r | م | m |
| ز | z | ن | n |
| س | sh | و | w |
| ص | <u>s</u> | ي | y |

Notice: The researchers have a reference to the transliteration symbols only while writing the Arabic words the texts. (c.f. Jalabneh, 2007)

VII. STANDARD ARABIC PHONETIC SYMBOLS OF VOWELS



(c.f. Fari and et al, 2006, p. 74)

VIII. STANDARD ARABIC PHONETIC SYMBOLS OF CONSONANTS AS PER IPA

| | Labial | Inter- dental | alveolar | palatal | velar | uvular | pharyngeal | glotal |
|---------------|--------------|------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------------|------------|--------|
| | Dental plain | | emphatic | | | | | |
| nasal | m | - | n | - | - | - | - | - |
| Stop vl | - | - | t | <u>t</u> | - | k | q | ʔ |
| | v | b | - | d | <u>d</u> | d ₃ | - | - |
| Fricative vl | f | θ | s | <u>s</u> | ʃ | - | χ | ħ |
| | v | - | ð | z | <u>z</u> | - | - | ʁ |
| Trill | - | - | - | r | - | - | - | - |
| Lateral | - | - | - | l | - | - | - | - |
| Approximate w | | | | j | | | | |

Notice: the researchers do not refer to the phonetic symbols but they used the transliteration ones while writing the Arabic specimens in the text. The phonetic symbols are listed only for knowledge (c.f. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arabic_Phonology).

REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Hilali, T and Khan, M. (1996). Interpretation of meaning of the noble Qur'a:n in English language. Riyadh: Dar-Al-Salam Publications (13th edition).
- [2] Ali, Y. (1993). The meaning of the Holy Qur'a:n. Maryland: Amana Cooperation (New edition).
- [3] Ali, M. (1964). The Holy Qur'a:n : Arabic text, English translations and commentary. Lahore: The Abmadiyyab Anjuman.
- [4] Ali, S. (1955). The Holy Qur'a:n. Rabwah: Ahmadiyya Muslim Foreign Mission Office.
- [5] Arberry, J. (1980). The Koran interpreted. London: George Allen Unwin. (4th edition).
- [6] Chomsky, N. (1986). Knowledge of language: Its nature, origin, and use. New York: Praeger.
- [7] Dawood, J. (1956). The Koran. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books Ltd.
- [8] Fari, Sh and et al. (2006). An introduction to modern linguistics. Amman: Jordan. Dar Wael lilnashir.
- [9] Ibn- Manzoor : *Lissan al- 'arab*. Dar Ehia Al- Tourath Al- 'arabi, Beirut-Lebanon.
- [10] Jackendoff, R. (1990). Semantic structures. London: Cambridge, MIT Press.
- [11] Jalabneh, A. (2000). Theta – absorption in Arabic syntax. *Al- Dirasat Journal*. Vol. (27), No. (1), p, 244-270.
- [12] Jalabneh, A. (2007). The thematic relations in Arabic and English syntax. Amman: Jordan, Dar Al- Hadatheh for Publications.
- [13] Khan, Z. (1970). The Quran. London: Curzon Press Ltd (2nd edition).
- [14] Knig Fahid Centre. The Holy Qura-an: *English translation of the meanings and commentary*. (1405 h): P.O. Box 3561, Al-Madinah Al-Munawarah. (1894, verse, 37 & 1906, verse 09)
- [15] Palmer, H. (1942). The Koran. London: Oxford University Press.
- [16] Piekthel, M. (1982). The meaning of the glorious Qur'an. text and explanatory translation. Delhi: Kutub Khana (5th edition).
- [17] Rodwell, J. (1978). The Koran. London: J.M. Dent and Sons Ltd.
- [18] Sale, J. (1877). The Koran. London: Fredrick Warne and Co. Ltd.
- [19] Yule, G. (2006). The study of language. Cambridge: University Press.

Atef Mustafa Jalabneh was born in Ajloun –Ibbin on Eighth –July –1960. He got his MA, M. Phil and PhD degrees in linguistics from Department of Linguistics/ Delhi University/ India by 1996.

He is currently occupying an ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR position in Department of English/ Faculty of Languages and Translation/ King Khalid University / Saudi Arabia/ Abha. He published a number of articles such as (i) Jalabneh, A. (2000) Theta – absorption in Arabic syntax: *Al-Dirasat*. Vol. (27), No (1), (2000:244-270) and (ii) Jalabneh, A. (2011) LF representations and the interpretations of certain collocations of Surat al-shams with reference to Chomsky's (1995) thematic relations. *Dirasat, Human and Social Sciences*, Vol. 38, No.1, p. 530-542. His basic fields of interests are syntax, semantics, phonology and phonetics.

Dr Jalabneh is currently a foreign coordinator for international affairs/ research center for Higher Studies in King Khalid University/Saudi Arabia.

May F. Al-Shaikhli was born in Baghdad Iraq 1970. She got her PhD degree in linguistics and translation from Mousel University and her MA, and BA degrees in translation from AL Mostanseriya University in Baghdad Iraq. Her major field is pure translation with all its branches such as literary, scientific, legal, mass media, consecutive and simultaneous ones.

She is currently occupying an ASSISTANT PROFESSOR position in translation in the college of arts and humanities at AL-Isra University in Amman-Jordan. From 2005-2007 she worked also as an Assistant Professor in translation in the college of arts and humanities at Middle East University (MEU) for Graduate Studies Amman –Jordan. She worked an Instructor at AL- Turath College and AL-Mustanseriya University and a Translator in the Ministry of Education in Baghdad-Iraq.

Effects of Teacher's Corrective Feedback on Accuracy in the Oral English of English-Majors College Students

Ruili Chu

Foreign language college of Tianjin polytechnic university, Tianjin, China
Email: trinatrina@163.com

Abstract—In current English major college teaching in China, there is a common phenomenon that although many students have learned a great deal of grammatical knowledge and vocabulary, most of them are still unable to speak English accurately. The teaching method has changed from focus on the grammar structure of language to task-based teaching or communicative teaching. However, these two methods, fluency of language is the main goal of teaching while accuracy is often overlooked. In recent years, corrective feedback, due to its potential role in facilitating oral English development, has become a hot research topic in second language acquisition abroad. Teachers' corrective feedback is an indispensable part in foreign language teaching. With the occurrence of the theories of "Input Hypothesis", "interaction Hypothesis" and "Noticing Hypothesis", researchers have carried out studies on corrective feedback from various perspectives. This paper tries to solve the following questions: 1. Whether corrective feedback have a positive effect on improving oral English accuracy? 2. Two types of corrective feedback, which types have a better effect on English accuracy? 3. If corrective can improve oral English accuracy, but for the high\medium and low group of students, does it have the same improving effectiveness?

Index Terms—corrective feedback, oral accuracy, teaching method

I. INTRODUCTION

So far, there are some problems in researches on oral production. First, most of researches focus on fluency, whereas accuracy and complexity are considered as one aspect of fluency to be examined. Secondly, at recent, communicative teaching method and task-based teaching method are very popular and accepted by most researchers and teachers. But, these two teaching method also take on some limitations. The most problem is that these two methods overemphasize the importance of fluency while overlook the accuracy.

Second language acquisition (SLA) researchers' opinions on the effectiveness of corrective feedback are different. One group holds that corrective feedback is necessary (White, 1989, 1991) because it can match the learners' utterance with its corresponding version in the target language and draw the learners' attention to structures that have not been mastered, thus initiating a learning process; while another group maintains that changes in the learner's primary linguistic data, not by corrective feedback and some researchers even advocate to abandon the corrective feedback in classroom interaction due to its limitations (e.g. Truscott, 1999). A number of studies have examined whether corrective feedback in a communicative oral task-based language classroom is effective (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Long, Inagaki & Ortega, 1998; White, 1991; Tomasello and Herron, 1988, 1989; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Bohannon & Stanowics, 1988; Demetras, Post, & Snow, 1986; Farrar, 1992; Saxton, 1997).

Corrective feedback has a positive effect on oral accuracy. The present study is a kind of classroom-oriented research, which the main purpose is to investigate the effect of corrective feedback on oral accuracy development.

II. IMPORTANT TERMS IN THIS PAPER

A. Corrective Feedback

The definition of corrective feedback. It is necessary to state that errors are a natural part of the learning process (Tornberg, 2005). Errors are common characteristic of language acquisition and learning. That is to say everyone will make errors in the process of learning no matter learning the first language or the second language. However, in second language classroom, teacher usually wants students to speak as much as possible and encourage them to speak with the purpose of improving communication competence. When students speak SL they will also make various errors, and if these errors are not corrected, students will mistake them for correct form and internalize them to their interlanguage system. So, the oral English will be easy to fossilize if teacher do not provide corrective feedback.

Lightbown and Spada (1999) give corrective feedback definition such as: Any indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect. The learners receive various responses. For example, When a language learner says, 'He go to school everyday', corrective feedback can be explicit, for example, 'no, you should say goes, not go' or

implicit 'yes he goes to school every day', and may or may not include metalinguistic information, for example, 'Don't forget to make the verb agree with the subject'. (p.171—172). In the following part will introduce six types of corrective feedback with examples.

Day, et al. (1984) employ corrective feedback to refer to the native speakers' response to what they perceived to be errors committed by non-native speakers. The definition has its limitations, the provider of corrective feedback only non-native speakers, in fact it includes all the people, native-speaker or non- native speaker.

Corrective feedback does not just emphasize the form of language just like the traditional teaching method; it draws students' attention to linguistic forms as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication.

The classification of corrective feedback. When studying corrective feedback and learner uptake in four French immersion classrooms at the primary level, Lyster & Ranta (1997) put forward six types of corrective feedback. The six types are: 1) explicit correction: teachers supply the correct form and clearly indicate that what the students say is incorrect; 2) recast: teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of the student's Utterance; 3) elicitation: teacher directly elicits a asking questions or by pausing to allow students to complete teacher's utterance, or asking students to reformulate their utterance; 4) metalinguistic feedback: to the well-formedness of the student's utterance; 5) clarification request: teacher's request for further information from a student about a previous utterance; 6) repetition: teacher repeats the student's ill-formed utterance, adjusting intonation to highlight the error.

TABLE.1
EXAMPLES OF THE SIX TYPES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| explicit correction | St: he take the bus to go to school. T: oh, you should say he takes. he takes the bus to go to school. |
| recast | St: he take the bus to go to school. T:he takes the bus to go to school. |
| elicitation | St: he take the bus to go to school. T: he? T: how do we form the third person singular form in English? T: can you correct that? |
| metalinguistic feedback | St: he take the bus to go to school. T: do we say he take? T:How do we say when it forms the third person singular form? |
| clarification request | St: he take the bus to go to school. T: parden me? |
| repetition | St: he take the bus to go to school. T: he take? |

According the six types of corrective feedback, the author comes up with two types of corrective feedback. The first one can facilitate peer- and self-repair (elicitation; metalinguistic feedback; clarification request; repetition); the second one just rephrase of learner output without push peer- or self- correct. (explicit correction; recast). In order to write the two types conveniently, the author give reader two terms to stand for them. The first type of corrective feed back can be abbreviated as type1; the second is type2.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) presented a study of classroom interaction and classified various types of corrective feedback used by teachers in response to learner errors. The percentage distribution of the six feedback types was: recasts 55%; elicitation 14%; clarification requests 11%; metalinguistic clues 8%; explicit correction 7%; repetition of error 5%. (cited from Lyster 1998a: 189). Obviously, most teachers like to use recast (55%). But recasts led to the lowest rate of uptake-including the lowest rate of repair. What is more, both recasts and explicit correction can not lead to any peer-or self-repair in that they already provide correct forms to learners. Opposite to that, elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification request, and the repetition of error not only made higher rates of uptake but also can be able to elicit peer- and self-repair. The last four techniques are called negotiation of form. The negotiation of form can benefit second language learner in at least two ways: (1) by providing opportunities for learners to proceduralize target language knowledge already internalized in declarative form (cf. Hulstijn, 1990;McLaughlin, 1990; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993; Towell, Awkins & Bazergui,1996) and (b) by drawing learners' attention to form during communicative interaction in ways that allowed them to re-analyze and modify their non-target output as they tested new hypotheses about the target language (Pica, 1988; Swain, 1993,1995).

B. Oral Accuracy

Skehan (1996) state that accuracy refers to "how well the target language is produced in relation to the rule system of the target language". An analysis of target-like use can measure accuracy, considering both the contexts and uses of the structure in question (Pica, 1983). Accuracy; complexity and fluency are three important parts of oral speaking. Every teacher should keep balance of the three parts.

Accuracy is identified various types by researchers. Omaggio (1986) says that accuracy includes grammatical, sociolinguistic, semantic, rhetorical accuracy and some surface features just like spelling and punctuation and pronunciation. Because the purpose of the present study is to determine the development of oral production, only linguistic accuracy (including grammatical and syntactic accuracy) is examined in this thesis.

Many accuracy indexes have been employed to measure oral language for different purposes.

TABLE.2
INDEXES EMPLOYED IN THE MEASUREMENT OF ORAL LANGUAGE ACCURACY

| researchers | Year of study | Indexes employed |
|-------------------|---------------|--|
| Forster , Skehan | 1996 | The percentage of error-free clauses to all clauses (EFC/C) |
| Zhang and Wu | 2001 | The error- free T-unit per T-unit(EFT/T) |
| Yuan and Ellis | 2003 | error- free clauses and correct verb forms |
| Larsen-Freeman | 2006 | The proportion of T-unit |
| Iwashita et al. | 2008 | Verb tense, third person singular, prepositions, articles use and ratio of error- free T-units |
| Tavakoli ,Forster | 2008 | The ratio of error- free clauses(EFC/C) |

Foster, Tohkyn & Wigglesworth (2000) used "As-unit" to measure speech. "As-unit" consists of an independent clause or sub-clausal unit, together with any subordinate clauses) associate with either but it doesn't include repair as reformulation, replacement, repetition, false start and hesitation The following sentence has two As-units marked by"/.../"They should have their own careers hand they can successfully depend on themselves::if they can make a living."

In this paper, some terms also need to calculate oral accuracy. ``Correct As-unit" refers to As-unit without any errors. "Sub-unit" consists minimally of a finite of non-finite verb element plus at least one other clause element (Subject, Object, Complement and Adverbial) or it is amount to compound sentence in other term. "Incorrect sub-unit" includes sub-unit with any errors. "Total words" means all words except repair, repetition, hesitation, etc. "Total errors" consists of all errors of lexical, morphological, syntactical or textural. "Self-repair" refers to self -correction in speaking when the speakers are aware of the error and correct it by themselves. "Ratio of error free As-units" is an index to measure accuracy of As-unit. $REFAS = \text{error free As-units} / \text{all the As-units}$. The higher, the more accurate the language is. "Number of errors per 100 words" is an index to measure accuracy of total words. $REW = \text{total errors} * 100 / \text{total words}$. The fewer the number, the more accurate the speech is. "Ratio of error sub-units" is an index to measure accuracy, but it can show the relationship between accuracy and complexity. $RESUB = \text{Incorrect Sub-unit} / \text{all Sub-units}$. The higher it is, the less accurate the Sub-unit is. And so on.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Participant

Subjects are Second-year English majors who come from Binzhou College in Shandong province. Every one of them has learned English for 7 to 8 years. The participants were selected from three classes taught by the same English teacher. There is a control class and two experimental classes, each class choose three students as subjects. Class one as control class which tech students without any type of corrective feedback. Class two and class three are experimental classes which apply type1 and type 2 respectively. The three students divided high\medium\low group according to their oral achievement. This study lasts about sixteen weeks.

B. Processes

This study employs a pre—test, a post-test, classroom observation and interview. The first week give students a pre-test, gave students one task--let them speak according to a series of pictures, and make record of their speaking, and change the record into text. From the second week to fifth week, experimental classes are provided corrective feedback and the control class give none corrective feedback. The last week organize post-text, the task is similar to task in the pre-text.

C. Instructional Treatments

The present study adapt Foster, Tohkyn & Wigglesworth's (2000) "As-unit" (the Analysis of Speech Unit) to measure the record. The SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) is used as a statistical analytical instrument. The statistical techniques employed for analysis are Descriptive Statistics, One-Way ANOVA Analysis, Paired-Samples T- test, Independent-Samples T test Analysis.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

At the beginning of the experiment, in order to identify the three groups' level of oral accuracy, a pre-text is prerequisite. The goal of the pre-test is determine whether the three groups have significant difference.

TABLE 4.1
ONE WAY ANOVA ANALYSIS FOR THREE CLASS IN PRE-TEST

| score | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|------|
| Between Groups | .000 | 2 | .000 | 1.467 | .303 |
| Within Groups | .001 | 6 | .000 | | |
| Total | .001 | 8 | | | |

The descriptive statistics for the three groups, including one way ANOVA analysis for each group, is shown in table 1. The data from the pre-test demonstrated that the subjects no matter from experimental class or control class are at the same level with no significant difference. ($F=1.467$, $P=.303 > 0.05$). In other words, the scores get from pre-test or post-test are not influenced by individual difference, make sure that the score just be influenced by corrective feedback, try best to reduce the uncontrollable elements.

TABLE 4.2
PAIRED-SAMPLES T TEST FOR EXPERIMENTAL CLASS

| TABLE 1. TEST FOR DIFFERENCES | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|-------|----------------|-----------------|---|--------|----|-----------------|
| | | Paired Differences | | | | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| | | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | |
| | | | | | | Lower | | | |
| Pair 1 | Pre-test – post-test | -1.872 | 2.618 | .382 | -2.641 | -1.104 | -4.903 | 46 | .000 |

The paired-samples T test analysis revealed that the learners in experimental classes receiving corrective feedback improve significantly in their post-test for their performance on the accuracy of oral English ($t=.000 < 0.05$). The results proved the hypothesis that error correction during oral communicative activities seemed to have a significant overall effect on students' oral achievement or proficiency.

On the whole, the learners in experimental classes made great progress for long term development of their oral accuracy. That is to say, both type1 and type2 of corrective feedback are effective in facilitating learner 'oral accuracy. See table 4.2. Learners learn best when they generated a hypothesis and received immediate feedback. Since learners may cognitively make a comparison between their own deviant utterances and the correct target language utterances.

TABLE 4.3
PAIRED-SAMPLES T TEST FOR TWO EXPERIMENTAL CLASSES

| | | Paired Differences | | | | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|--------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|--------|--------|----|-----------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | | |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper | | | |
| Pair 1 | Pre-test – post-test | -2.482 | 2.324 | .345 | -1.865 | -1.052 | -3.465 | 34 | .026 |

The learners in experimental classe2 and class3 receiving type1 and type2 of corrective feedback respectively, the paired-samples T test (table 4.3) analysis revealed that there was significant difference as a result of the different treatment in long term study ($p=0.026 < 0.05$).that is to say , the effect of type1 and type2 on improving oral accuracy are different.

TABLE4.4
CLASS MEAN AND SD FOR TWO EXPERIMENTAL CLASSES IN POST-TEST

| | | E2 | E3 |
|----------------|---------|----------|----------|
| N | Valid | 4 | 4 |
| | Missing | 0 | 0 |
| Mean | | 0.046 | 0.053 |
| Std. Deviation | | 2.516611 | 7.325754 |

The descriptive statistics for two experimental classes, including class mean and standard deviations in post-test demonstrated that experimental class2 was better than class3, because the ratio of error in class2 is lower than class 3. In other words, type1 has better effect on improving oral accuracy the type2.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) presented a study of classroom interaction and classified various types of corrective feedback used by teachers in response to learner errors. The results shown that most teachers like recast, But recasts led to the lowest rate of uptake-including the lowest rate of repair. What is more, both recasts and explicit correction can

not lead to any peer-or self-repair in that they already provide correct forms to learners. Opposite to that, elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification request, and the repetition of error not only made higher rates of uptake but also can be able to elicit peer- and self-repair. The last four techniques are called negotiation of form. The negotiation of form can benefit second language learner in at least two ways: (1) by providing opportunities for learners to proceduralize target language knowledge already internalized in declarative form (cf. Hulstijn, 1990;McLaughlin, 1990; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993; Towell, Awkins & Bazergui,1996) and (b) by drawing learners' attention to form during communicative interaction in ways that allowed them to re-analyze and modify their non-target output as they tested new hypotheses about the target language (Pica, 1988; Swain, 1993,1995).

TABLE 4.5
PAIRED-SAMPLES T TEST FOR LEARNERS IN THREE HIGH GROUPS

| | | Paired Differences | | | | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|--------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|----------|------|----|-----------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | | |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper | | | |
| Pair 1 | Pre-test – post-test | 1.750000 | 3.862210 | 1.931105 | -4.395638 | 7.895638 | .906 | 3 | .432 |

From table 4.5 can revealed that learners in high group made little progress after a long time study. May be because learners in high group have mastered grammatical rules greatly and their oral speaking has been very accurately. What they do in the future is to speak more and improve there oral fluency and complexity. Teacher should pay more attention to learners in medium and low group.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study aims to investigate the effect of corrective feedback on oral accuracy. The foregoing discussion results in the following findings.

1. Corrective feedback has a positive effect on improving oral English accuracy. Compared with score of experimental classes and control class in post –test, the score of experimental class obvious is higher than that of control class.
2. Two types of corrective feedback, type1 have a better effect on English accuracy than type2.according to noticing theory, type 1 refers to corrective feedback can encourage learners self- correct errors; type2 means corrective feedback that learners usually do not self-correct. According to noticing theory, in order to make input become intake for L2 learning, some degree of noticing must occur, type1 can make learners more noticed on correct form than that of type2.
3. Corrective feedback does make great effect on oral accuracy, but the effectiveness for different level of learner is different. For medium and low group learners, the effectiveness is better, because there is enough space for them to be improved. For high group learners, their oral accuracy is better, what they need to do is improve their oral fluency and complexity.

REFERENCES

- [1] Bohannon, J. N., & Stanowicz, L. (1988). The issue of negative evidence: Adult responses to children's language errors. *Developmental Psychology*, 24, 684-689.
- [2] Day, Richard R., Chenoweth, N. Ann, Chun, Ann E., and Luppescu, Stuart. (1984). Corrective feedback in native-nonnative discourse. *Language Learning*, 34, 19-45.
- [3] Demetras, M., Post, K., & Snow, C. (1986). Feedback to first language learners: The role of repetitions and clarification requests. *Journal of Child Language*, 13, 275-292.
- [4] Doughty, C., & Varela, E. (1998). Communicative focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 114-138). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [5] Ellis, Rod (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford Oxfordshire: Oxford University Press.
- [6] Ellis, R. (2002b). "Does form-focused instruction affect the acquisition of implicit knowledge?". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 24 (2): 223–236.
- [7] Farrar, M. J. (1992). Negative evidence and grammatical morpheme acquisition. *Developmental Psychology*, 28, 90-98.
- [8] Foster, P. Tohkyn, A. Wigglesworth, G. (2000) Measuring spoken language: A unit for all reasons. *Applied Linguistics* (03):37-41.
- [9] Hulstijn, J. (1990). A comparison between the information-processing and the analysis/control approaches to language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 30-45.
- [10] Lightbown, P. M. & Spada. (1999). *N. How language are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [11] Long, M., S. Inagaki & L. Ortega. (1998). The Role of Implicit Negative Feedback in SLA: Models and Recasts in Japanese and Spanish. *The Modern Language Journal* 82:357-71.
- [12] Lyster, R.; Ranta, L. (1997). "Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 19: 37–66.
- [13] Nobuyoshi, J. and Ellis, R. (1993). Focused communication tasks and second language Acquisition. *ELT Journal* 47, 203-210.

- [14] Omaggio, Alice C. (1986). *Teaching language in context: Proficiency-oriented instruction*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle. 479pp.
- [15] Pica, T. (1988). Interactive adjustments as an outcome of NS-NNS negotiated interaction. *Language Learning* 38, 45-73.
- [16] Saxton, M. (1997). The contrast theory of negative input. *Journal of Child Language*, 24, 139-161.
- [17] Skehan, P. (1996). A framework for the implementation of task-based instruction. *Applied Linguistics*. 17(1):38-62.
- [18] Swain, M.(1995). Three functions or output in second SLA learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidhofer (Eds.), *Principle and Practice in Applied Linguistics* (PP.125-144) .Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [19] Tornberg, Ulrika. (2005). *Språkdidaktik*. Malmö: Gleerups Utbildning AB.
- [20] Towell, R., Hawkins, R., & Bazergui, N. (1996). The development of fluency in advanced learners of French. *Applied Linguistics*, 17, 84-119.
- [21] Wenzhong Zhang. (2002). *The Development of L12 Oral Fluency in The EFL classroom Setting*. Changsha: Hunan Education Publishing House.
- [22] White, L. (1991). Adverb placement in second language acquisition: some effects of positive and negative evidence in the classroom. *Second Language Research*, 7, 133-161.

Ruili Chu was born in Shandong, China 1985. She received her M.A degree in linguistic from Binzhou College, China in 2009.

She is currently a postgraduate in the school of Foreign language college of Tianjin polytechnic university, Tianjin, china. Her research interests include applied linguistics and American literature.

Exploring Metaphors in Vietnamese Prepositions and Adverbial Particles

Luu Trong Tuan
International University - National University of Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam
Email: luutrongtuan@vnn.vn

Abstract—Every language has its own beauty, which is incrementally enhanced by the proliferation of metaphors. Numerous abstract concepts have been dissected through the lens of metaphorism. This paper sought to investigate metaphors in Vietnamese prepositions and adverbial particles denoting positions and movements in the space, for further understanding on how these prepositions and adverbial particles are mapped into other concepts such as status, value, and capability.

Index Terms—metaphors, Vietnamese prepositions, Vietnamese adverbial particles

I. INTRODUCTION

Myriads of linguistic phenomena reflect human perceptions towards the surrounding world as pointed out by Nguyen (2005, p. 42): “The traces in human perceptions towards the world linger in language.” Behind the human perceptions towards the surrounding world is the exploration and explanation of the phenomena beyond human reach. Humans had not waited until they discovered the rotation of the earth around the sun and around its axis to portray the movement of the sun in daily language. Vietnamese folks observe and mind-map the analogy between the emergence and upwards motion of the sun and the growth of a plant and say:

(1) Mặt trời mọc ở hướng đông.

(The sun grows (= rises) in the east.)

Nonetheless, Vietnamese folks make the comparison between the downwards movement/ disappearance of the sun and the diving of a thing, say a diver or a fish, into the water, probably through their observation of the sun sinking into the sea from the beach or into the river from the river bank since Vietnam is the country of long coast and rivers.

(2) Mặt trời lặn ở hướng tây.

(The sun dives (= sets) in the west.)

Metaphors have been created in such a fashion by the ordinary folks, and are no longer considered as works of phenomenally competent writers (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). The perception of Vietnamese people towards the movement of the sun culturally differs from that of English people, who employ the verbs “rise” and “set” to depict the upwards and downwards motion of the sun, as highlighted by Lakoff & Johnson (1980) that metaphors manifest themselves in everyday language, in every language, and are, to certain extent, culturally bound.

These views are reflected in Lakoff & Johnson’s theory of conceptual metaphor in which conceptual metaphors contribute to the understanding of non-physical concepts through the contrast with physical reality (Kövecses, 2002, p. 6). However, conceptual metaphors can help portray physical concepts beyond human scientific knowledge reach. Not in the know of the pathology of the appearance and disappearance of a red purpura on the skin, however, Vietnamese ordinary folks presumably find the appearance or disappearance of this red purpura and that of the sun analogous and describe as below:

(3) Hôm qua, ban mọc đầy người đờ đừ, nhưng hôm nay ban lặn bớt rồi.

(Yesterday, the red purpura grew (= appeared) everywhere on the kid’s body, but today, a lot of them have dived (= have disappeared).)

Furthermore, not all conceptual metaphors are the mapping from physical reality into non-physical concepts. According to Lakoff & Johnson (1980) and Kövecses (2002), ANGER IS HEAT; however, is “anger” a non-physical concept? “Anger” can be regarded as a non-physical concept at a certain point of the history of scientific development, but is not a non-physical concept once it is medically known that “anger” is a physiological manifestation characterized by increased heart rate, blood pressure, and body temperature caused by the secretion of adrenaline from adrenal glands.

In conceptual metaphors, domain A and domain B can be both non-physical concepts as illustrated by the metaphor LOVE IS A JOURNEY, in which lovers are passengers on the journey; their relationship is the means of transport; they have the common goal as their marriage; and the difficulties in their relationship are the obstacles in the journey.

Conceptual metaphors not merely refer to the mapping from domain A into domain B – the analogous attributes between domain A and domain B, but also imply the existence of the inexplicable or scientifically unknown factors of domain B, which makes domain B resemble domain A through observation. The conceptual metaphor in the example (2) not only seeks to compare the downwards movement of the sun with the diving of a diver or fish, but also implies that the sun does not permanently vanish, but waits for the new opportunity to surface. Thus, the metaphor in the

example (2) is complementary to the metaphor in the example (1) in a way that the verb “lặn” (dive) (in the example (2)) synergize with the verb “mọc” (grow) (in the example (1)) to exhibit the concept of “cycle” in the movement of the sun as well as suggests permanent energy behind this cyclic movement of the sun, which was formerly scientifically unknown and under human curiosity (Such permanent energy is now known to result from the fusion and fission chain reactions among helium atoms in the sun). Therefore, metaphors imply human curiosity and desire to discover.

This paper seeks to explore metaphors in Vietnamese prepositions and adverbial particles denoting positions and movements in the space.

II. METAPHORS IN VIETNAMESE PREPOSITIONS AND ADVERBIAL PARTICLES

A. Metaphors in “trong-ngoài” and “ra-vào”

Generally, the preposition “trong” in the location relationship “x ở trong A” (x is in/inside A) denotes that the space of A embraces the space of x, and vice versa, the preposition “ngoài” in the location relationship “x ở ngoài A” (x is outside A) denotes that the space of A does not embrace the space of x. In these location relationships, “trong” and “ngoài” are equivalent to “in/inside” and “outside” respectively.

In English, the speaker’s location does not influence the use of “in/inside” and “outside”:

(4) He is playing in the school yard.

In (4), the preposition “in” is used whether the speaker is in the classroom or in the school yard. Nevertheless, in Vietnamese, the speaker’s location determines the usage of “trong” or “ngoài” in the sentence. If the speaker is in the location, which is farther than “he” in comparison to the center of the school, or if the speaker is in the space, which is more open than the space of “he”, for instance, the speaker is outside the school, then the preposition “trong” will appear in the Vietnamese sentence:

(4a) Vietnamese equivalent to (4): Anh ấy đang chơi trong sân trường.

However, if the speaker is in the location, which is closer than “he” in comparison to the center of the school, or if the speaker is in the space, which is more closed than the space of “he”, say, the speaker is in the classroom, then the preposition “ngoài” will appear in the Vietnamese sentence:

(4b) Vietnamese equivalent to (4): Anh ấy đang chơi ngoài sân trường.

If the speaker and “he” are in the same space, then “trong”, “ngoài”, or more neutral preposition “ở” can be used:

Bọn mình đang chơi trong/ ngoài/ ở sân trường.

Nonetheless, if the speaker X and “he” are in the same place, and the speaker X replies to the speaker Y as regards X and “he”’s location, then the speaker Y’s location will determine the usage of “trong” or “ngoài”. The previous rule will apply, i.e. if the speaker Y is in the location, which is farther than X and “he” in comparison to the center of the school, or if the speaker Y is in the space, which is more open than the space of X and “he”, for instance, the speaker Y is outside the school, then the preposition “trong” will appear in the Vietnamese sentence:

Speaker Y: Các bạn ở đâu thế?

(Where are you now?)

Speaker X: Tôi mình đang chơi trong sân trường.

(We are playing in the school yard.)

On the contrary, if the speaker Y is in the location, which is closer than X and “he” in comparison to the center of the school, or if the speaker Y is in the space, which is more closed than the space of X and “he”, say, the speaker Y is in the classroom, then the preposition “ngoài” will emerge in the Vietnamese sentence:

Speaker Y: Các bạn ở đâu thế?

(Where are you now?)

Speaker X: Tôi mình đang chơi ngoài sân trường.

(We are playing in the school yard.)

The above findings as regards the difference in the impact of the speaker’s position on the use of preposition between English and Vietnamese languages are consistent with Tran’s (2004, pp. 296-297) observation that oriental culture has built inwards and subjective cognitive process closely linked with the speaker in contrast with westerners’ outwards and objective cognitive process independent from the speaker.

Vietnamese culture tends to give something inside or centripetal more positive sense than something outside or centrifugal as in a Vietnamese saying “Cháu bà nội, tôi bà ngoại” (even though a grandson is looked after by his maternal grandmother, he is always considered the grandson of the paternal grandmother only.) Maternal grandmother is called “bà ngoại” (grandmother + outside “the family name”) and paternal grandmother is addressed as “bà nội” (grandmother + inside “the family name”) with more advantages and power. This cultural aspect is also found in certain statements implying that “trong” (inside, centripetal) shows more positiveness than “ngoài” (outside, centrifugal).

(5) Ngủ ngoài đường có hại cho sức khỏe.

(Sleeping outside in the street is harmful to your health. → Sleeping outdoors is harmful to your health.)

The entities in the space may display three dimensions, two dimensions, one dimension, or no dimensions (in case the entities are considered as points). Temporal expressions are conceptualized or metaphorized to take on dimensions, analogous to spatial expressions as illustrated by Nguyen (2007) in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
DIMENSIONS OF SPATIAL AND TEMPORAL EXPRESSIONS

| Dimensions | Spatial expressions | Temporal expressions |
|------------------|--|--------------------------------------|
| Three dimensions | <i>Trong hang</i> (in the cave) | <i>Trong năm 1999</i> (in 1999) |
| Two dimensions | <i>Trên bàn</i> (on the table) | <i>Vào chủ nhật</i> (on Sunday) |
| One dimension | <i>Dọc theo phố</i> (Along the street) | <i>Theo năm tháng</i> (Over time) |
| Zero dimension | <i>Gặp ở nhà ga</i> ((Meet) at the railway station) | <i>Lúc 7 giờ</i> (At 7 o'clock) |

In English, except the dissimilarity in the use of one-dimensional prepositions between spatial expression and temporal expression, spatial prepositions denoting three, two, and zero dimensions are borrowed in temporal expressions. However, in Vietnamese language, only three-dimensional spatial preposition occurs in temporal expression implying TIME IS A CONTAINER. Even though “TIME IS A CONTAINER” is conceptualized in English language, merely the preposition “in” is used in time expressions. In contrast, Vietnamese folks use “trong” (in) to refer to the content of the CONTAINER OF TIME and “ngoài” (outside) to refer to a point outside this CONTAINER OF TIME such as “trong năm” (in the year) and “ngoài giêng”. The temporal expression “ngoài giêng” is comparable to spatial expression (4b) above:

| Spatial expression | Temporal expression |
|---|--|
| Anh ấy đang chơi ngoài sân trường. The preposition “ngoài” will occur in the Vietnamese spatial expression in case the speaker is in the location, which is closer than “he” in comparison to the center of the school, or in case the speaker is in the space, which is more closed than the space of “he”, say, the speaker is in the classroom. | ngoài giêng In this case, the speaker stays at a point in this year of lunar calendar referring to a point in the first month of lunar calendar (giêng). “Ngoài” (outside) here implies outside the CONTAINER OF THIS YEAR OF LUNAR CALENDAR. |

In Vietnamese language, “trong” (inside) also denotes a person’s true nature or feelings, and the depth of his or her feelings, contrasting with “ngoài” (outside), which refers to a person’s pretense or superficiality of feelings as illustrated in the following extracts from Tale of Kieu by the Vietnamese poet Nguyen Du:

(6) Tình trong như đã mặt ngoài e

(Her love is profound inside, but outside (i.e. through her expression and behavior) she remains shy.)

(7) Bên ngoài thơn thớt nói cười

Mà trong nham hiểm giết người không dao

(Outside (i.e. through her behavior) she talks and laughs, but inside her (i.e. her true nature) lies her cruelty.)

In Vietnamese language, corresponding to the static prepositions “trong” and “ngoài” are the prepositions of movement or direction “vào” (into) and “ra” (out of). In English language, static constructions tend to be used to transport dynamic contents (such as nominalisations); in contrast, dynamic forms tend to be used to carry static contents in Vietnamese language. Thus, unlike English language, one-, two-, and even three-dimensional temporal prepositions in Vietnamese language are dynamic, such as “vào/trong năm 1999”, “vào chủ nhật”, and “theo năm tháng (i.e. coming along with years and months = over time)” (see Table 1).

The preposition and adverbial particle “vào” refers to the movement or direction from more closed space to more open space, and “ra” refers to the opposite movement or direction as in the ensuing illustrations (see Nguyen, 2005, p. 45):

(8) Ngồi xêch vào.

(Move inwards, i.e. from more open end to more closed end of the bench, leaving some space for me to sit.)

(9) Ngồi xêch ra.

(Move outwards, i.e. from more closed end to more open end of the bench, leaving some space for me to sit.)

Metaphorizing TIME as a CONTAINER or a closed space, Vietnamese folks use “vào” and “ra” to depict the movement or direction into TIME. Compare the use of static and dynamic temporal prepositions:

| | Spatial prepositions | Temporal prepositions |
|---------|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| Static | Trong năm (in the year) | Ngoài giêng |
| Dynamic | Vào thu (in the autumn) | Ra giêng |

A promise a boy gives to a girl appears to bring the girl more trust and the feeling that their wedding day is not too far away when the boy says “Ra giêng, anh cưới em.” (In the first month of lunar calendar, I will marry you.) than when he says “Ngoài giêng, anh cưới em.” (In the first month of lunar calendar, I will marry you.)

Since “trong” is static and “vào” is dynamic, “trong” tends to be used in the expressions of past time frame such as “trong những năm qua” (in the past years), but “vào” rather than “trong” is used in the expressions of future time frame, for instance, “vào thu” implying that the autumn is coming, and the autumn will arrive at a future point. It is the

dynamism of the preposition “vào” that the phrases “vào thu” and “thu sang” (when the autumn comes) are interchangeably used.

The preposition and adverbial particle “vào” can be metaphorically used to refer to the movement or direction from the explicit, known, public state (analogous to open space) to the implicit, unknown, secret state (analogous to closed space) such as “Anh ấy rút vào hoạt động bí mật” (He retreated into secret activity).

The preposition and adverbial particle “ra”, on the contrary, can be metaphorically used to refer to the movement or direction from the implicit, unknown, secret state (analogous to closed space) to explicit, known, public state (analogous to open space). Consequently, “ra” carries the implication of “display” or “exhibit” as in this expression: “ăn nói ra môn ra khoai” (say in the way that taro and sweet potato are separately displayed, i.e. say clearly.) (based on Nguyen’s (2005) example).

The preposition and adverbial particle “vào” is also metaphorically used to denote the movement or direction into more concentrated state (analogous to the high density of the closed space) such as “Sắp xếp công việc đầu vào đầy” (Arrange your work tidily, i.e. more concentrated than the messy state of your work) (Nguyen’s (2005) example). Contrarily, The preposition and adverbial particle “ra” can be metaphorically used to refer to the movement or direction towards loose, scattered, diluted state (analogous to the low density of the open space) such as “rã ra” (disassemble), “phát ra” (distribute, hand out), “phân ra” (divide, allocate), and “tách ra” (separate, split).

Like the static preposition “trong”, the corresponding dynamic preposition “vào” assumes the centripetal implication (analogous to the direction into more closed space). Moreover, “vào” is further metaphorised to portray the movement or direction into a person’s ego (centripetal) or selfishness such as “vun vào” and “vơ vào” (collect everything for themselves). The preposition and adverbial particle “ra”, on the contrary, displays the centrifugal implication and the deviation from a person’s ego such as “chia ra” (share) and “phát ra” (hand out).

The centripetal and centrifugal implications of “vào” and “ra” are also encountered in the expressions describing the movement into a topic under discussion such as “bàn vào” (focus on the topic) and its synonymous slang “bơi vào” (swim in, i.e. focus on the topic), or the movement off a topic under discussion such as “bàn ra” (go off the topic) and its synonymous slang “bơi ra” (swim out, i.e. go off the topic).

From its positive centrifugal implication involving the deviation from a person’s ego, “ra” is also found in such expressions denoting the change for the better as “xinh ra” (becoming prettier), “trẻ ra” (becoming younger), “tỉnh ra” (becoming more alert), “khỏe ra” (becoming healthier), “trắng ra” (becoming whiter), and “ăn nên làm ra” (becoming more successful) (based on Nguyen’s (2005) examples).

B. Metaphors in “trên-dưới” and “lên-xuống”

The prepositions “trên” (above/over/on) and “dưới” (below/under) in the location relationships “A ở trên B” (A is above/over/on B) and “B ở dưới A” (B is below/under A) denotes that the space of A is higher than the space of B, or the space of B is lower than the space of A. The disparities in this type of location relationship between English and Vietnamese are displayed in Table 2:

TABLE 2.
ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE PREPOSITIONS IN TERMS OF VERTICAL LOCATION RELATIONSHIPS

| Location relationships between space of A and space of B | The space of A is higher than the space of B | | | The space of B is lower than the space of A | |
|--|---|---|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| | The spaces of A and B are not on the same vertical axis | The spaces of A and B are on the same vertical axis | The space of A touches the space of B | The spaces of B and A are not on the same vertical axis | The spaces of B and A are on the same vertical axis |
| English prepositions | above | over | on | below | under |
| Vietnamese prepositions | trên | | | dưới | |

In English, when the space of A embraces the space of x, the preposition “in” is used to portray this location relationship:

(10) Stars in the sky

(10a) Vietnamese equivalent to (10): Những ngôi sao trên trời

(11) The trembling carp in the water

(11a) Vietnamese equivalent to (11): Cá chép run rẩy dưới nước

(12) Viet is waiting in the living room.

Nonetheless, in Vietnamese language, the speaker’s location relative to the space of A determines the use of the preposition. Since the sky is above the speaker and the water is below the speaker, the prepositions “trên” and “dưới” are respectively used in the Vietnamese expressions (10a) and (11a). The example (12) has two Vietnamese equivalents:

(12a) Vietnamese equivalent to (12): Việt đang đợi dưới phòng khách. (in case the speaker is in the room, which is above Viet’s.)

(12b) Vietnamese equivalent to (12): Việt đang đợi trên phòng khách. (in case the speaker is in the room, which is below Viet’s.)

Since TIME is metaphorised to be A CONTAINER, TIME has the surface on which events are placed, for instance, “on Sunday” and “over time” in English. The Vietnamese corresponding preposition “trên” is not used to translate these phrases; however, the preposition “trên” can be used to denote the metaphor “TIME HAS THE SURFACE” in poetry:

(13) Hay thu về đan sầu trên cỏ lá

Nỗi nhớ dãi trên những thớ ngầy qua

(Truong Dinh, <http://honque.com/ngothuymien/Unicode/kyniembuon.html>)

(Or the autumn returns and embroider sorrows on leaves and grass My missing you lingers on the past months and days, i.e. my missing you lingers over time)

TIME is also metaphorised to have spaces around it: spaces in front of and behind it (, which will be discussed in the section 2.3), and spaces above/over and below/under it. Observe the space under TIME in the subsequent example:

(14) Mùa thu đến rồi, v àt ôi lại ngẩn ngơ và hân hoan ngắm những bàn tay giấu dưới những mùa thu.

(Nha Thuyen, <http://diendankienthuc.net/diendan/archive/index.php?t-5340.html>)

(The autumn had come, and I was astounded and thrillingly gazed the hands hiding themselves under the autumns.)

In Vietnamese language, corresponding to the static prepositions “trên” and “dưới” are the prepositions of movement or direction “lên” (upwards) and “xuống” (downwards). Upward movement denotes the growth or positive change and downward movement denotes the decay or negative change. These changes are summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
CHANGES IMPLIED IN PREPOSITIONS “LÊN” AND “XUỐNG”

| The change in | Lên (upwards movement/positive change) | Xuống (downwards movement/negative change) |
|--------------------|---|---|
| Status | Lên voi (move up on the elephant) (in the expression “lên voi xuống ngựa”) | Xuống ngựa (move down on the horse) |
| Capability | Lên chân (competence/ expertise improves) Học lên hẳn (improve in study) | Xuống sức (competence/ expertise diminishes) Học xuống hẳn (worsen in study) |
| Amount/value | Chia lên (give more share) (in the expression “chia lên chia xuống”) Trả lên (give higher bid) (in the expression “trả lên trả xuống”) | Chia xuống (give less share) Trả xuống (give lower bid) |
| Appearance | Đẹp lên (become prettier) | Xuống sắc (look less pretty) |
| Mentality | Lên tinh thần (become high-spirited) | Xuống tinh thần (become low-spirited) |
| Intensity/strength | Tức lên (get angry) | Nín giận xuống (restrain one’s anger) |

Human emotions are metaphorised to reflect the directions such as “HAPPY IS UP” and “SAD IS DOWN” (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Vi (2007, p. 56) also find these directions in metaphors of emotions in Chinese expressions. As such, besides the metaphors ANGER IS HEAT and ANGER IS FIRE (Lakoff & Johnson 1980; Kovecses 2002), a Chinese expression “anger climbs three Chinese feet upwards” displays the metaphor ANGER IS UP. Lakoff & Johnson (1980) employs the image of FLUID to portray ANGER AND HAPPINESS: ANGER IS A HOT FLUID IN A CONTAINER and HAPPINESS IS A FLUID IN A CONTAINER. However, Lakoff & Johnson do not use this image to refer to the emotion of SAD. The authors refer to the level of energy in the fluid in the metaphor of ANGER, but not in the metaphor of HAPPINESS. They, moreover, do not elaborate on the flexibility of the CONTAINER: Is this CONTAINER flexible or rigid? These limitations diminish the motivations of their metaphors of ANGER and HAPPINESS, and leave the feeling of SAD outside this interpretation of the metaphors. If ANGER is looked upon as a fluid, how should we interpret such a expression of anger as “tức khí” (the gas is energetic enough to burst out of the container) in Vietnamese language, or “blowing off steam”/“letting off steam” in English language (Lakoff’s (1987) examples).

Human emotions are exposed from the body. In Western medicine, the human body contains fluid (blood and lymph) and gas (in lungs, in thoracic and abdominal cavities, and in blood in the form of dissolved oxygen molecules), and in Oriental medicine, it contains gas and blood. Thus, human emotions should be metaphorised as FLUID and GAS in an ELASTIC CONTAINER like a body:

- ANGER/HAPPINESS IS THE FLUID AND GAS WITH HIGH MOTION ENERGY IN AN ELASTIC CONTAINER

- SADNESS IS THE FLUID AND GAS WITH LOW MOTION ENERGY IN AN ELASTIC CONTAINER

In case of ANGER/HAPPINESS, the high motion energy makes the molecules start hitting each other so hard and fast they “merge” with each other. This new combination of the two molecules is lighter than water and pushes it upwards the surface and produces bubbles. Hence, the elastic container will bulge further (due to more gas) and the direction of ANGER/HAPPINESS is considered to be upwards such as “giận điên lên” (anger) and “vui lên” (happiness). In contrast, in case of SADNESS, the elastic container becomes deflated and the direction of SAD is downwards such as “xiu xuống”, “buồn rũ” (as sad as the withering plant).

C. Metaphors in “trước-sau” and “đi-lại”

The spatial prepositions “trước” (in front of) and “sau” (behind) are metaphorised in time expressions such as “trước Tết” (before Lunar New Year) and “sau Tết” (after Lunar New Year). The preposition “trước” also emerges in time metaphors with the implications of “facing” and “confronting”, for instance, “trước thềm năm mới” (facing the threshold of the new year) and “trước thời kỳ khủng hoảng kinh tế” (confronting the economic recession period).

Nguyen (2005, p. 49) views TIME drifting along an axis from behind to the front. However, TIME is metaphorised as a CONTAINER (Lakoff & Johnson 1980), so TIME is conceptualised to be three-dimensional (such as “trong năm” (in the year)), take up a space, and has spaces behind and in front of it. Thus, the movement of time away from the original point as expressed by the adverbial particle “đi” (such as “Thời gian qua đi” (time passed) and the movement of backwards to the original point as expressed by the adverbial particle “lại” (such as “thời gian quay lại” (time returned)) can be in diverse directions, not merely along an axis. The implications of the prepositions “đi” (away) and “lại” (back) are summarized in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE PREPOSITIONS “ĐI” (AWAY) AND “LẠI” (BACK)

| The change in | Đi (the movement away from the origin or centrifugal motion) | Lại (movement back to the origin or centripetal motion) |
|---------------|--|---|
| Size | | Nhỏ lại (become smaller) teo lại (shrink) |
| Sight | Khuất đi (out of sight) | |
| Status | Già đi (become older) | Trẻ lại (become younger) |

III. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Every language has its own beauty, which is increasingly deepened by the proliferation of metaphors. A number of abstract concepts have been analyzed through the lens of metaphorism. Metaphors in Vietnamese prepositions and adverbial particles denoting positions and movements in the space have been examined in this paper, contributing to further understanding on how these prepositions and adverbial particles are mapped into other concepts such as status, value, and capability.

REFERENCES

- [1] Kövecses, Z. (2002). *Metaphor: a practical introduction*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- [2] Lakoff, G. (1987). *Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things: What Categories Reveal about the Mind*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- [3] Lakoff, G. and Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- [4] Nguyen, D. D. (2005). Những giới từ không gian: Sự chuyển nghĩa và ẩn dụ (Spatial prepositions: Semantic changes and metaphors). *Language*, Vol. 196, No. 9, pp. 42-50.
- [5] Nguyen, H. (2007). Sự tri nhận và biểu đạt thời gian trong tiếng Việt qua ẩn dụ không gian (Cognition and expression of time in Vietnamese language via spatial metaphors). *Language*, No. 7., pp. 1-8.
- [6] Tran, N.T. (2004). Tìm về bản sắc văn hóa Việt Nam: Các nhìn hệ thống-loại hình (Discovering the identity of Vietnamese culture: Typological-systematic views). Ho Chi Minh City: Ho Chi Minh City General Publishing House.
- [7] Vi, T.P. (2007). Bước đầu khảo sát ẩn dụ tình cảm trong thành ngữ tiếng Hán và tiếng Việt (Preliminary investigation into emotional metaphors in Chinese and Vietnamese expressions). *Language*, Vol. 212, No. 1, pp. 52-60.



Luu Trong Tuan is currently an EFL teacher at National University of Ho Chi Minh City. He received his M.TESOL from Victoria University, Australia in 2004. Besides his focus on TESOL, his recent publications such as *Language Transfer is Cultural Transfer between Communities*, *Social Sciences Review*, No. 11, 2004, pp. 60-63; and *Principles for Scientific Translation*, *Social Sciences Review*, No. 8, 2004, pp. 63-67; and *Building Vietnamese Medical Terminology via Language Contact*, *Australian Journal of Linguistics*, Vol. 29, No. 3, September 2009, pp. 315-336 show his interest in language contact and translation areas.

A Reflection on Chinese “Chi”: From the Perspective of Cognitive Linguistics

Bin Wang

Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, Beijing, China

Fan Zhang

Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, Beijing, China

Email: finesandy@126.com

Abstract—cognitive linguistics fits for the analysis of Chinese language, for Chinese stems from hieroglyphics and phonogram. The character corresponds with the pronunciation, written form and meaning. The word is in the first phase of the character to actualize the grammaticalization. This paper, from the perspective of cognitive linguistics, analyzes the character “Chi” by prototype category, and the word about “Chi” by lexical formation. It also interprets that the formations of image schema and metaphor mechanism result in the emerging of many words about “Chi” and their corresponding meanings. This paper holds that cognitive linguistics can give a reasonable interpretation about one character with many meanings and its relative words with different meanings. The proficiency of cognitive linguistics can guide and help Chinese teaching for foreigners, natural language processing and automatic machine translation.

Index Terms—“Chi” and prototype category, “Chi” and lexical formation, image schema, metaphor

I. INTRODUCTION

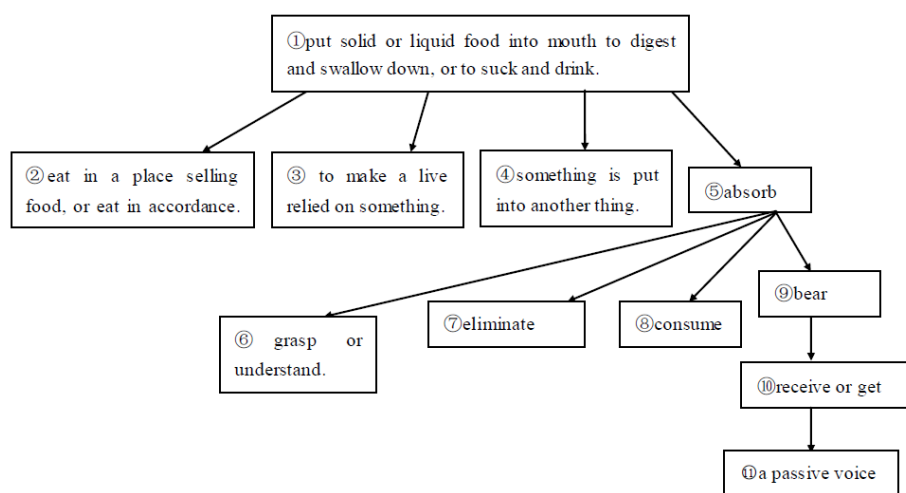
What’s the smallest structural unit of Chinese? “‘Character’ is the answer”, Zhao Yuanren, a prominent linguist, claims that, “Chinese character has a similar status as word in Indo-European language, but this never means they have similar or even the same structure (Zhao Yuanren, 1975. P241)”. What’s ‘character’? Some believe it refers to the square writing form; others hold it is the smallest reasonable structural unit of language. The Literary Mind and the Carving of Dragons (Wén Xīn Diào Lóng) also recorded that ‘a sentence consists in characters’. The hierarchical structure of Chinese language is character, character group (or word), phrase, clause, and sentence. Based on a square writing form, one character represents one syllable and usually one morpheme. Hence, the character corresponds with the pronunciation, form and meaning (note: one morpheme with two or more syllables is so uncommon that they can be listed out such as Pú táo (grape), Páodǎo (dancing), Pángūáng (hesitate)). In view of the relevancy of pronunciation and meaning, Xu Tongqiang defines character as a structural unit linking one syllable with one concept.

The word is in the first phase of grammaticalizing the character. Most of Chinese two-syllable words are composed of modifier-head, verb-object, verb-complement, or subject-predicate constructions. They can be grammaticalized by endocentric, exocentric or concentric devices. For instances, the character “shù”(tree) can form “sōngshù”(pine tree), “sāng shù”(mulberry tree), “táoshù”(peach tree), “lǚshù”(willow) etc. by endocentric device; it can form “shùgàn”(trunk), “shùyè”(leaf), “shùzhī”(branch), “shùchǎ”(twig) etc. by exocentric device; likewise, it composes “shùmù”(wood) or “shùlín”(forest) by concentric way. This thesis, from the perspective of cognitive linguistics, will analyze Chinese character “Chi” and words about “Chi” to further explain why words about “Chi” are so abundant.

II. THE PROTOTYPE CATEGORY OF “CHI”

According to cognitive linguistics, knowledge in form of network is preserved in our mind. In this network, some knowledge is in central position and hence is called prototype, easy to be mentioned and remembered, while other is in marginal place. Each character has a semantic category, including central meaning and marginal meaning. The central meaning is a prototype of the semantic category, which is firstly acquired and known as the denotative meaning. The category is built upon meaning extension. Take character “Chi” for example, in Modern Chinese Dictionary, the basic meaning of “Chi” is ①put solid or liquid food into mouth to digest and swallow down, or to suck and drink. E.g. “chīyào” (take medicine), “chīfàn”(eat food), “chīchá”(drink tea); the place, tableware, or food portion are involved when taking food, so “Chi” derives other extended meanings via metaphor mapping system ②eat in a place selling food, or eat in accordance with portion or standard. E.g. “chī shí fáng” (eat in canteen), “chī guǎnzi” (eat in a restaurant), “chī dà zǎo” or “chī dàguōfàn” (everyone eats in big pot to show egalitarian), “chī xiǎozǎo” (someone eats in small pot and gets special treatment); due to Chinese’s traditional view that food is such a basic necessity that it’s a primary matter to be solved in every walk of life. Therefore, “Chi” extends the third meaning ③ to make a live relied on something. E.g. “chī lǎo běn” (rest on one’s laurels/ to live on previously accumulated wealth), “chī shān” and “chī shuǐ” (if a man lives

on a mountain, he will live off the mountain/ if a man lives by the water, he will live off the water), “chī lǎobǎo” (live on labor security funds), “chī jǐ jù” (live by government’s relief), “chī fùmǔ” (rely on parents), “chī gōngzī” (live by support of one’s salary); if one does well in his job, he or she will “chī xiāng” or “chīde kāi” (win recognition from people because of his or her competence in a position); on the contrary, if one does worse in his job, he or she will “bù chīxiāng” or “chī bùkāi”; moreover, we need put food into mouth when eating, so “Chī” gets the fourth meaning ④something is put into another thing. E.g. “chī shuǐ” (the depth of boat entering the water), “chī qián” (money in the card is deducted without reason), “chī qiāngzǐ” (a bullet is shot into one’s body); when putting food into the mouth, we need chew in order to digest and absorb it. Then Chi leads the fifth meaning ⑤absorb. E.g. “chīyóu” (machine works after absorbing oil), “chī mó” (ink is absorb into paper); “absorb” metaphorically extends the sixth meaning ⑥grasp or understand. E.g. “chī búóu” (one cannot understand something); meanwhile “absorbing or digesting food” metaphorically extends the seventh meaning ⑦eliminate. E.g. “chīshuǐ” (to get rid of the opposite’s chief when playing Chinese chess game); some organs are involved to help consuming energy, hence “Chī” derives the eighth meaning ⑧consume. E.g. “chī lì” or “chījìn” (consume strength); however, these organs will load when working, so Chi gets the ninth meaning ⑨bear. E.g. “chī dēixiǎo” (somebody can bear the pressure), “chībúzhù” (sb. or sth. cannot bear the weight); “bear” metaphorically extends the tenth meaning ⑩receive or get (a passive voice). E.g. “chīkuī” (get the lost), “chī jīng” (get surprised), “chī pīpín” (get criticized), “chī biě” (suffer a setback); the tenth meaning further extends the eleventh meaning ⑪a passive voice structure. E.g. “chī tā chīxiào” (be laughed by sb.) but this expression was often used in early modern Chinese but less used now. A relational graph about the prototype and extensive meanings of character “Chī” is as follows:



(Figure 1)

III. WORD FORMATION ABOUT CHI

J. L. Packard believes Chinese possesses both words and word formation. He defines word from morphologic standard as an independent slot owner, namely a flexible linguistic form, labeled as X^0 . He differentiates five lexical categories on the grounds of two criteria: (1) whether the word keeps totally its primitive meaning or not, or reflects its connotation; (2) whether grammatical information is usable in general.

(1) Conventional lexicalization. Constituents of the word in this category still remain their independent identity of meaning and grammar. E.g. the word “chīfàn” (eat food), “chī yào” (take medicine).

(2) Metaphorical lexicalization. Elements of the word in this category have lost their primitive meaning and got some metaphoric meanings, which keep their grammatical relationship. E.g. the word “chī cù” (be jealous), “chī kǔ” (bear the hardships).

(3) Asemantic lexicalization. Constituents of the word in this category should be cognized diachronically, since they in the synchronic level lose their metaphoric meanings. E.g. the word “chī tā chīxiào” (be laughed at by him or her), “huǒ chē” (train), “wèn shì” (come out).

(4) Agrammatical lexicalization. Its constituents still have impact on the semantic word, but their grammatical relationship is no more in existence. E.g. “chī lì” (consume strength), “cǎi pǎ” (rehearse), “xuéjiū” (scholastic) and so on.

(5) Complete lexicalization. Inter structure and primitive meanings of constituents in the word have become opaque. E.g. “chī xīn” (care about), “huā shēng” (peanut), “wù sè” (seek out) and so on.

From (1) to (5), the higher the lexical level is, the less information each character in words offers, and then its constituents are much easier to be influenced by phonetic attenuation. A common pattern is that some constituent in highly-lexicalized words loses its accent or tone. That’s why “fǔ” in “chī dǒu fu” (usually means a man flirt with a

woman) and “dàn” in “chīyādan” (get a zero mark in the exam) become “fu” and “dan”.

Lakoff advocates that category and concept structure can gradually form syntax structure based on image schema and then a series of metaphor mapping. Therefore, he summarized six basic syntax structures according to his seven image schemas. As a premise of syntax structure, morphemic structures are accordingly classified the following types:

- 1) Inclusive one can be described as container schema, such as the word “chī fàn” (eat);
- 2) Hierarchical one can be described as part-whole schema, such as the word “chī dǒu shí fēn” (never share food or profits with others);
- 3) Referential or grammatical one can be described as link schema, such as “chīchī hēhē” (eat and drink);
- 4) “modifier-head” construction can be described as center-margin schema, such as “chī bù xiāo” (cannot bear);
- 5) “Verb + goal clause” one can be described as source-path-goal schema, such as “chū chéng” (go out of town);
- 6) “Distance” one can be described as linear schema, such as year, month and day;

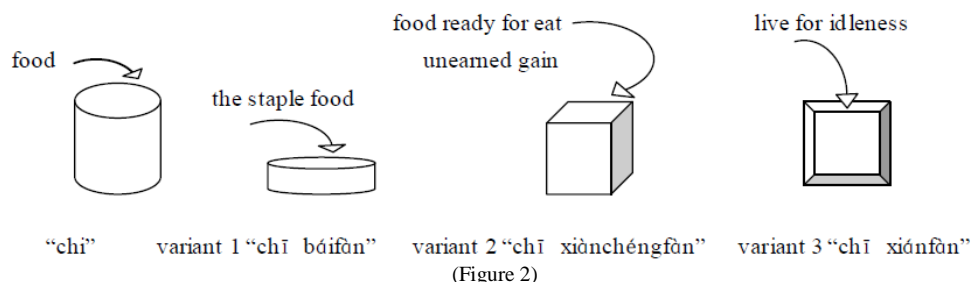
What needs our attention is container schema, for example, “chī fàn” (eat) is such a contained structure. We understand “chī fàn” by pouring food into mouth, namely, regarding mouth as a container and food as stuff in the container; likewise, we consider “chī bái fàn” (only eat the staple food/ not worth the salt), “chī xián fàn” (be a loafer or sponger), “chī xiànchéng fàn” (food ready for eat/ unearned gain) as this type of word formation, and as variants of “chī fàn” container schema.

Turner (Turner, 1996) states, relied on perception program, motor ability, and categorization of concepts and feelings, humans create abstract structures such as “image schema” or “dynamic link of differently distributed activities in the brain”, and then map abstract story structure into basic syntax or morphemic structure via parable. Different concrete events can produce one abstract story structure, and then form abstract syntax or morphemic structure; that’s to say, SVO or VO structure corresponds to story structure. For instance, “chī fàn” is a VO structure. In this structure, “Chī” is a verb, “fàn” is an inanimate object. The object can be abstract or animate, such as “chī jīng” (get surprised), “chī fùmǔ” (rely on parents), “chīshān” (if a man lives on a mountain, he will live off the mountain), “chīshuǐ” (if a man lives by the water, he will live off the water), “chīyù” (fuel consumption), “chīshí” (have food), “chīzuǐ” (gluttony) and so on. We have known that “Chī” has a meaning of making a living by sth., so VO structure “chī+food” is metaphorically indicated as people who make a living by sth. For instances, “chī huánglǐ áng” or “chī gōngzǐ” (officials work in government); “chī kāikǒu fàn” (an actor); “chī fěnbihuī” (a teacher); “chī lì áng” (a soldier); “chī wǎpiàn” (a landlord).

IV. REASONS WHY MANY WORDS ABOUT “CHI” EMERGE ENDLESSLY

A. Image-schema

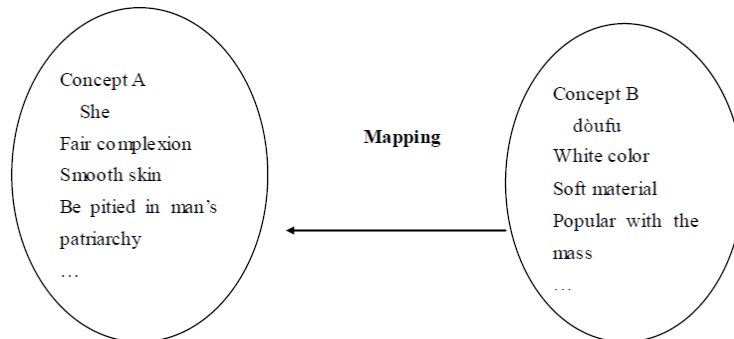
Image is specific and experienced mental representation, which can be explained by feeling, sensation, and phenomenon. The progressive relation among them shows a general law of original stage known by people. Schema refers to a regular cognitive structure organized by processing experience and information in order to store long in memory. Humans acquire image schema when proceed interactivities with the objective world. Many a image schemas form a cognitive model (CM); lots of cognitive models constitute an ideal cognitive model (ICM). Therefore, humans, based on the above models, build category to get concept or meaning. Lakoff claims that image schema is formed mainly depending on feeling, sensation, and interactive experience; and it is an abstract structure prior to concept and language. He also discusses 7 kinds of image schemas: container (such as “in”, “inside”), source-path-aim (such as “through”), connection (such as “link”), part-whole (such as “structure”), center-margin (such as “radiation”), up-down (such as “above”, “below”), and front-back (such as “before”, “after”). Image schemas are formed to be more categories and conceptions, especially abstract ones, and help humans acquire logical or reasoning ability via the extension or transfer of metaphoric or metonymic mechanism. From simple concept to complex concept, people gradually form a systematic concept structure in their mind. Reason why many words about “Chi” emerge endlessly is that people form an image schema about “chi” (specifically, container image schema), and then form a cognitive model, and make “chi” extend lots of relative words via metaphor mechanism. We can show it in the following figure:



B. Metaphor

Metaphor refers to through mapping concept B replaces concept A in use of their relationship. The basic working principle of metaphor is the cognitive mechanism based on five tools (subject, tenor, vehicle, ground, and context). The

nature of metaphor is similarity or analogy. We will take two examples: “chī cù” is considered to be jealous, “chī dòufu” is thought of as being molested by others. In a sentence “Tā bǎ chī dòufu le”, the subject is she, tenor is “dòufu” (concept B), vehicle is she (concept A), the ground is she is molested. As for the context, we can suppose a guy says some sexual innuendos, or somebody molests her on the bus and so on. But how to build this similarity between “dòufu” and she? The following figure shows the answer:



(Figure 3)

Lakoff classifies three kinds of metaphors in his book *Metaphor We Lived By*: structure metaphor, orientation metaphor and container metaphor. In container metaphor, people regard those abstract emotion, mental activity, event or state as concrete entities so that they can discuss, quantify or identify their features (Zhao Yanfang, 2004). The most representative one of entity metaphor is container metaphor, which considers people or organs of people, object, invisible and abstract activity or condition as a container. For examples, in a sentence “jīqì chī yóu”, we visualize “jīqì” (machine) as a container, and imagine that oil is poured into this container. In the word “chī fàn”, people or mouth is regarded as a container, and food is stored in this container, but “chī báifàn”, “chī xiánfàn”, “chī xiànchéngfàn” are variants of this container metaphor. It is a metaphoric mapping from concrete to abstract one, too.

V. CONCLUSION

A conclusion can be made from the above analysis: based on the principal meaning or a prototype, at least 10 margined meanings about “chi” can be extended via metaphoric mechanism to enrich the semantic category about “chi”. Due to the metaphorical extension of word formation, constituents added behind verb “chi” is complex, and many meanings are derived to form a multi-meaning category of “chi” (especially container schema and V-O structure types). Based on prototype structure, we develop its usage via metaphor mechanism, and gradually form a dynamic and strongly adaptive word formation. Though limited capacity, the brain possesses delimited creation. This creation displays when humans enlarge valid memory by metaphor (rename something) in accordance with existing language cognitive form with the development of human’s cognitive ability. It deserves notice that image schema plays a key role in people’s renaming something, or mapping a concept into another concept, particularly mapping from concrete domain to abstract domain. All kinds of image schemas are interwoven to constitute our ample experience network and concept structures. Hence, this thesis holds that image schema and metaphor can explain why people create so many words about “chi” and its multi meanings.

At the same time, the significances of grasping cognitive linguistics display from two sides: firstly, it can help and guide Chinese language teaching for foreigners. If Chinese teachers know the relationship among these meanings of a word with multi meanings is mapping from concrete to abstract one, he or she can guide foreign students to know the rule of developing words and intrinsic developing mechanism so that these students improve their comprehensive ability. What’s more, knowing metaphor helps them to better understand some special expressions, and finally improve their reading or appreciation ability. This point can bridge two countries’ culture as well. Secondly, it has guidance to natural language process and machine translation. For instance, if we systematically collect words about “chi” and their corresponded meanings as different language chunks, which are stored into computer system to transfer into natural language, letting machine chooses a suitable words according to different contexts when translating automatically.

REFERENCES

- [1] Dictionary Editorial Office, Institute of Language, Chinese Academy of Social Sciences (Eds). (2005). *Modern Chinese Dictionary*. Beijing: Commercial Press.
- [2] J. L. Packard (editor). Yang Yiming & Yu Guangwu (review). (2003). A review of the *Morphology of Chinese: A Linguistic and Cognitive Approach*. *Modern Linguistics*. 21, P64-72
- [3] Leech Geoffrey (editor). Li Ruihua & Yang Zijian (trans.). (1987). *Semantics*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [4] Turner. (1996). Blending as a Central Process of Grammar. In *Conceptual Structure, Discourse and Language*. Standford: CSLT Publications. P113-129.

- [5] Wang Yin. (2007). *Cognitive Linguistics*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [6] Wu Shan & Li Fuyin. (2008). A Cognitive Semantic Analysis of the Chinese Polysemous Word “Li”. In *Journal of Beijing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics (Social Sciences Edition)*. 21, P1-4
- [7] Yang Zijian. (2004). *English-Chinese Comparative Study and Translation*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [8] Zhao Yanfang. (2001). *An Introduction to Cognitive Linguistics*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [9] Zhao Yuanren. (1975). *The Concept, Structure and Rhythm of Chinese Word*. Selection of Zhao Yuanren’s Linguistics Papers. Beijing: Tsinghua University Press.

Bin Wang was born in Sichuan, China in 1968. He received his PH.D. degree in linguistics from Beijing Normal University, China in 2010.

He is currently a professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, Beijing, China. His research interests include linguistics and translation.

Fan Zhang was born in Hubei, China in 1986. She received his M.A. degree in English linguistics and literature from Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, China in 2011.

She is currently a graduate of Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, Beijing, China. Her research interests include linguistics and American literature.

Code Switching in the Lexical Corpora of Children

B. A. Mahalakshmi Prasad
All India Institute of Speech and Hearing, Mysore, India
Email: machiprasad@gmail.com

Prema K. S. Rao
All India Institute of Speech and Hearing, Mysore, India

Abstract—Code switching is the hallmark of communication in a multilingual society. Code switching occurs in everyday speech at words, morphemes sentence and discourse levels. There are varied perspectives on the phenomenon of code switching where linguists have viewed code switching as inevitable in a plurilingual situation. Few believe that code switching helps to express meanings more precisely, others believe that code switching vitiates a language, rather than enhance the communication between individuals. In the Indian context extensive research on code switching in children has been undertaken which focus on how children use languages in the home setting with adults/parents or their siblings and suggest that bilingual children switch between language/s according to the cognitive demands of the tasks and the contextual demands such as participants and topics. The present study is designed to address code switching in children's speech corpora. In the present study, the speech corpora elicited from six to eight-year-old children who are native speakers of Kannada language living in Mysore city but exposed to other languages by virtue of the multilingual environment both in their neighbourhood as well as in school, showed instances of code switching in their speech sample. The children switched languages while describing certain aspects of language like categories of nouns referring to vegetables, furniture, verb categories, and identification of colours. In the present study, the base language is Kannada, a language that shows highest number of morphemes in an utterance (Scotton, 1993). The study gives evidence for children's ability from very early age to use linguistic codes from different languages as an equivalent of native language code depending on the context.

Index Terms—code switching, Kannada, English, spoken language, lexical corpora, children

I. INTRODUCTION

Code switching (CS) is one of the phenomena of spoken language that is observed in a multilingual society. It can be defined as the appearance of language contact and mixing, which include borrowing on the lexical and syntactic levels, language transfer, etc.

Early works in the area of code switching tended to consider sociolinguistic factors such as setting, topics, domain, participants, and language function etc. (Fishman 1967) proposes a domain-specific code-switching model wherein bilingual speakers choose which code to speak depending on where they are and what they are discussing. (Grosjean 1982) observed that the choice of a code used by a speaker in a particular context signals about group solidarity, ethnic identity etc. Tay (1989) observes that in multilingual societies common communicative strategies have evolved and speakers are not aware of their code switching behaviour during discourse. Myers-Scotton (1995) observes that speakers are aware of the range of codes that are appropriate in a particular context and the choice of codes used by these speakers.

A. Theoretical Framework for the Study

Linguists and Speech Language Pathologists have been fascinated with the phenomenon of code switching and have carried out vast research in this area. (Lance 1975) was the first to question the linguistic constraint in the phenomenon of code switching and concluded that there was none. Lance's theories were refuted by studies done by (Gumperz 1976), (Timm 1975), (Kachru 1977), (Pfaff 1976 & 1979), (Gibbons 1979) and (Woolford 1983).

B. Code Switching vs. Borrowing.

It is undisputable that the early traders and settlers from different regional backgrounds who settled in the former British colonies played a crucial role in the phenomenon of early borrowings from languages spoken locally into English and vice versa. These early lexical borrowings have established themselves in the native language and continued to be used by the native speakers rampantly. Borrowing, has been defined as "a performance phenomenon, not a learning process, a feature, therefore, of language use and not of language structure" (Corder 1992: 26). In other words, borrowing is a communication strategy, which compensates for missing knowledge during conversational

speech production. Researchers such as (Tarone 1983) have classified borrowing as a language learning strategy¹. Borrowing can be used by a single individual or by a speech community, and it usually affects the lexicon only; when the whole speech group incorporates a word from one language into the other, the borrowed word becomes firmly established in the speech. (Haugen 1950) in his model of lexical borrowing defines the resulting linguistic changes resulting from this phenomenon as 'importation' where the original form and pronunciation of a particular feature are retained as part of the transfer process from source language to the recipient language. 'Substitution' where the borrowed features changes in form or pronunciation utilising the morphemic and phonemic features that have been adapted leading to nativization of the borrowed word to make the borrowing conform to the native language restrictions. However, several researchers like (Poplock 2000), (Myer-Scotton 2004) and (Muysken 2000) draw distinction between code switching and borrowing citing the reason that borrowed words are more likely to be integrated into the recipient language. (Myers-Scotton 2002) tries to give an explanation to this criterion by enumerating that that if a borrowed word or switched word has a dictionary entry i.e. if the word is listed in the speaker's mental lexicon then its status is undisputed. Borrowed words are assumed to be listed in the mental vocabulary of the speaker where as switched words are not, as the phenomenon of borrowing of words is more frequent and predictable than switching words.

Alternatively, (Poplack 1981), (Sankoff, and Poplack 1981), proposed two major syntactic constraints of code switching, i.e., 'Equivalence Constraint' and the 'Free Morpheme Constraint' on code switching. The equivalence constraint states that the switched sentences are made of integrated fragments of alternating languages, each of which is grammatical in the language of its origin. The boundary between adjacent fragments occurs between two constituents that are ordered in similar way in both languages, ensuring the linear coherence of sentence structure without omitting or duplicating lexical content (Lipski1977), (Pfaff 1979), (Muysken 2000). The equivalence constraint has been verified as a general tendency by innumerable studies conducted in Spanish-English -(Poplock1978; 1980; 1981); Finnish-English -(Poplock et al., 1978), Arabic-Finnish- (Barek & Sankoff, 1988), Tamil- English- (Sankoff et al., 1990), Fongbe-French- (Meechan & Poplock, 1995), Wolof-French- (Poplock & Meechan, 1995), Igbo-English -(Eze,1998), French- English -(Turpin1998) and Ukranian-English-Budzhak-(Jones 1998).

Several studies have been conducted to specifically explore code-switching behaviours in children e.g., (Bauer & Montero, 2001); (Fantini, 1985); (McClure, 1977); (Saunders, 1982). Findings suggest that bilingual children switch languages according to the cognitive demands of the tasks and the contextual demands such as participants and topics. However, these case studies usually focus on how children use languages in the home setting with adults/parents or their siblings.

The present study is a part of the study taken-up for post-doctoral work that is aimed at establishment of spoken language corpus of children between the ages of six to eight, in Kannada language residing in the city of Mysore. It examines the phenomenon of code switching in the speech of six to eight year old children who are native speakers of Kannada language living in Mysore city. Spoken language data of six children was elicited through the elicitation of a story using standardised pictures, (Nagapoornima, 1990), narration and through administration of Computerized Linguistic Protocol for Screening (CLIPS), (Anitha & Prema, 2008). The speech samples were recorded on a digital recorder, transcribed, and coded for analysis. The data was analysed using Systematic Analysis of Language Transcripts (SALT) (Miller and Chapman 1982). In the present study the base language considered is the mother tongue of the children, a language in which the highest number of morphemes in an utterance is present (Myers-Scotton 1993).

The spoken language data of six children, whose mother tongue is Kannada and who go to Kannada medium schools was elicited through pictures in different contexts of story elicitation, narration and through administration of Computerized Linguistic Protocol for Screening (CLIPS), (Anitha & Prema, 2008). The following informant criterion was adhered to:

Criteria for selecting the children for the study

- Native speakers of Kannada language (Mysore dialect)
- Age range of 6-8 years
- Residents of Mysore
- Children attending Kannada medium school
- Children of parents who speak the same language / dialect

II. METHOD

The data was collected in the month of April 2010. The data was collected in the participant's school. The school's permission was sought before collecting the language samples from the participant. For the purposes of administering the test to elicit language data, each participant was seen individually in a room. The data was elicited in three steps.

- Picture description - CLIPS, (Anitha & Prema, 2004)
- Story telling - Standardised pictures, (Nagapoornima, 1990)
- Narration of experiences in school (Spontaneous)

¹ Tarone's Classifications of Communication Strategies refers to the strategy of "borrowing" as the process, which involves the learner either translating word for word from the L1 to express his meaning, or using the L1 to convey his meaning without bothering to translate.

The participant's class teacher assistance was procured to fill out a questionnaire to collect the demographic details of the participants. The data was recorded on an Olympus digital voice recorder. The language samples were transcribed and morphological units were marked. The transcripts were analysed with the aid of SALT (Miller & Chapman 1981)

The story narration task involved showing the participant a standardised pictures, (Nagapoomima, 1990) that has a series of related pictures that can be used to narrate a story. The narration task involved asking the child the games he likes to play. (CLIPS) Computerized Linguistic Protocol for Screening (CLIPS), (Anitha & Prema, 2008) is a comprehension expression task that has pictures used in different linguistic variables such as semantics (lexical categories, antonyms, polar question, syntagmatic relationship, paradigmatic relationship, semantic similarity, semantic anomaly, semantic contiguity) Syntax (plurals, sentence types, PNG markers, transitives, intransitives, causatives, conditionals, conjunctions, comparatives, quotatives, case markers, tenses, participial constructions)

The children switched languages while describing certain aspects of language like categories of nouns referring to vegetables, furniture, verb categories, and identification of colours. They also used words that have been nativised by the addition of the vowel 'u' to the borrowed word².

The spoken language data was transcribed and marked according to the protocols of SALT software Systematic Analysis of Language Transcripts (Miller & Chapman 1981). The following linguistic measures were procured from the analysis of the data. The Mean Length Utterance (MLU) which is a measure of linguistic productivity in children. In the present study the base language is Kannada, the mother tongue of the children, a language that shows highest number of morphemes in an utterance (Scotton, 1993). Type-token ratio (TTR) is a measure of vocabulary variation within a written text or a person's speech. The type-token ratio is a helpful measure of lexical variety within a text. Number of different words is the number of different root words the speaker has used in his speech. Code switching (CS) the number of instances of code switching seen in a transcript, and nativisation the number of instances of nativisation of words seen in a particular transcript.

| Sl. No | No.of Total Words | MLU | No.of Diff Words | TTR | CS | Nativisation |
|---------------------|-------------------|------|------------------|------|----|--------------|
| Transcript 1 | 389 | 31.9 | 242 | 0.62 | 67 | 6 |
| Transcript 2 | 438 | 3.13 | 236 | 0.54 | 71 | 12 |
| Transcript 3 | 364 | 3.22 | 218 | 0.60 | 42 | 8 |
| Transcript 4 | 358 | 3.20 | 206 | 0.58 | 38 | 14 |
| Transcript 5 | 354 | 3.25 | 188 | 0.53 | 42 | 6 |
| Transcript 6 | 362 | 3.22 | 220 | 0.53 | 42 | 8 |

(MLU) Mean Length Utterance, (TTR) Type-token ratio, (CS) Code switching

The children code switched or borrowed words from English language while naming vegetables and fruits, furniture, profession, automobiles and certain verbs.

The participants used terms from English to describe the linguistic categories given in the tables below in table 1

TABLE 1

| | |
|-------------|--|
| Address | Aunty, Miss |
| Relation | Friend |
| Colour | Black, White |
| Noun | Pencil, Scale, Bed sheet, Book, Bucket, School, Tub, Bottle, Glass, Subject, Market, Bat, Kitchen, Bathroom, Room, Gym |
| Automobiles | Bus, Car, Train, Cycle, Auto, Scooter |
| Clothing | Sweater, Shirt, Pant |
| Profession | Tailor, Police, Doctor, Nurse, Teacher |
| Furniture | Table, chair |
| Food | Tea, Carrot, Papaya, Ice cream, apple, grapes |
| Verb | Cutting, Dance |

A list of words that are nativised are given below in table 2

² The rule of Kannada language is that words do not end with a consonant sound, all the words end with a vowel sound and therefore, people generally add 'u' to the English word and incorporate it into their speech. E.g Chairu, tabelu, glassu, pencilu etc.

TABLE 2

| Lexical Category | Nativised word | Transliteration | Transcription |
|------------------|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| Automobile | Busu Caru Railu | bassu kaar railu | bæssu karu rajlu |
| Profession | Teacheru Tailoru Sisteru Doctoru | TiCaru Tailaru sisTar DaakTar | titfæru telæru sistæru daktæru |
| Furniture | Tabelu Chairu | TEballu cEru | tebælu tjæru |
| Noun | Scaleu Pencilu Roomu | skElu pensillu rUmu | skelu pænsælu rumu |
| Food | Ice creamu, appleu, grapesu | aiskrImu appallu grEpsuA | ajs krimu, æpællu, grepsu |
| Clothing | Shirtu Pantu | sharTu pyaaMTu | færtu pæntu |
| Colour | Blacku, whiteu, greenu | blAku vaiTu grInu | blæku, wajtu, gri:nu |
| Games | Volleyballu | vaalibaalu | valibølu |
| Verbs | outu | ouTu | awtu |

III. DISCUSSION

The following types of code switching have been observed in the children's speech.

Borrowing- is the use of a word from another language, which demonstrates morphological/phonological adaptation to the matrix language. Often it represents the appropriation of a term not available in the matrix language.

(Myers and Scotton 2004) "dictionary criterion" which avers that if a borrowed word or switched word has a dictionary entry i.e. if the word is listed in the speaker's mental lexicon then its status is undisputed. Borrowed words are assumed to be listed in the mental vocabulary of the speaker where as switched words are not as the phenomenon of borrowing of words is more frequent and predictable than switching.

A careful glance at the data reveals that the children switched code while speaking or naming certain categories. There exists an equivalent Kannada word for some of the most of the words used by the children. The children were aware of the particular equivalent Kannada word and yet chose to use the English words.

Eg: Ivru cutting madtavare (a response to the picture of a barber cutting hair)

Cutting is an English word in Kannada the equivalent word is katarsu

The sentence is something like ivru kudlu kuturstaiddare.

Yaaru hidyalla avaru outu (describing a game)

The one who doesnot catch, he is considered out.

The sentence in Kannada would be yaaru hidiyalla avaru atadinda ache.

Equivalence constraint introduced by Poplack and her associates (Poplack 1980, 1981); (Sankoff and Poplack 1981) The Equivalence constraint has this form in (Poplack 1980). "Code switches tend to occur at point in discourse where juxtaposition of L1 and L2 elements does not violate a syntactic rule of wither language, i.e, at points around which the surface structure of the two languages map onto each other". According to this simple constraint, a switch is inhibited from occurring within a constituent generated by a rule from one language which is not shared by another" However, the syntactic structure of Kannada and English languages are different from each other. Kannada language belongs to the family of Dravidian language and follows the SOV(subject-object-verb) sequence and English belongs to the Indo-European following the SVO(subject-verb-object) sequence. The Dual Structure Principle proposed by (Sridhar and Sridhar 1980) who studied the phenomenon of code switching between the Kannada and English languages produced their own constraint on linear ordering, restricting the point at which code switch constituent may being, but allowing for the possibility that a constituents internal structure differs from that of the host language. The Dual Structure Principle is as follows "the internal structure of the guest constituent (Embedded Language) need not conform to the

constituent structures rules of the host language {Matrix language}. So long as placement in the host language obeys the rules of the host language.

1. Train inda biltovane
He is falling from the train,
2. Dance madtavre
They are dancing

It has been hypothesized that, if code-switching and borrowing are basically the same thing, it should be possible to formulate principles that are valid for both language contact phenomena. Well-known 'hierarchies of borrowability' (Haugen, 1953); (Muysken, 1981) can be applied to show that some types of constituents are switched more often, and more easily than others like the constituents that represent food, furniture etc. Data also revealed that nouns constitute to a large number of switches. This finding corroborate to the findings of various studies involving different language pairs, for example (Pfaff 1979), (Poplack 1980,81) and (Timm 1975) studies on English-Spanish where nouns were found to comprise the highest number of switches (Berk-Seligson 1986)

The reasons for borrowing generally can be ascertained to prestige as indicated by the presences of the words in the native language for the borrowed item the prestige perspective gives explanation to the borrowings of basic vocabulary items into the native language such as words related to categories of noun, verbs, profession etc. Therefore, the words that are being used by children in their speech is well established, rampantly used nativised structures of the borrowed words.

The demographic data revealed that children belong to the lower socio economic group and are seldom exposed to external influences of different languages and styles. The parents of most of the children are daily wagers and the sole motivation of the parents to send the child to school is the 'mid-day meal' scheme initiated by the Government of Karnataka.

IV. SUMMARY

In the present study, the examples demonstrate that code switching occurs in children's speech. It also demonstrates that in a plurilingual country like India, pure monolingual speakers do not exist as evident from the instances of code switching seen in the language of children who go to Kannada medium schools, whose mother tongue is Kannada and are living in predominantly Kannada speaking neighbourhood.

The children switched codes from Kannada to English and rarely in Hindi. Further research is required in the code switching phenomena in children involving syntactically divergent languages like Kannada and English.

In the process of establishing a spoken language corpora of children more instances on code switching may emerge over time throwing light on the codes and the motivation for code switching by children.

APPENDIX

Apple, grapes
Kannada equivalent (Sebu, drakshi)
Hajam
(for a picture of a barber, Kannada equivalent shoura)
Bhaia
(for a picture of boy, Kannada equivalent anna)
Intrasentential- switching at the clause, phrase level, or at word level.
Yaaru hidyalla avaru out
(The one who does not catch, he is considered out)

REFERENCES

- [1] Anitha, R., & Prema, K.S. (2008). Computerized linguistic protocol for screening. Unpublished Master's thesis. University of Mysore: Mysore.
- [2] Bauer, E. B., & Montero, K. (2001). Reading versus translating: A preschool bilingual's interpretation of text. In. Hoffman. J. V., Schallert. D. L., Fairbanks C. M., Worthy. J., & Maloch.B. (Ed.), *Fiftieth Yearbook of the National Reading Conference* (Vol. 50). Chicago: National Reading Conference.
- [3] Berk-Seligson (1986). Linguistic constraints on intrasentential code switching: A study of Spanish-Hebrew bilingualism. Cambridge University Press.
- [4] Budzhak-J.S. (1998). Against word-internal code switching: Evidence from Ukaranian-English bilingualism. *International Journal of Bilingualism* 2 (2): 161-82
- [5] Corder, S. Pit. (1992). A role for the mother tongue. In Gass. S, & Selinker. L., (Ed.), *Language Transfer in Language Learning*. (pp. 18-31). Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company
- [6] Eze, E. (1998). Lending credence to a borrowing analysis: Lone English-origin incorportaions in Igbo discourse. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 2 (2):183-201
- [7] Fantini, A. (1985). Language acquisition of a bilingual child: A sociolinguistic perspective. San Diego: College Hill Press.

- [8] Fishman, Joshua. (1967). Bilingualism with and without Diglossia; Diglossia with and without Bilingualism. *Journal of Social Issues* 23(2), 29-38.
- [9] Gibbons, J. (1979). U-Gay-Wa: a linguistic study of the campus language of students at the university of Hong Kong. In R. Lord (Ed.) *Hong Kong Language Papers*. Hong Kong University Press.
- [10] Grosjean, F. (1982). *Life with Two Languages: An Introduction to Bilingualism*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press
- [11] Gumperz, John. J. (1976). The sociolinguistic significance of controversial code switching. Working papers of the Language Behavior research Laboratory. University of California.
- [12] Gumperz, John J. (1982). *Discourse Strategies*. Cambridge University Press.
- [13] Haugen, Einar. (1950). The analysis of linguistic borrowing. *Language* 26, 210-231
- [14] Haugen, E. (1953). *The Norwegian language in America: A study in bilingual behaviour*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania
- [15] Kachru, B. B. (1977). Code-switching as a communicative strategy in India. In *linguistics and Anthropology*, M. Saville-Troike (Ed.), *Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics*. Washington, D. C: Georgetown University Press
- [16] Lance, D.M. (1975). Spanish English code switching. In Chavez E. H., & Beltramo, A (Ed) *El lenguaje de los chicanos*. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics
- [17] Lipski, J. (1977). Code switching and the problems of bilingual competence. In Parads. M. (Ed.), *Aspects of Bilingualism*. Columbia, SC: Hornbeam Press
- [18] McClure, E. (1977). Aspects of code-switching in the discourse of bilingual Mexican-American children. In M. Saville-Troike (Ed.), *Linguistics and Anthropology*. Washington, DC: George Town University Press, 93-115.
- [19] Meechan, M., and S. Poplack. (1995). Orphan categories in bilingual discourse: Adjectivization strategies in Wolof-French and Fongbe-French bilingual discourse. *Language Variation and Change* 7(2) 169-94
- [20] Miller, J. F. (2009). SALT Software, Retrieved June 8th, 2010, from www.saltsoftware.com
- [21] Muysken, P. (1981). *Generative studies on Creole languages*. Foris Publications, Dordrecht, Holland
- [22] Muysken, P.C. (2000). *Bilingual Speech: A typology of Code-Mixing*. Cambridge University Press.
- [23] Myers-Scotton, C. (1993). *Duelling Languages: Grammatical Structure in Code switching*. Oxford University Press.
- [24] Myers-Scotton, C. (1995). *Social Motivations for Code switching: Evidence from Africa*. Oxford University Press.
- [25] Myers-Scotton, C. (2002). Making a minimalist approach to code switching work: Adding the Matrix Language. *Bilingualism, Language and Cognition* 5: 69-91.
- [26] Myers-Scotton, C. (2004). Predicting and explaining code switching and grammatical convergence across linguistic varieties. *Journal of Chinese Sociolinguistics* 2: 1-17
- [27] Myers-Scotton, C. (2005). Supporting a differential access hypothesis: Codeswitching and other contact data. In Kroll, J. L., & A De Groot (Eds.), *Handbook of Bilingualism, Psycholinguistic Approaches*, pp. 326-48. Oxford University Press.
- [28] Nagapoomima, M. (1990). Disfluencies in children (3-4 years). In M. Jayaram & S.R. Savithri (Eds.), *Research at AIISH, Dissertation Abstracts: Volume II*, pp. 171-173.
- [29] Nait, M. Barek, M., and D. Sankoff. (1998). Le discours mixte arabe/français: des emprunts ou des alternance de langue? *Revue Canadienne de Linguistique* 33(2): 143-54 in
- [30] Pfaff, Carol. W. (1976). Functional and structural constraints on syntactic variation in code switching. In Steever, B., et al. (Eds) *papers from the Para session on diachronic syntax*. Chicago Linguistic Society
- [31] Pfaff, Carol. W. (1979). Constraints on language mixing. *Language* 55: 291-318
- [32] Poplack, S. (1978/81). Syntactic structure and social function of code-switching. In Duran, R. P., (Ed.), *Latino Discourse and Communicative Behaviour*. Ablex Publishing Corporation. 169-84.
- [33] Poplack, Shana (1980). Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish y termino en español: toward a typology of code-switching. *Linguistics* 18: 581-618.
- [34] Poplack, S. (1981). 'Syntactic structure and social function of code-switching'. Duran, R.P. (Ed.), *In Latino Language and Communicative Behaviour*. Ablex Publishing Corporation pp. 169-84.
- [35] Poplack, S. & Meechan, M. (1995). 'Patterns of language mixture: nominal structure in Wolof-French and Fongbe-French bilingual discourse. In Milroy & Muysken (Eds.), *One Speaker, Two languages*. Cambridge University Press.
- [36] Poplack, Shana. (2000). *The English history of African American English*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- [37] Poplack, Shana (2004). Code-Switching. In Ammon, U., N. Dittmar, K.J. Mattheier and Trudgill, P. (Eds). *Sociolinguistics. An International Handbook of the Science of Language and Society*. Walter de Gruyter. 589-596.
- [38] Sankoff, D. and Poplack, S. (1981). A formal grammar for code-switching. *Papers in. Linguistics: International Journal of Human Communication*, 14: 3-46
- [39] Sankoff, D., Poplack, S., and Vanniarajan, S. (1990). The case of the nonce loan in Tamil. *Language Variation and Change*, 2(1), 71--101.
- [40] Tay, M.W. (1989). Code switching and code-mixing as a communicative strategy in multilingual discourse. *World Englishes*, 8, 407-417.
- [41] Tarone, E. (1983). Some thoughts on the notion of "communication strategy." In C. Faerch & Kasper, G (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication* (pp. 61-74). Longman.
- [42] Timm, L. (1975). Spanish-English code switching: el porque y how-not-to. *Romance Philology* 28: 473-482.
- [43] Turpin, Danielle. (1998). Le français, c'est le last frontier: the status of English-origin nouns in Acadian French. *International Journal of Bilingualism* 2, 221-233.
- [44] Woolford, E. (1983). Bilingual code-switching and syntactic theory. *Linguistic Inquiry* 14.



B. A. Mahalakshmi Prasad is a student at the Department of Speech Language Sciences in the All India Institute of Speech and Hearing, Mysore. She was born in Mysore in 1979. She holds a Ph.D in Linguistics titled, 'A study of communication through theatre, Scio Linguistic Perspective from Prescott- University, U.K in 2008 and a M.A in English Literature, University of Mysore 2002. Articles published by her- B.A. Mahalakshmi Prasad (2010) Instances of Code Switching in Indian Television Serials. Language in India; B.A. Mahalakshmi Prasad (2010) Code Switching in Kailsam's Play-Poli Kitty. Language in India; B.A. Mahalakshmi Prasad (2010) Corpus Linguistics as a Methodology for Studies in Sociolinguistics. The Fifth Inter-Varietal Applied Corpus Studies (IVACS) group International Conference 2010.

She is currently pursuing her POST-DOCTORAL FELLOW 2009-2011 at All India Institute of Speech and Hearing, Mysore. She also served as a RESOURCE PERSON at the Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore between 2003-2007. FACULTY DEPT. OF ENGLISH at the Mahajana Degree College, Mysore between 2007-2008. Her research interests are in the field of language teaching and language technology

Dr. Prasad is a member of Linguistic Society of India.



Prema K. S. Rao is a Professor at the Department of Speech Language Sciences in the All India Institute of Speech and Hearing, Mysore. Her academic achievements are as follows: Post-doctoral Study (Senior Research) on Prevention of Literacy Failures (Language-based learning disability) On Fulbright Fellowship by The Univ. of Virginia and Univ. of Toledo, Ohio, USA in 2005-2006; Advanced study in 'Community Health Care and Research' Kon Kaen Hospital, Thailand Awarded WHO Fellowship in 2005; Ph.D (Speech & Hearing) All India Institute of Speech and Hearing, Mysore Title of thesis: Reading Acquisition Profile in Kannada in 1998;

She has over 26 years of experience in clinical, teaching, research and community service. Currently she is serving as the HEAD OF DEPARTMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION at All India Institute of Speech and Hearing, Mysore and PROFESSOR -DEPARTMENT OF SPEECH LANGUAGE SCIENCES at the All India

Institute of Speech and Hearing, Mysore She has published vastly in the area of Speech Language Sciences to list a few. Karanth P., Manjula R., Geetha Y. V. & Prema K. S. (2007). 'Asamartharigagi ondu tarabathi sadhana: ondu kiru sahayadondige/' (With a Little Bit of Help... Early Language Training Manual') in Kannada, Disability Training Aids, Books for Change, Action Aid India, India; Prema K.S (2007). Organization and Planning (course IV). Self learning material for Diploma in Hearing, Language and Speech, All India Institute of Speech and Hearing, Mysore, India; Prema K.S. Rao. , Prasitha, P. , Savitha, S. , Purushotham, P. , Chitra, R. , & Balaji, R.. 'Clinical Markers for Identification of Children with SLI'. In D. Vasanta (ed.) Special Issue on Clinical Linguistics in the Indian Context: Assessment of Language Disorders, Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics-Special Volume, 2010, Bahri Publications, pp.181-192. Her research interests include language acquisition, emergent literacy.

Dr. Rao is an active member of Indian Speech and Hearing Association International Reading Association, USA. Dravidian Linguistics Association Fulbright Alumni Association Women in Science Indian Association for Preschool Education AIISH Alumni Association.

A Comparative Study on English Translations of Culture-loaded Words in *The Art of War*

Hongman Li
Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou, China
Email: lihm2000@163.com

Abstract—As the earliest and the most revered military treatise in ancient China, Sun Tzu's *The Art of War* contains a great number of culture-loaded words. This paper analyzes the problems and solutions in translating culture-loaded words by comparing two influential English versions of *The Art of War* by the leading sinologist Dr. Lionel Giles and the contemporary Chinese translator Lin Wusun. The comparative study shows that the two translators with different culture backgrounds rendered the culture-loaded words in *The Art of War* in different ways. It is indicated that the study of culture-loaded words and expressions is of vital importance to cross-cultural communication.

Index Terms—Sun Tzu, *The Art of War*, culture-loaded words, translation

I. INTRODUCTION

The *Art of War*, written by Sun Tzu more than 2000 years ago, is the earliest and the most revered military treatise in China. As a systematic guide to strategies and tactics for ancient Chinese rulers and commanders, the book discusses various maneuvers and the effect of terrain on the outcome of battles, and emphasizes the importance of gathering accurate information about the enemy's forces, deployments, and movements. It consists of thirteen chapters, but each chapter has its particular emphasis which is closely related and systematically treated, forming an orderly arranged integrated system of war direction. With its concentrated essence of wisdoms on warfare, *The Art of War* has been translated into various languages since the 17th century, exerting a great impact on military, political and business circles all over the world.

The first English translation of the text was by Captain E. F. Calthrop, based on an earlier Japanese translation. Since the appearance of the first indirect translation in 1905, English versions of *The Art of War* have been brought forth one after another. Each of the English versions has helped to promote the study of *The Art of War* in the English-speaking world. For a better understanding of cross-cultural translation, this paper intends to analyze the problems and solutions in translating culture-loaded words and expressions by comparing two influential English versions of *The Art of War*. One is Dr. Lionel Giles's translation, and the other one is Lin Wusun's translation. Dr. Lionel Giles, a leading sinologist and an assistant curator at the British Museum, published his own version *Sun Tzu on the Art of War: the Oldest Military Treatise in the World* in London in 1910. His English version included the Chinese text of Sun Tzu, the English translation, and voluminous notes. Dr. Lionel Giles' translation established the groundwork for later translators who published their own editions. Lin Wusun, a celebrated contemporary Chinese translator, published a new English version *Sun Zi: The Art of War & Sun Bin: The Art of War* in Beijing in 1999. With his profound knowledge of Chinese culture, Lin was very concerned about the transfer of authentic Chinese culture in *The Art of War* to Western readers. His translation was collected in *The Library of Chinese Classics*.

II. CULTURE-LOADED WORDS

As an act of cross-cultural communication, translations always reflect the cultural and historical conditions under which they have been produced. Towards the end of the 1980s, translation studies began to take issues of context, culture and history into consideration, and the emphasis in the reflection on translation had shifted to matters of culture. In *Translation, History and Culture*, Susan Bassnett and André Lefevere (1990) assert that, "There is always a context in which the translation takes place, always a history from which a text emerges and into which a text is transposed. [...] Translation as an activity is always doubly contextualized, since the text has a place in two cultures." (p. 11).

Cross-cultural translation aims at the better understanding of foreign cultures and developing the source culture through translation. The influence of one culture can enrich another and at the same time make itself better accepted and more widely transmitted. As the carrier of culture, language is influenced and shaped by culture. Culture-loaded words are laden with specific national cultural information, for they are the direct or indirect reflection of national culture at the structure of lexeme. Every language has its own culture-loaded terms, which are the symbolic representation of the value system, history, religion, customs, thinking patterns and life styles of that peculiar culture. Therefore, the study of culture-specific words and expressions is of vital importance to cross-cultural communication.

Generally speaking, culture-loaded words have two meanings. One is their conceptual meaning and the other is connotative meaning. Conceptual meaning is often described as dictionary meaning or literal meaning of a word which is relatively constant and stable, because it is the meaning agreed upon by all the members of the same speech community. Connotative meaning is that part of meaning which has been supplemented to the conceptual meaning. It is the meaning that arises out of the associations the word acquires and thus is open-ended, unstable and indeterminate because of its variation with culture, time, place, class, individual experiences, etc. In this way, cultural-loaded words can be classified into two groups:

(A) Culture-loaded words with a conceptual meaning that do not exist in the target language. For some Chinese culture-loaded words, conceptual equivalents in English are absent simply because there are no equivalent objects, events or ideas in the English culture.

(B) Culture-loaded words with a certain connotative meaning that fall short of or differs from the nearest corresponding words in the target language. Some culture-loaded words, apart from their conceptual meanings, are loaded with specific connotative meanings.

III. ON TRANSLATING CULTURE-LOADED WORDS IN THE ART OF WAR INTO ENGLISH

As one of representative works in Chinese classics, *The Art of War* was evolved in the context of ancient Chinese culture, containing a great number of culture-loaded words. The meanings of these cultural-bound words and expressions are vital to make target text readers better understand authentic Chinese culture, for they represent the unique features of ancient Chinese military culture. Eugene Nida (1993) notes, "what a translator needs is a method for sorting out the possible semantic difference, and then selecting that meaningful relation which is most in keeping with the context." (p. 64). Under the circumstance, it is essential for a translator to identify the possible meaning of the culture-loaded words in the source text and select the corresponding words in the target language.

However, a receptor language may not have conceptual or connotative equivalents in the target language, and vice versa. Furthermore, many cultural-bound words and expressions in *The Art of War* have undergone through diachronic changes during the long history. Due to the problems posed by culture-loaded words, translators are likely to ignore the culture specific message which would require too much effort in understanding the original text, and thus will decrease its literature importance as a Chinese classic. As Eugene Nida writes, "in fact, difficulties arising out of differences of culture constitute the most serious problems for translators and have produced the most far-reaching misunderstandings among readers" (ibid.: 101). Hence, culture-loaded words pose particular problems for translators of *The Art of War*.

A. *Culture-loaded Words without Conceptual Equivalents*

Example 1: 夫未战而庙算胜者，得算多也；未战而庙算不胜者，得算少也。

Giles' translation: Now the general who wins a battle makes many calculations in his temple where the battle is fought. The general who loses a battle makes but few calculations beforehand.

Lin's translation: He who makes full assessment of the situation at the prewar council meeting in the temple (translator's note: an ancient Chinese practice) is more likely to win. He who makes insufficient assessment of the situation at this meeting is less likely to win.

The translation of Chinese classics involves two processes: the intra-lingual translation and inter-lingual translation. With the development of society and language, the meanings of some culture-loaded words in Chinese classics have experienced great change. The diachronic change of language poses difficulties for the translation of Chinese classics, for the sound, meaning and syntax of the classics are quite different from modern Chinese, among which culture-loaded words are the most sensible ones to these changes and thus cause many obstacles in understanding and translating Chinese classics.

In the above example, "庙算" are typical culture-loaded words in ancient Chinese. As an ancient Chinese practice, it referred to prewar meetings in ancestral temple held by generals and kings to make full assessment of mutual strength and make battle plans. Nowadays, it is no longer done before a war. Lin's explanatory translation and note kept the historical conceptual meaning, but Giles' literal translation lost its historical meaning.

Example 2: 故胜兵若以镒称铢，败兵若以铢称镒。

Giles' translation: A victorious army opposed to a routed one, is as a pound's weight placed in the scale against a single grain.

Lin's translation: Thus, a victorious army has full advantage over its enemy, just like pitting 500 grains against one grain; the opposite is true with an army doomed to defeat, like pitting one against 500.

Sun Tzu used two ancient Chinese measure words "镒" and "铢" to compare the military strength between opposite armies. However, most of English readers know nothing about ancient Chinese weight units, so a literal rendition of them may cause confusion among the target language community. Catford (1965) states, "The SL (Source Language) and TL (Target Language) items rarely have the same 'meaning' in the linguistic sense; but they can function in the same situation." (p. 49). Therefore, it is suggested that the TL should be chosen to replace the SL on the basis of functional equivalence rather than merely formal equivalence. In the above example, Giles replaced yi and zhu with "pound" and "grain" which are English weight units, while Lin substituted them with "500 grains" and "one grain". In this way, both translations offer target readers a better understanding of the contextual meaning of the original.

B. Culture-loaded Words without Connotative Equivalents

Example 3: 胜者之战民也，若决积水于千仞之溪者，形也。

Giles' translation: The onrush of a conquering force is like the bursting of pent-up waters into a chasm a thousand fathoms deep.

Lin's translation: So great is the disparity of strength that a victorious army goes into battle with the force of an onrushing torrent which, when suddenly released, plunges into a chasm a thousand fathoms deep. This is what we mean by disposition.

Besides the conceptual meaning, culture-loaded words may have profound cultural connotation, which are apt to vary from age to age and from society to society. In classical Chinese, “千仞” may be associated with the image of an extreme height without limit in Chinese culture, while in English the expression “a thousand fathoms” is only a scientific measure. Nevertheless, both Giles and Lin translated it literally in the above example. The associative meaning is completely lost in the target language, and the translation can not produce the same figurative impact to target text reader.

Example 4: 故举秋毫不为多力，

Giles' translation: To lift an autumn hair is no sign of strength...

Lin's translation: It is like lifting a strand of animal hair in autumn (tr.: Animal hair is very fine and light in autumn.), which is no sign of strength.

In their English translations of the cultural term “秋毫”, Giles and Lin preferred to use “an autumn hair” which literally means one of small hair that birds or other animals newly grow in autumn. As English people usually express the same idea by the idiom “as light as a feather”, the target readers might fail to grasp the connotative meaning in the Chinese culture because they are less likely to associate the image with the implied figurative meaning that an animal's hair is often compared to something light and fine. In this way, the transference of culture is reduced in the translation. Nevertheless, Lin gave an explanation “Animal hair is very fine and light in autumn” to make sure that the target text readers can understand this culture-loaded term and its connotation.

C. Culture-loaded Words with Historical Allusions

Example 5: 昔殷之兴也，伊挚在夏；周之兴也，吕牙在殷。

Giles' translation: Of old, the rise of the Yin dynasty was due to I Chih who had served under the Hsia. Likewise, the rise of the Chou dynasty was due to Lu Ya who had served under the Yin.

Lin's translation: In ancient times, Yi Zhi, who had served the Xia Dynasty, was instrumental in the rise of the Yin Dynasty over Xia. Likewise, Lu Ya, who had served the Yin Dynasty, had much to do with the rise of the succeeding Zhou Dynasty.

Allusion derives from the stories, legend, tales, literature works and religions, etc. Owing to different history and cultural traditions between English and Chinese, allusion inevitably carries a lot of cultural connotations, which may cause cultural gap and even evoke misunderstandings. In the above example, “伊挚” (Yi-Zhi) and “吕牙” (Lu-Ya) were well-known historical figures in China, who played important role in the rise of the Shang Dynasty and the Zhou Dynasty respectively. Giles translated them literally and rendered the allusion at the surface meaning. The target readers may misunderstand that the two Chinese figures once acted as spies in the country where they lived because the theme of the chapter is the importance of spy.

Example 6: 投之无所往，诸、刳之勇也。

Giles' translation: But let them once be brought to bay, and they will display the courage of a Zhu and a Kui (Zhuan Zhu and Cao Kui were well known warriors in ancient China).

Lin's translation: Yet when they are thrown into a situation where there is no way out, they will be as courageous as Zhuan Zhu, Cao Kui and other heroes of ancient times.

“Zhuan Zhu” and “Cao Kui” were brave warriors who volunteered to kill the king. Sun Tzu quoted the allusions to expound that soldiers should be as courageous as the two warriors so that they dared to go for any extremely dangerous task. In order to make target text readers understand why Sun Tzu quoted the allusions with historical names, both Giles and Lin pointed out that they are “well known warriors in ancient China” and “heroes of ancient times”.

IV. CONCLUSION

As the most famous military masterpiece in ancient China, Sun Tzu's *The Art of War* was characterized by the brevity of diction and the depth of meaning. Translating this ancient Chinese military masterpiece into English is far from being an easy task because of the difficulties in fully comprehending the original text, and in accurately transferring the original meaning and producing a readable translation. This paper analyzes the problems and solutions in translating culture-loaded words and expressions by comparing two influential English versions of *The Art of War* by the leading sinologist Dr. Lionel Giles and the contemporary Chinese translator Lin Wusun. The comparative study shows that the two translators with completely different cultural backgrounds rendered the culture-loaded words in *The Art of War* in different ways.

As a celebrated Chinese translator, Lin tried his best to preserve the original meanings of culture-loaded words without conceptual equivalents in the target culture. However, Giles tended to substitute this kind of culture-loaded words with the existing concepts in English culture, which led to the loss of meaning or even caused the distortion of meaning. In translating the culture-loaded words without connotative equivalents, Lin preferred to translate them literally with notes to keep the cultural connotation and make target text readers understand them; in contrast, Giles translated them literally but he did not add notes. As a result, his translations could be difficult for target text readers to appreciate the rhetoric function of culture-loaded words in the target culture.

REFERENCES

- [1] Bassnett, S. (1991). *Translation Studies*. London & New York: Routledge.
- [2] Bassnett, S. & A. Lefevere (eds.). (1990). *Translation, History and Culture*. London & New York: Pinter.
- [3] Catford, J. C. (1965). *A Linguistic Theory of Translation*. Oxford & New York: Oxford University Press.
- [4] Giles, L. (1910). *Sun Tzu on The Art of War: the Oldest Military Treatise in the World*. London: Luzac Co.
- [5] Griffith, S. B. (1963). *Sun Tzu: The Art of War*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- [6] Lin, W. S. (1999). *Sun Zi: The Art of War & Sun Bin: The Art of War*. Beijing: Foreign Language Press.
- [7] Nida, E. A. (1993). *Language, Culture, and Translating*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [8] Nida, E. A. & C. R. Taber. (1969). *The Theory and Practice of Translation*. Leiden: E.J. Brill.
- [9] Toury, G. (1995). *Descriptive Translation Studies and Beyond*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- [10] Venuti, L. (2000). *The Translation Studies Reader*. London & New York: Routledge.

Hongman Li was born in Nanning, China in 1973. She received her Ph.D. degree in Translation Studies from Sun Yat-sen University in Guangzhou, China in 2008. She is currently a lecturer in the Faculty of English Education, Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou, China. Her research interests include translation of Chinese Classics, and translation theories. Dr. Li is a member of the Translators Association of China.

The Syntax of Sentential Negation in Jordanian Arabic

Islam M. Al-Momani
Al-Hussein Bin Talal University, Jordan
Email: almomani_islam@yahoo.com

Abstract—This paper attempts to present a clear picture about sentential negation in Jordanian Arabic. It aims at describing the various aspects of sentential negation by showing how negation operates with different negative particles and by illustrating the different positions of these particles and their behavior in sentences. It also attempts to shed some light upon the classification of the negative particles according to their occurrences in sentences, i.e., verbal and non verbal sentences and according to their syntactic positions in these sentences. This paper takes into consideration the interchangeability of certain negative particles by others with or without resulting in different sentence meaning. The examples throughout this study are taken from daily life conversations of Jordanians and considered the corpus this study aims to describe.

Index Terms—Jordanian Arabic, negation, negative particles, word order, copular sentences

I. INTRODUCTION

The goal of linguistic study is to discover the nature of language, how it is acquired and how it functions. The study of syntax is, in particular, concerned with the ways in which lexical items are organized hierarchically by operations into grammatical phrases and clauses. These operations are regulated by principles of the syntactic “module” of the linguistic system in order to uncover the structural principles governing these operations cross-linguistically. Therefore, the underlying universal principles of all languages may be discovered by showing how they are different in certain restricted parametric ways. These universal principles common to all languages comprise what is known as (Chomsky’s term) Universal Grammar (UG), i.e., the system innate to the human brain which allows for the acquisition of language.

In recent years, much attention has been given to the question of how best to represent the structure of negative phrases and the nature and the structures of negators themselves. Negation data in various languages give many significant inferences about the underlying structural principles of negation.

Negation is a universal notion. Indeed, it is one of the most basic elements in human mind that makes it an indispensable part of natural languages which are the tools for human thoughts. Every language has negative particles or expressions; statements that involve negative particles are called negative statements. As it is known, negation is the opposite of affirmation; one sentence or statement can be the negation or denial of another. Thus, negation is the process of making a sentence negative usually by adding negative particles. According to Gleason (2001), this allows us to discuss what is not happening, or what we do not want. Bloom (1970) suggests that when children are learning a language, it is likely that they learn to produce and distinguish between two basic types of sentences: the affirmative and the negative.

Negation is a fundamental linguistic phenomenon for the whole language system in Jordanian Arabic. It appears at different syntactic levels and has different purposes or meanings. Brustad (2000) studies negation in four Arabic dialects from a dialectological point of view. These four Arabic dialects are: Egyptian Arabic (EA), Moroccan Arabic (MA), Syrian Arabic (SA), and Kuwaiti Arabic (KA). She states that the four dialects have three strategies of negation: verbal negation, predicate negation, and categorical negation. She has also defined Categorical negation in these dialects as that kind of negation which is not restricted to a single entity or two of the category but includes the whole category which, according to her, doesn’t mirror the mood of the speaker but has a normative aspect that is arrived after witnessing the negation of a certain relationship, incident, member of a group, etc. Abulhaija (1989) studies the acquisition of negation by Jordanian children, and has stated that negation consists of linguistic structures that permit:

- a. the either conjoining
- b. not even
- c. tag questions without no

Emphatic negation has been termed by him in the same way as in Bustard definition of categorical negation and claims that it is directive in nature and reflects the mood of the speaker.

Negation in Arabic has been studied extensively, but most of it has been in the form of syntactic analysis. Some of the studies are done by Eid (1991), Benmamoun (1996 and 2000), Fassi Fehri (1993), Bahloul (1996) and many others. Al-Tamari (2001) studies sentential negation from a syntactic perspective adopting the minimalist approach. He attempts to show how sentential negation in verbal and verbless sentences is formed in English, Standard Arabic, and

some dialects of Arabic including Jordanian Arabic. Due to the nature of his study, Al-Tamari hasn't covered many aspects of negation including categorical negation.

Onizan (2005) attempts to study negation from a pragmatic perspective by providing negative utterances in Arabic literary discourse in both Modern Standard Arabic and Jordanian Arabic. Onizan's research has not included the pragmatic variations of negation morphemes which have the influence of determining the relationship between conversationalists and the speech tone.

II. OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

This article aims at investigating sentential negation in JA. It aims at answering the following research questions:

- How does negation operate with different negative particles?
- What are the different positions of these particles and their behavior in JA sentences?
- Can the aspects of sentential negation in JA be straightforwardly accounted for in light of derivation and feature-checking principles of the minimalism approach?
- Are negators heads of independent projections?
- How are negative items interpreted?
- What governs their distribution?

The researcher follows the descriptive-analytical approach. The data used here is an amalgamation of genuine sentences uttered by native speakers of JA. As for the MSA data, authentic grammar books are used as sources, in addition to that, a few Arab grammarians are referred to for their consultation, and testing the validity of the data.

The following symbols are used to represent certain Arabic sounds that don't match IPA symbols.

- /T/ voiceless alveo-dental emphatic stop
- /ḏ/ voiced alveo-dental emphatic stop
- /ṣ/ voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative
- /ħ/ voiceless pharyngeal fricative
- /c/ voiced pharyngeal fricative
- /q/ voiceless uvular stop
- /ġ/ voiced velar fricative
- /x/ voiceless velar fricative

III. DISCUSSION

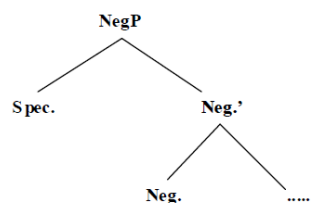
A. Negation in Jordanian Arabic

Based on the aforementioned studies, this paper attempts to present a unitary description of negation in Jordanian Arabic (JA). The pragmatic variations of negation morphemes, their use and their functions, the morphological phenomenon of negation and the syntactic analysis of negation will be presented in this paper. The types of negation discussed here are not comprehensive because this paper doesn't cover all the strategies of negation; for example, negative questions are not discussed here.

The system of negation in JA is neither straightforward nor simple. My aim in this paper is to determine the present distribution of negative particles in JA and to suggest how this distribution may have arisen. There are four negative particles used for sentential negation in JA: 'ma', 'ma... ʔ', 'miʃ' and 'laa'. In general these particles are immediately pre-verbal. Most of the current works on sentential negation have adopted what is known as 'the Neg.P Hypothesis', which is assumed to be the correct analysis of sentential negation (see among others, Pollock (1989), Kayne (1989), Zannuttini (1990), Chomsky (1991), Laka (1994) and Haegeman (1995). This hypothesis is adopted by Brustad (2000), Benmamoun (1992; 2000), Shlonsky (1997), and Ouhalla (1991) of different Arabic dialects.

According to this hypothesis, negative particles head their own functional projections as illustrated in (1).

(1).



This hypothesis is a result of a more general hypothesis known as 'Split Inflection Hypothesis' which was first suggested by Pollock (1989) and later adopted by Chomsky (1991, 1995), and Benmamoun (1992, 2000). According to this hypothesis, tense, negation and agreement are represented as syntactic projections independent of their 'morpho-phonological' host (predicate).

It is reasonable, in this paper, to follow this hypothesis and claim as claimed by Benmamoun (2000) that the negative particle in JA is a head element and it heads its own syntactic projection, and sentential negation occupies the position between TP and VP.

1. The Negative Particle 'ma...ʃ' or/and 'ma'

One of the negative particles used to negate verbal sentences in JA is the discontinuous morpheme *ma...ʃ* or 'ma' without the suffix. According to Onizan (2005), the negative particle *ma...ʃ* is equally used in both perfective and imperfective aspects of the verb as can be seen in sentences (2) and (3) respectively. The only difference between these two negative particles is that 'ma...ʃ' cannot be used with the infinitive mode to express the future tense, whereas 'ma' can. This explains the ungrammaticality of sentence (4) and the grammaticality of sentence (5) respectively.

- (2). *l-walad ma-nami-ʃ*
the-boy NEG-sleep-NEG
'The boy did not sleep.'
- (3). *l-walad ma-b-nami-ʃ*
the-boy NEG-IMERF-sleep-NEG
'The boy does not sleep.'
- (4). **l-walad ma-raḥ ye-nami-ʃ*
the-boy NEG-will sleep-NEG
'The boy will not to sleep.'
- (5). *l-walad ma-raḥ ye-nam*
the-boy NEG-will sleep
'The boy will not to sleep.'

According to Onizan, when this negative particle is used to negate a group of light verbs or pseudo verbs which are, by nature, prepositional phrases and adverbials functioning like verbs, the first part of the particle becomes optional. Consider the following examples taken from Onizan (2005):

- (6). *(ma)-bad-haa-ʃ xubiz*
(NEG)-want-she-NEG bread
'She does not want bread.'
- (7). *(ma)-maʕ-haa-ʃ fluus*
(NEG)-with-her-NEG money
'She does not have money.'

It is worth mentioning that the negative particle 'ma...ʃ' does not behave identically regarding aspect. When the verb is in the perfective mode, negation can be formed by the two parts of the morpheme as seen in (2) above or by the first part alone as in (8).

- (8). *l-walad ma-nam*
the-boy NEG-sleep
'The boy did not sleep.'

Negation formed by the second part alone leads to the ungrammaticality of the sentence as in (9).

- (9). **l-walad nami-ʃ*
the-boy sleep-NEG
'The boy did not sleep.'

When the verb is in the imperfective mode, negation can be formed by three options: the two parts of the morpheme as in (3); the first part of the morpheme alone; and the second part of the morpheme alone as in (10), and (11) respectively.

- (10). *l-walad ma-bi-nam*
the-boy NEG-IMERF-sleep
'The boy does not sleep.'
- (11). *l-walad bi-nami-ʃ*
the-boy IMERF-sleep-NEG
'The boy does not sleep.'

Accordingly, the deletion of one of the suffixes of the negative particle 'ma...ʃ' is associated to the type of the verb. It seems here that 'ma' is associated to the negation of perfective verbs, while in imperfective verbs either part of this discontinuous morpheme 'ma' or ʃ is possible.

Two meanings can be presented if the suffix 'ʃ' is deleted. One meaning, presented by Abulhaija (1989) for Jordanian Arabic, is emphatic negation, while another meaning, presented by Brustad (2000) for Moroccan and Egyptian Arabic, is categorical negation. They propose that the deletion of this suffix indicates emphasis or absolute negation. However, the conditions they presented for the occurrence of each kind of negation are nearly identical. Nonetheless, I believe that categorical negation is more or less impersonalized while emphatic negation is personalized and reflects the person's point of view. In terms of frequency, I also believe that the negative particle in its two parts is the most common means of verbal negation among the speakers of Jordanian Arabic.

According to Al-Tamari (2001), Jordanian Arabic uses the negative particle ‘ma’ to negate perfective and imperfective verbs. He states that ‘ma’ and ‘ma...ʔ’ are syntactically generated in the same position and in terms of function, they serve the same function. Thus, sentences (2) and (3) are repeated in (12) and (13) with only the negative marker ‘ma’.

- (12). l-walad ma-nam
the-boy NEG-sleep
‘The boy did not sleep.’

- (13). l-walad ma-b-nam
the-boy NEG-IMERF-sleep
‘The boy does not sleep.’

Thus, in JA the suffix ‘ʔ’ is optional. The only difference is that ‘ma...ʔ’ can be used in the future tense as explained earlier in this section.

‘ma...ʔ’ or ‘ma’ can also be used for denial in discourse and can occur in the context of both past and present with verbal predicates.

- (14). a. ma-ba-drusi-ʔ
NEG-I-study-NEG
‘I do not study.’
b. ma-ba-drus
NEG-I-study
‘I do not study.’

This is an answer to a question in the present tense; whereas, the examples in (15) are an answer to a question in the past tense.

- (15). a. ma-darasti-ʔ
NEG-I-study-NEG
‘I do not study.’
b. ma-darasit
NEG-I-study
‘I do not study.’

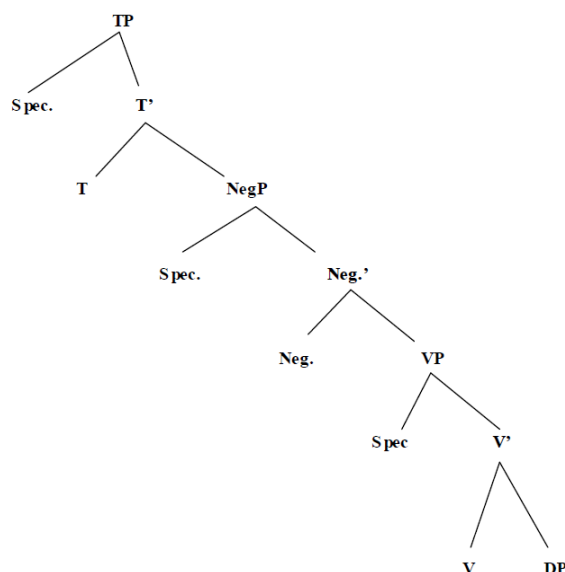
The negative particle ‘ma’ or its variant ‘ma...ʔ’ can be treated as the head of its syntactic projection and can host subject clitics which is a property of heads. This situation is attained in JA as shown in the paradigm in (16).

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| (16). ma-nii-ʔ | I + NEG |
| ma-ntaa-ʔ | you.M.S + NEG |
| ma-ntii-ʔ | you.F.S + NEG |
| ma-huu-ʔ | he + NEG |
| ma-hii-ʔ | she + NEG |
| ma-hnaa-ʔ | we + NEG |
| ma-ntuu-ʔ | you.P. + NEG |
| ma-hummi-ʔ | they + NEG |

The same situation is accomplished in various dialects of Arabic as in the paradigms provided for Egyptian Arabic (Eid 1991), Moroccan Arabic (Caubet 1996), and Kuwaiti Arabic (Brustad 2000).

Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that in JA verbal negation is achieved when the negative particle ‘ma...ʔ’ or ‘ma’ is attached to the verb, i.e., the negative particle is hosted by the verb. Now, if we proceed with the claim made by Brustad (2000), Benmamoun (1992; 2000), Shlonsky (1997), and Ouhalla (1991) of different Arabic dialects that this particle heads its own syntactic projection, the verb merges with negation, taking into consideration that sentential negation occurs between TP and VP. The subject and the verb are located under the Spec(ifier) and the head of the VP respectively. This can be shown in the following tree diagram:

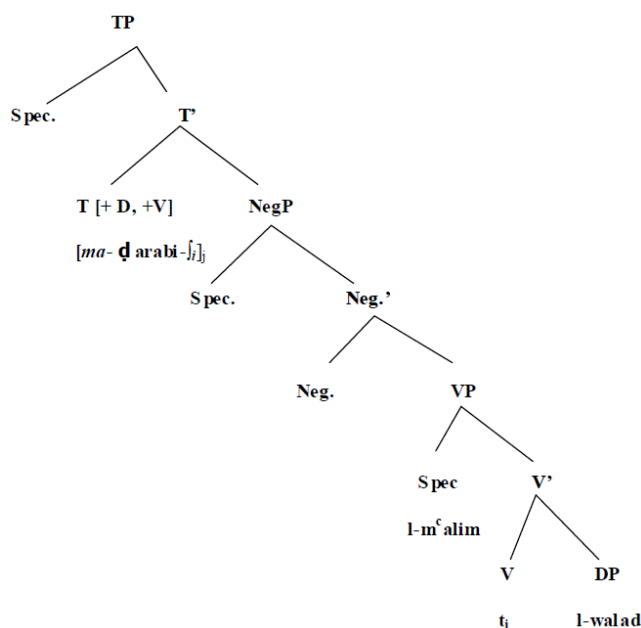
- (17).



To account for the merger between the verb and the negative particle, I will adopt Benmamoun's (2000) comprehensive analysis of sentential negation in Arabic within the framework of the minimalist program. He assumes that Neg. is specified for [+ D] feature which attracts the verb as a potential checker, and argues that the agreement on the verb can check the [+ D] feature. According to him, this is one important factor that motivates the movement of the verb. The other factor that motivates the movement of the verb is the [+ V] feature of T(ense) which attracts the verb to raise and check the [+ V] feature. He argues that only in the past tense, T is specified for verbal and nominal features ([+ V, + D]). Thus, in sentential negation, the verb raises to Neg., merges with the negative particle and checks the [+ D] feature of Neg. and then the complex head [Neg. + V] moves to T to have its [+ V] feature checked. Since the verb is already in T, it checks T's [+ D] feature. This analysis will result in the VSO word order. To justify this analysis in JA, consider (18) and its representation in (19).

- (18). ma-ḡ arabi-ḡ l-mcallim l-walad
 NEG-hit-NEG the-teacher the-boy
 'The teacher did not hit the boy.'

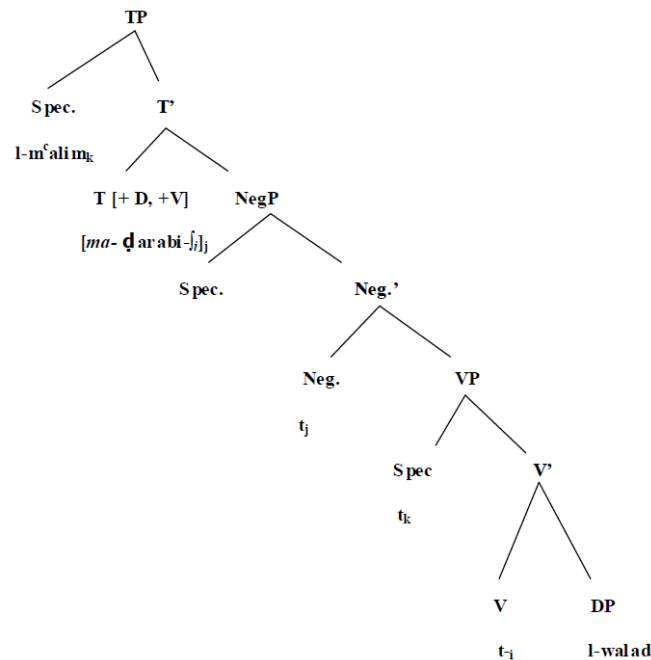
(19).



Regarding SVO order in Arabic, Benmamoun argues that the subject which is a primary checker of the [+ D] feature of T moves to the Spec. of TP via the Spec. of Neg.P to check the [+ D] feature of T. In present tense sentences, T doesn't attract the verb to raise because it lacks the [+ V] feature. However, the merger with Neg. can be justified by the fact that Neg. is specified for the [+ D] feature, which attracts the verb as a possible checker. Since the [+ D] feature of

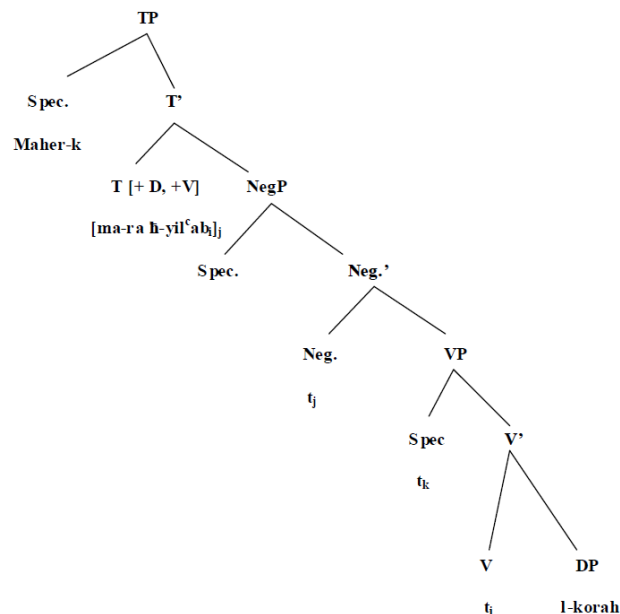
T is not checked by the verb, the subject moves to the Spec. of TP through the Spec. of Neg.P to check the nominal feature of T, i.e., [+D]. Consider (20) and its representation in (21) in JA.

- (20). l-mcallim ma- ɖ arabi-ʃ l-walad
 the-teacher NEG-hit-NEG the-boy
 'The teacher did not hit the boy.'
 (21).



The derivation of the VSO negative sentences in the future tense in JA is justified exactly the same way as in the past tense. Consider sentence (22) and its representation in (23).

- (22). Maher ma-raḥ-ye-lcab l-korah
 Maher NEG-will-play the-football
 'Maher will not play football.'
 (23).



According to this representation, the verb (raḥ-yilcab) raises to Neg. then the complex head [ma-raḥ-yilcab] raises to T to have the [+D] feature checked.

In sum, Benmamoun's analysis successfully accounts for sentential negation in JA in verbal sentences.

2. The Negative particle 'miʃ'

'miʃ' is another negative particle occurs in present and future, accompanying verbal predicates as well as non-verbal predicates. When the negative marker 'miʃ' is used to negate future sentences, it must contain the infinitive mode as in (24).

- (24). Ali miʃ rah-yinjah bi-l-ʔimtiḥan bukraḥ
 Ali NEG going to pass in-the-examination tomorrow
 'Ali is not going to pass the examination tomorrow.'

- (25). ʔana miʃ baḥib-ha
 I NEG love- her
 'I do not love her.'

In non-verbal predicates (nominal sentences), Abulhaija (1989) proposes that the negative particle 'miʃ', in addition to negate future sentences, is also used in JA to negate nominal sentences. Sentences (26), (27), and (28) are examples of nominal sentences negation.

- (26). huu miʃ fi-l-beit
 he NEG in-the-house
 'He is not at home.'

- (27). Aḥmad miʃ naʕeeT
 Aḥmad NEG active
 'Aḥmad is not active.'

- (28). Aḥmad miʃ Talib
 Aḥmad NEG student
 'Aḥmad is not a student.'

The negative particle 'miʃ' in JA is one single non-discontinuous particle, i.e., the separation between 'mi' and 'ʃ' will lead to the ungrammaticality of the sentence as shown in (29).

- (29). *Aḥmad mi naʕeeT-ʃ
 Aḥmad NEG active-NEG
 'Aḥmad is not active.'

This result is consistent with Brustad's (2000) analysis; she argues, while studying Egyptian Arabic, that the negative particle 'miʃ' is non-discontinuous and cannot be separated.

A specific question is to be addressed here:

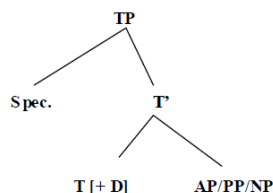
Is there a deleted copula in verbless sentences in MSA as well as in other dialects of Arabic including JA?

In order to answer this question, this paper provides three analyses which are suggested to account for the absence of the copula in verbless sentences. The first one is done by Baker (1980) and Obeidat and Farghal (1994). They suggest that in verbless sentences there is always a copula that undergoes a deletion process under certain circumstances. According to them, the copula is lexically realized at D. Structure but gets deleted during the derivation if the conditions for deletion exist.

The second analysis is made by Fassi Fehri (1993). He assumes that the copula exists in the derivation as a null verb which is not realized phonologically.

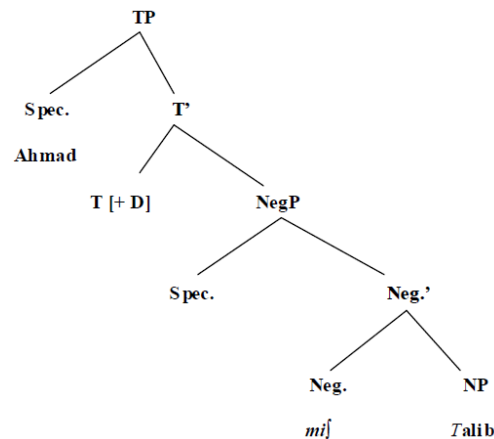
Benmamoun (2000) provides the third analysis which is going to be adopted here. He suggests that verbless sentences do not contain a null copula or undergo a copula deletion rule. He assumes that since verbless sentences are in the present tense, we do not have to assume that there is a null copula that hosts the tense because the present is only specified for the [+D] feature. He assumes the following structure:

(30).



Accordingly, JA doesn't allow merger between the negative particle miʃ and nouns, adjectives and prepositional phrases that follow. Thus, the representation of sentence (28) is as in (31).

(31).



3. The negative particles 'laa'

The most straightforward of the JA negative particles is 'laa'. It is a future oriented particle used before the verb, and occurs only in negative commands. Therefore, the particle 'laa' in MSA as well as in JA has a prohibitory sense and thus called the 'laa' of prohibition. Consider the following example from MSA:

- (32). laa taʔkul wa anta waqif-un
 NEG eat-2MS and you stand-nom
 'Do not eat while standing.'

In JA, prohibitives can be formed in different ways by using different negative particles: (1) using the particle 'laa' before the verb as it's the case in MSA as in (33), (2) positioning 'laa' before the verb and the suffix 'ḡ' after the verb as in (34), (3) using the suffix 'ḡ' alone after the verb as in (35).

- (33). laa tilcab
 NEG play-2MS
 'Do not play.'
- (34). laa tḡuḡḡi-ḡ
 NEG cheat-2M-NEG
 'Do not cheat.'
- (35). tokliḡ hon
 eat-2MS-NEG here
 'Do not eat here.'

The negative particle 'ma...ḡ' or its variant 'ma' can also be used to negate imperative sentences. Consider the examples below where the bound morpheme 'ma' occurs before the verb and the suffix 'ḡ' after the verb as (36). The morpheme 'ma' is used alone before the verb as in (37). Again as in the case of the negative particle 'laa', the suffix 'ḡ' of the discontinuous morpheme 'ma...ḡ' may occur alone after the verb as in (38).

- (36). ma-ticmali-ḡ heik
 NEG-do-2MS-NEG this
 'Do not do this.'
- (37). ma-tihki iḡi
 NEG-say-2MS thing
 'Do not say anything.'
- (38). tihki-ḡ iḡi
 say-2MS-NEG thing
 'Do not say anything.'

Thus, as can be noticed in the examples above, the negative particle 'ma...ḡ' can either be used with the presence or the absence of the suffix 'ḡ' or this suffix can be used alone.

Accordingly, two claims can be offered regarding this. The first one is due to the fact that there are two negative morphemes used within the same sentence namely, the bound morpheme 'ma' and the suffix 'ḡ'; thus, the absence of either is to avoid repetition. The other claim is restricted to the absence of the suffix 'ḡ'; in fact, the omission of this suffix carries the meaning of total prohibition, emphasizes the negation, warns the person, or even a punishment if broken. Consider the following sentences said by a teacher addressing his student:

- (39). laa tihkiiḡ wa ana ʔaḡrah d-dars
 NEG talk-2MS-NEG while I explain the-subject
 'Don't talk while I am lecturing.'
- (40). laa tihki wa ana baḡrah d-dars
 NEG talk-2MS while I explain the-subject
 'Don't talk while I am lecturing.'

(39), and (40) are prohibitives. The only difference between them, which indicates a difference in meaning, is the presence and the absence of the negation suffix 'j'. (39) which contains the negation suffix 'j', a lenient form of prohibition is used by the teacher when he asks his student not to talk while the class is going on. However, (40) has a stronger form of prohibition because it lacks that negation suffix. Thus, the negation suffix carries another meaning in addition to negation, i.e., leniency.

The negative particle 'laa' in JA occurs only in the present tense. The present tense in Arabic, according to Benmamoun (2000), is not morpho-phonologically realized and thus, does not carry the tense. He also argues that the present tense features are different from the past tense features because the present tense is specified for nominal features [+D] only.

The negative particle 'laa' requires the verb to be an infinitive and must be adjacent to the verb. This explains the grammaticality of (41) and the ungrammaticality of (42) and (43).

(41). laa tilcab bi-l-korah
NEG play-2MS with-the- football
'Do not play football.'

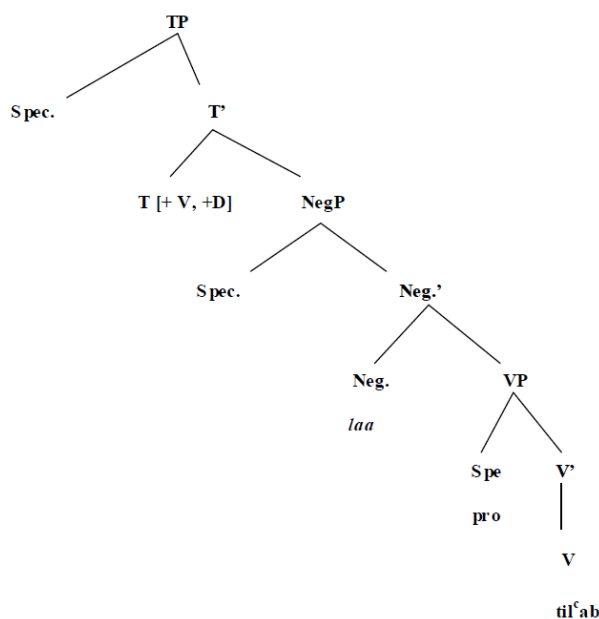
(42). *laa licib bi-l-korah
NEG played-2MS with-the-football
'Did not play football.'

(43). *laa bi-l-korah tilcab
NEG with-the- football play-2MS
'Do not play football.'

In JA, 'laa', is like the negative particle 'ma...j', heads a negation between TP and VP. Since 'laa' occurs only in the present tense, it stays in its position and does not have to merge with any functional element. It is spelled out as the default tenseless negative 'laa'. Consider (44) and its illustration in (45).

(44). laa tibki
NEG cry2MS
'Do not cry.'

(45).



B. Negation of Copular Sentences

Copular sentences are defined as those sentences that contain a copula. In JA as well as in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), the copula 'kaan' with its different morphological realizations of tense, person, number and gender must be present in the past and the future tense. Before discussing negation of copular sentences in both languages: MSA and JA, it is necessary to indicate that the modern dialects of Arabic including JA have impoverished the inflectional system in comparison to MSA. Word order in MSA is rather more relaxed due to its rich overt Case marking. A sentence, for instance, that has a two place predicate in MSA could have six acceptable word orders as can be seen below.

(46). ?akala l-kalb-u l-laħm-a
ate-3MS the-dog-nom the-meat-acc
'The dog ate the meat.'

(47). ?akala l-la ħm-a l-kalb-u

Ate-3MS the-meat-acc the-dog-nom

'The dog ate the meat.'

- (48). l-kalb-u ?akala l-laħm-a
the-dog-nom ate-3MS the-meat-acc

'The dog ate the meat.'

- (49). l-kalb-u l-laħm-a ?akala
the-dog-nom the-meat-acc ate-3MS

'The dog ate the meat.'

- (50). l-laħm-a ?akala l-kalb-u
the-meat-acc ate-3MS the-dog-nom

'The dog ate the meat.'

- (51). l-laħm-a l-kalb-u ?akala
the-meat-acc the-dog-nom ate-3MS

'The dog ate the meat.'

Moreover, in SVO word order, the verb shows full agreement features with the subject; whereas, in VSO word order, the verb shows partial agreement features with the subject, i.e., missing number agreement.

- (52). nama l-?awlad-u
slept-3MS the- boys-nom

'The boys slept.'

- (53). l-?awlad-u naamu
the-boys-nom slept-3MP

'The boys slept.'

In contrast, the dialects of Arabic have a rigid word order due to the absence of Case marking and reduced feature agreement. When there is not enough Case marking to distinguish between the subject and the object, word order is reduced to SVO and VSO.

- (54). qatal § -§ ayyad l-asad
kill-3MS the-hunter the-lion

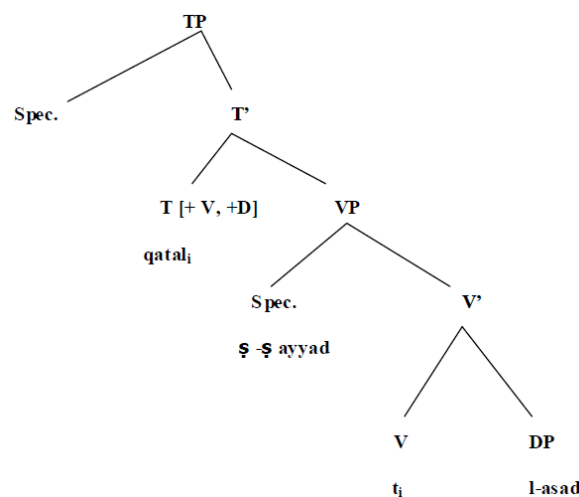
'The hunter killed the lion.'

- (55). § -§ ayyad qatal l-asad
the-hunter kill-3MS the-lion

'The hunter killed the lion.'

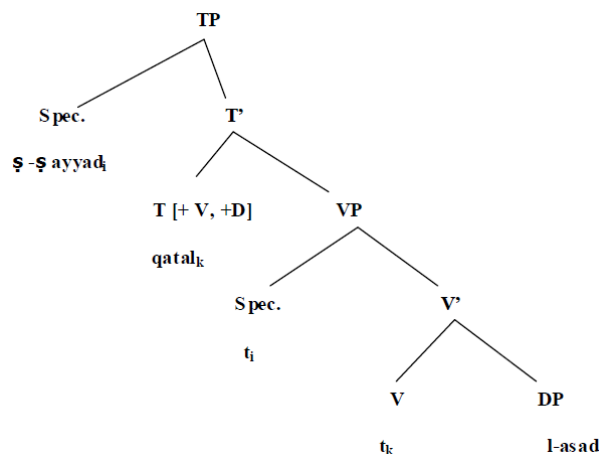
(54) is represented as in (56).

(56).



(55) is represented as in (57).

(57).



While VSO word order is preferred by the speakers of JA in the past tense sentences, SVO word order is preferred in present tense sentences.

In VS order in MSA, the copula agrees with the subject in gender and in person, and the complement has to bear accusative case, while in SV, the copula agrees with the subject in person, number and gender, and the complement again has to bear accusative case. Consider the following examples:

- (58). kaan-a l-imttihan-u sahl-an
was-3MS the-examination-nom easy-acc
'The examination was easy.'
- (59). sa-yakuun-u l-imttihan-u sahl-an
will-M-be the-examination-nom easy-acc
'The examination will be easy.'
- (60). kaan-a T-Tullab-u fi-l-madrasat-i
was-3MS the-students-nom in-the-school-gen
'The students were in the school.'
- (61). T-Tullab-u kaan-u fi-l-madrasat-i
the-students-nom were.them in-the-school-gen
'The students were in the school.'

Depending on aspect and tense, there are three different ways that can be used to negate copular constructions in MSA. The three different negative particles used are: (1) 'ma' which is used to negate past perfective forms, (2) 'lam' used to negate past imperfective forms, and (3) 'lan' to negate the future. Consider the followings:

- (62). ma kaan-a T-Taqs-u jamiil-an
NEG was-MS the-weather-nom beautiful-acc
'The weather was not beautiful.'
- (63). lam yakun T-Taqs-u jamiil-an
NEG was-MS the-weather-nom beautiful-acc
'The weather was not beautiful.'
- (64). lan yakuun-a T-Taqs-u jamiil-an
NEG M-be-MS the-weather-nom beautiful-acc
'The weather will not be beautiful.'

In MSA, the copula doesn't appear in present tense sentences. They exhibit the following patterns: (1) a subject (NP) and a predicate (NP, AP, PP) as in (65a, b, and c), a subject (NP), a pronoun and a predicate (NP, PP) as in (66), (3) a subject (NP) and a predicate (NP, AP) as in (67a and b). In either case the subject has to be definite and as far as case and agreement are concerned, the subject and the predicate agree in Case (nominative), number and gender.

- (65). a. Hind-un Taaliba-t-un
Hind-nom student-F-nom
'Hind is a student.'
- b. Hind-un jamila-t-un
Hind-nom beautiful-F-nom
'Hind is beautiful.'
- c. Hind-un fi-l-manzil-i
Hind-nom in-the-house-gen
'Hind is at home.'
- (66). a. Hind-un hiya T-Taalibat-u
Hind-nom 3FS the-student-F-nom
'Hind is the student.'

- b. Hind-un hiya fi-l-manzil-i
Hind-nom 3FS in-the-house-gen
'Hind is at home.'
- (67). a. Hind-un T-Taalibat-u
Hind-nom the-student-F-nom
'Hind is the student.'
- b. Hind-un j-jamila-t-u
Hind-nom the-beautiful-F-nom
'Hind is the beautiful girl.'

In certain contexts, the copula appears in present tense constructions, but the time reference is future. That is the speaker is making a prediction as in (68).

- (68). yakuun-u s-safar-u mutcib-an bi-l-qitar-i
M-be-3S the-travel-nom tiresome-acc by-the-train-gen
'Traveling by train will be annoying.'

In (68), the speaker is making a kind of prediction about how traveling is going to be by train. The same sentence is also possible without the copula as in (69).

- (69). s-safar-u mutcib-un bi-l-qitar-i
the-travel-nom tiresome-nom by-the-train-gen
'Traveling by train will be annoying.'

Regarding negation in the present tense sentences, none of the particles mentioned above, which are tense oriented, can be used. Instead, the negative particle 'laysa' (not) is used. This negative particle agrees with the subject in number and gender, and its complement has to bear accusative case.

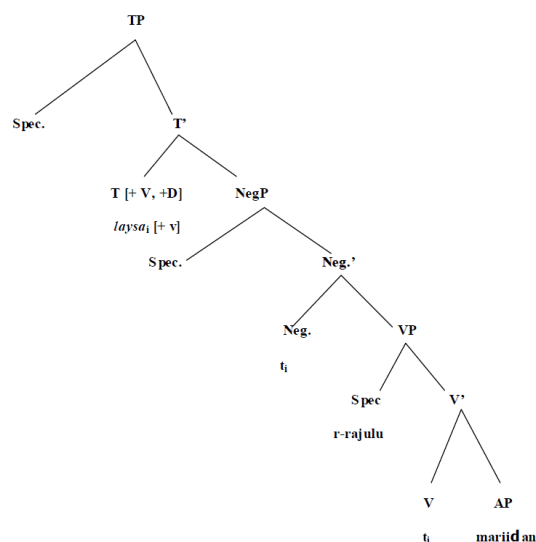
- (70). laysa l-walad-u mujtahid-an
NEG-3MS the-boy-nom diligent-acc
'The boy is not diligent.'
- (71). laysat l-bintu mujtahidat-an
NEG-3FS the-girl-nom diligent-F-acc
'The girl is not diligent.'

'laysa' behaves like a verb because it cannot co-occur with the verb copula and it has the same grammatical function with respect to case assignment as the copula, i.e., they both assign their complements accusative case.

- (72). kaan-a r-rajul-u mariid -an
was-3MS the-man-nom sick-acc 'The man was sick.'
- (73). *laysa kaan-a r-rajul-u mariid -an
NEG Was-3MS the-man-nom sick-acc
'The man was not sick.'
- (74). laysa r-rajul-u mariid -an
NEG-3MS the-man-nom sick-acc
'The man was not sick.'

However, the negative particle 'laysa' and the copula are different in two ways: first, 'laysa' is inherently [+ present]; whereas, the copula can be used in the past, present and future. Second, unlike the copula, 'laysa' is inherently negative. Sentence (74) can be represented as in (75).

(75).



Since 'laysa' is inherently [+ present] and behaves like the copula, it can check the [+ V] feature of T.

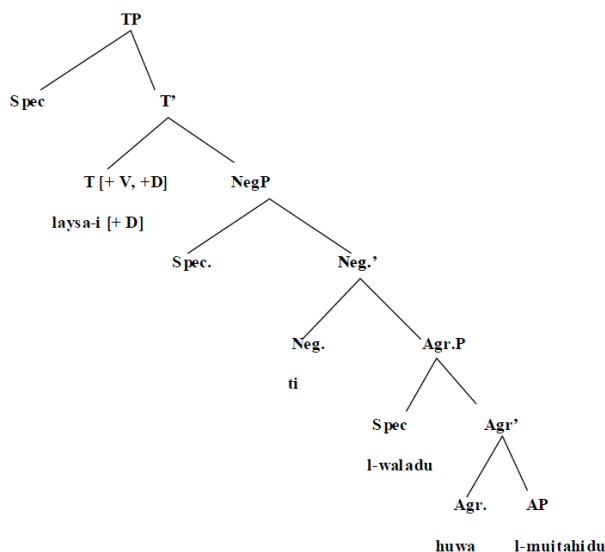
However, the structure of negation in present tense sentences gets more complicated with the presence of a pronoun that agrees with the subject in person, number and gender, because in that case, the complement bears with either nominative or accusative case.

- (76). laysa l-walad-u huwa l-mujtahid-u
 NEG-3MS the-boy-nom 3MS the-diligent-nom
 'The boy he is not diligent.'

- (77). laysa l-walad-u huwa l-mujtahid-a
 NEG-3MS the-boy-nom 3MS the-diligent-acc
 'The boy he is not diligent.'

'huwa' can be treated in MSA as agreement (AGR) as argued by Berman (1978) and Rapoport (1987) in their works on Hebrew. Rapoport assumes that 'AGR' is used in the equational sentences in Hebrew the same way the copula is used in English. Thus, sentence (76) can be illustrated as in (78).

(78).

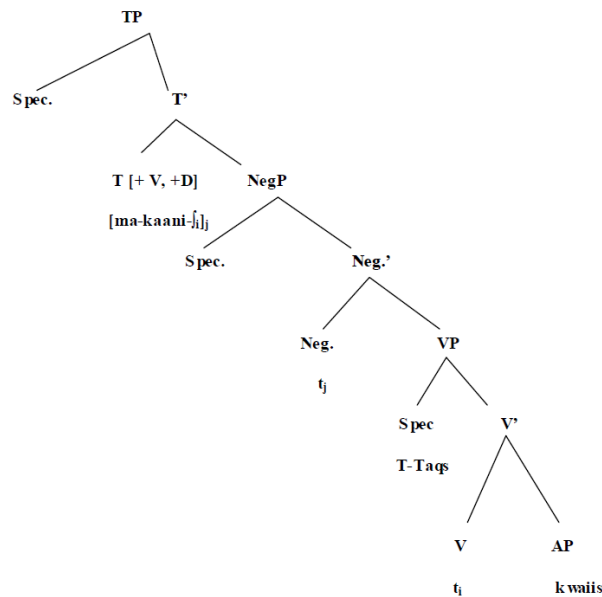


Copular sentences in JA are negated via the use of the negative particle 'ma... ʃ' and/or 'ma'. Al-Tamari (2001) considers 'ma' as a different morpheme from 'ma... ʃ' and argues that copular sentences are negated by the two morphemes instead of one. Consider the following examples:

- (79). a. T-Taqs ma-kaani-ʃ kwaiis
 the-weather NEG-was-NEG good
 'The weather was not beautiful.'
 b. ma-kaani-ʃ T-Taqs kwaiis
 NEG-was-NEG the-weather good
 'The weather was not beautiful.'
- (80). a. T-Taqs ma-kaan kwaiis
 the-weather NEG-was good
 'The weather was not beautiful.'
 b. ma-kaan T-Taqs kwaiis
 NEG-was-NEG the-weather good
 'The weather was not beautiful.'

Sentence (79 b) is illustrated as in (81).

(81).



In (81), 'kaan' raises to Neg. to check the [+ D] feature, the complex head [ma-kaani-ʃ] raises to T of TP and checks the [+ V] feature. The subject remains in the Spec. of VP since it is not motivated to raise higher in the tree diagram.

Present tense sentences in JA behave exactly like present sentences in MSA in the sense that they lack the copula and thus are considered as verbless sentences. Onizan (2005) proposes that verbless sentences in JA are of two types, namely: predicative and equational sentences and both are similar in containing a subject and a predicate. The only difference between them is that equational sentences contain a pronoun that agrees with the subject according to person and number as can be seen in (82) and (83) respectively.

(82). Ahmad Tabiib

Ahmad doctor

'Ahmad is a doctor.'

(83). Ahmad huu Tabiib

Ahmad 3MS doctor

'Ahmad is a doctor.'

Regarding negation of verbless sentences whether equational or predicative, neither 'ma...ʃ' nor 'ma' can be used. Instead, the negative particle 'miʃ' (not) is used. Consider the negation of (82) and (83) given below as (84) and (85).

(84). Ahmad miʃ Tabiib

Ahmad NEG doctor

'Ahmad is not a doctor.'

(85). Ahmad miʃ huu T-Tabiib

Ahmad NEG 3MS the-doctor

'Ahmad is not the doctor.'

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper discussed the syntax of sentential negation in JA. JA has shown different negative particles, namely 'ma...ʃ', 'ma', 'miʃ', and laa' which occur in the context of the past, present and future tenses respectively. The 'Neg.P Hypothesis', which claims that negative particles head their own functional projections and negation occurs between TP and VP, accounts successfully for sentential negation in JA. In verbal sentences, the verb cannot raise to T across negation because of minimality. However, the verb merges with the negative particle to check the [+ D] feature and the complex head moves to T to check the [+ V] feature. In order to account for copular sentences in JA and MSA, it has been claimed that copular sentences in JA are negated via the use of the negative particle 'ma...ʃ' and/or 'ma'; whereas, in verbless sentences that lack the copula, the negative particle 'miʃ' occurs independently. In MSA, however, copular sentences are negated in different ways using different negative particles; the negative particle 'ma' is used to negate past perfective forms, lam' used to negate past imperfective forms, and 'lan' to negate future tense sentences. As far as present tense sentences are concerned, the negative particle 'laysa' is used instead.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdel-Ghafer, O. (2003). Copular Constructions in Modern Standard Arabic, Modern Hebrew and English. Ph. D dissertation, University of Kansas.

- [2] Abulhaja, L. (1989). The Development of Negative Structures in Children: Evidence from Jordanian Arabic. *Arab Journal for Humanities*. 36: 343-372.
- [3] Al-Tamari, E. (2001). Sentential Negation in English and Arabic: A Minimalist Approach. Ph.D dissertation. University of Kansas, Lawrence.
- [4] Bahloul, R. M. (1996). Negation in French and Tunisian Arabic. In M. Eid (ed.), *Perspectives on Arabic Linguistics VIII*, 67-83. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- [5] Bakir, M. (1980). Aspects of Clause Structure in Arabic. Ph.D dissertation, Indiana University, Bloomington.
- [6] Benmamoun, E. (1992). Inflectional and Functional Morphology: Problems of Projection, Representation and Derivation. Ph.D dissertation, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.
- [7] Benmamoun, E. (1996). Negative Polarity and Presupposition in Moroccan Arabic. In *Perspectives on Arabic Linguistics*, VIII, ed. Mushira Eid, 47-66. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- [8] Benmamoun, E. (2000). The Feature Structure of Functional Categories: Comparative Study of Arabic Dialects. Oxford University Press.
- [9] Berman, R. A. (1978). Modern Hebrew Structure. University Projects. Tel Aviv.
- [10] Bloom, L. (1970). Language Development. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- [11] Brustad, K. (2000). The Syntax of Spoken Arabic: A Comparative Study of Moroccan, Egyptian, Syrian and Kuwaiti Dialects. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- [12] Caubet, D. (1996). La Négation en Arabe Maghr ébin. In *La Négation en Berb ére et en Arabe Maghr ébin*, eds. S. Chaker, and C. Caubet, 79-97. Paris: L'Harmattan.
- [13] Chomsky, N. (1993). A Minimalist Program for Linguistic Theory. In *The View from Building 20*, eds. K. Hale and S. J. Keyser, 1-49. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
- [14] Chomsky, N. (1994). Bare Phrase Structure. MIT Occasional Papers in *Linguistics*, volume 5. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Department of Linguistics and Philosophy.
- [15] Chomsky, N. (1995). The Minimalist Program. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
- [16] Chomsky, N. (2000). Minimalist Inquiries: The Framework. In *Step by Step: Essays on Minimalist Syntax in Honor of Howard Lasnik*, eds. Roger Martin, David Michaels, and Juan Uriagereka, 89-155. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
- [17] Chomsky, N. (2001). Derivation by Phase. In *Ken Hale: A Life in Language*, ed. Michael Kenstowicz, 1-52. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
- [18] Eid, M. (1991). Verbless Sentences in Arabic and Hebrew. In *Perspectives on Arabic Linguistics III*, eds. Bernard Comrie and Mushira Eid, 31-61. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- [19] Fassi Fehri, A. (1993). Issues in the Structure of Arabic Clauses and Words. Dordrecht: Kluwer.
- [20] Gleason, J. (2001). The Development of Language. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- [21] Haegeman, L. (1995). The Syntax of Negation. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [22] Jaradat, A. A. (2007). A Linguistic Analysis of Jordanian Proverbs; a Syntactic, Semantic and Contextual Study. Ph. D dissertation, University of Kansas.
- [23] Kayne, R. (1989). Facets of Romance Past Participle Agreement. In P. Beninca (ed.), *Dialects Variation and the Theory of Grammar*, 85-103. Dordrecht: Foris.
- [24] Laka, I. (1994). On the Syntax of Negation. New York: Garland Pub.
- [25] Obeidat, H. and Farghal, M. (1994). On the Status of the Equational Sentences in the Grammar of Arabic. *Abhath Al-Yarmouk*, 12: 2, 9-35.
- [26] Onizan, N. (2005). Function of Negation in Arabic Literary Discourse. Ph.D dissertation, University of Kansas.
- [27] Ouhalla, J. (1991). Functional Categories and Parametric Variation. London: Routledge.
- [28] Pollock, J. Y. (1989). Verb Movement, Universal Grammar, and the Structure of IP. *Linguistic Inquiry* 20, 365-424.
- [29] Rapoport, T. (1987). Copular, Nominal, and Small Clauses: A Study of Israeli Hebrew. Ph.D dissertation, MIT, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- [30] Shlonsky, U. (1997). Clause Structure and Word Order in Hebrew and Arabic: An Essay in Comparative Syntax. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [31] Zanuttini, R. (1997). Negation and Clausal Structure: A Comparative Study of Romance Languages. New York: Oxford University Press.

Islam M. Al-Momani was born in Irbid, Jordan in 1966. He holds a Ph.D degree in Linguistics/Syntax from Mumbai University/India in 1998, an M.A in Linguistics from Delhi University/India in 1992, and a B.A in English Language and Literature from Yarmouk University/Jordan in 1989.

He is currently working as an Assistant Professor in the Department of English Language and Literature at Al-Hussein Bin Tala University/Jordan. He has been teaching there since 2003. Over there, he worked as the head of the department for the academic year 2006/2007, a member of the Faculty of Arts Council for the academic years 2005/006 and 2006/2007, and a member of the University Council for the academic year 2007/2008. Before that, he worked for four years as an Assistant Professor in the Department of English Language and Literature at Al-Isra Private University/Jordan and also worked there as a coordinator for the Faculty of Arts in the Faculty of Evening Studies.

He has published several papers in Linguistics especially in the field of Syntax in international scientific journals. His research interests include Linguistics and Applied Linguistics, Syntax, Semantics, Contrastive Linguistics, and Sociolinguistics.

Action Research of Young College English Teachers

Xiaoqian Duan

English Department, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China
Email:duanxiaoqian@tom.com

Suzhen Ren

Teaching Affairs Office, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China
Email: rensuzhen@hotmail.com

Abstract—Action research allows for immediate action which is more convenient and accessible to young college English teachers who are pressured by the urgency of rapid and successful development in educational field. Practitioners develop skills in observing and evaluating their own teaching methods and begin to unconsciously employ the principles of action research in their professional life. The active participation of teachers will lead to a bright future of professional development and fulfillment.

Index Terms—action research, young, college, English teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

The twenty-first century is an information era which involves and benefits international business trade, the spread and communication of science and technology and the sharing of resources and education. Accordingly, foreign languages learning especially English learning has become an essential part of education in the world which means that if one is English illiterate, he or she is bound to meet obstacles in social life. Thus, learning English as an international language has become one of the fundamental requirements for Chinese citizens in the new century.

According to statistics, there are over 60,000,000 English learners in public schools in China, most of whom have been learning English since middle school. However, it is not deniable that the English levels of the learners in China are not satisfactory which greatly contradicts with the considerable labor and resources that the country has invested. Due to this, the educators have to reflect on the current teaching concepts and methods so that the educational goals and the educational assessment mechanism can be reset and readjusted to meet the needs of English education in the new century.

The key of educational reform and the improvement of teaching quality lies in the educators' quality which is clearly pointed out in The National Education Reform and Development of Long-Term Planning Programs (2010-2020) that it is to train professional educators with high quality, noble moral, masterly profession, reasonable structure and energetic spirit. Hence, the call for professional educators requires the teachers to accomplish their quality through transforming and readjusting the old methods and skills and enhancing the abilities to reflect on their actions in teaching process to be not only good teachers but good researchers as well so that the professional development of educators will be promising.

II. CURRENT RESEARCH SITUATION OF YOUNG COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHERS

The number of people working in educational field has risen to millions in China. However, people in this circle who are doing research which has led to outcomes are contrastively few. For teachers in Shandong Province especially, the so-called iron bowl--the life-long position in school has been cancelled already. Therefore, whether the teacher is qualified to work in the school or not depends not on his or her expertise but the result of the exams and assessment held regularly for teachers. Hence, it is urgent for young teachers to improve their professional quality by transforming teaching modes and doing research in teaching field so that the phenomena that either the teachers only know how to teach but not how to research or vice versa would not be the problem in Chinese educational field which blocks teachers to develop professionally.

This thesis is based on the Research of Reflective Action and Result Transformation of Young College English Teachers, which is sponsored by Qingdao University of Science and Technology. According to statistics, from the year 2006-2010, totally 156 academic theses were issued by 30 English teachers under the age of 35 in this school, of which theses on teaching research were only 42 pieces counting for 27%, which shows that young college English teachers are not as prolific in teaching research field that will consequently hamper their professional development and fulfillment for teaching research is the most closely related and convenient field for educators to conduct researching activities; and practicing teaching research can function as the joint between educators and researchers.

The result of an interview with 35 young teachers under the age of 35 from Ocean University of China, Qingdao University, Qingdao Agricultural University and Qingdao University of Science and Technology suggested that all the interviewees agreed that teaching research plays a vital role in their career, however, 21 interviewees held that teaching research doesn't hold as high value as other linguistic research suggesting that many young college English teachers haven't realized the significance of teaching research; 18 interviewees complained that their teaching tasks don't allow them time to do teaching research, 13 interviewees claimed that they often think of problems met in teaching process but they don't know how to study and implement relative research in accordance with the problems indicating that many young college English teachers are teaching research conscious, but they are lack of methods and guidance of this circle. And 11 interviewees admitted that they are not able to select and focus on certain topics in teaching field so that their teaching research practice hasn't succeeded.

The result of the interview above indicates that many young college English teachers have realized the vitality of doing teaching research as a reasonable way of their professional development, while admittedly, there are also many obstructions namely, having no time, having no ideas or having no methods hampering their progress in this scope.

III. ACTION RESEARCH

The most convenient way to solve the problem that young college English teachers cannot associate teaching with research organically is to find topics in their teaching environment while they are teaching, which is to research the actions of themselves in which they are naturally interested in a natural setting, briefly, action research in the educational setting.

Action research is a process in which researchers examine their own educational practice systematically and carefully, using the techniques of research. It is based on the following assumptions:

1. Teachers and principals work best on problems they have identified for themselves.
2. Teachers and principals become more effective when encouraged to examine and assess their own work and then consider ways of working differently
3. Teachers and principals help each other by working collaboratively
4. Working with colleagues helps teachers and principals in their professional development (Watts, 1985, p. 118)

The term 'action research' was firstly created in the USA by Collier (Mike Wallace, 1987) then developed further by Kurt Lewin during the 1940s, a social psychologist and educator to describe work that did not separate the investigation from the action needed to solve the problem" (McFarland & Stansell, 1993, p. 14). In the 1950s, Stephen Corey was among the first to use action research in the educational field. He encouraged teachers and masters to apply action research to transform the management and teaching. Then in the 1970s in Britain, Lawrence Stenhouse (1975) with John Elliott (1976) pointed out clearly in their research that action research is the further development of teaching theories which focuses on the resolution of practical problems. Over the years, the interpretation of action research has developed into different ways. It is now often seen as a tool for professional development, bringing a greater focus on the teacher than before (Noffke & Stevenson, 1995).

Action research can be a worthwhile pursuit for educators for a number of reasons especially the young teachers. First is obviously the familiar environment and students to the teachers which helps to conduct the studies smoothly. And the issues of the research are convenient to collect in the classroom, school or district. Academic research is often seen as disconnected from the daily lives of educators. By implementing action research, it can be very helpful for teachers to transform the knowledge of their research into something useful to their teaching and students.

Second, action research advocates collaboration and cooperation across departments, grade levels, and schools. Teachers are often the sole leading part in a room of students, and have little or no time for professional interactions with others. Action research allows teachers opportunities to talk with others about teaching skills and strategies in pairs or teams. By exchanging their thoughts with others, teachers must reflect on their own teaching styles and strategies. Through these communications with colleagues they build stronger confidence and relationships. Team work brings individuals together for a shared purpose. Educators involved in action research become more flexible in their thinking and more open to new ideas (Pine, 1981).

Third, action research projects influence thinking skills, sense of efficacy, willingness to share and communicate, and attitudes toward the process of change. Through action research, teachers learn about themselves, their students, their colleagues, and can determine ways to continually improve.

Fourth, opportunities for teachers to evaluate themselves in schools are often few, and action research can serve as a chance to think about one's own teaching in a structured manner. Teachers can reflect on what effect their teaching is having on their students, how they could work better with other methods, and what mistakes have been committed in the teaching process.

In short, action research is conducted by teachers by connecting their daily work with academic research and accordingly benefits their development in profession.

In carrying out action research, Eileen Ferrance (2000) summarized the steps into the phases as follows from which young college English teachers could gain a clear concept to put it into practice:

Identify a problem area: think big and start small. It is important to start with small doable matters that the young college English teachers meet in their daily teaching, for instance, how to help improve the students' pronunciation,

how to encourage the students to express themselves boldly or how to help students get rid of the influence of their dialects. Careful planning will help avoid aimless starts and frustrations.

Gather data: The collection of data is an important step in deciding what action needs to be taken. Multiple sources of data are used to better understand the scope of happenings in the classroom or school. Teachers can collect first-hand data by writing diaries, taking videos, recording audio tapes, keeping field notes. And questionnaire, interview, class observation, photographic information are also useful resources of data gathering. With the aid of multimedia, young college English teachers can collect data more conveniently and flexibly.

Interpret data: Depending on the research focus, the data would be analyzed in different ways. Some of the data are quantifiable and can be analyzed without the use of statistics or technical assistance. Other data, such as opinions, attitudes, or checklists, may be summarized in table form including table, chart diagram and so on. Data that are not quantifiable can be reviewed holistically and important elements or themes can be noted.

Act on evidence: Basing on the information from the data collection and review of current literature, work out an action plan which guides you to research in the proper scope. During the process, the teachers may have to make changes of the total plan. It is important that only one variable be altered. As with any experiment, if several changes are made at once, it will be difficult to determine which action is responsible for the outcome. While the new technique is being implemented, continue to document and collect data on performance.

Evaluate results: Assess the effects of the intervention to determine if improvement has occurred. If there is improvement, teachers should ask themselves that do the data clearly provide the supporting evidence? If no, what changes can be made to the actions to elicit better results? Besides, it is necessary to identify additional questions raised by the data and plan for additional improvements, revisions, and next steps (Eileen Ferrance, 2000, p.11). Here Eileen Ferrance mainly focused on the preparation and the process of action research paying little attention to writing report as the outcomes of the research, which is another indispensable part of action research as a whole. As is illustrated previously, a problem many young English teachers meet in their work is that they don't know how to study and change the teaching problems into relative research. While if the research is a systematic exploration process of an issue, then the process and the outcomes should be brought into open (Stenhouse, 1985:9). As to action research, the outcomes of the research are to be publicized. Teachers exchange the reports of the research to welcome the comments as well as the doubts from the public, only through this way, could the action doers be called researchers. By writing the report, teachers can strengthen their understanding of teaching theories; reflect more deeply on their teaching effects, as a result, stronger professional skills, academic research abilities as well as confidence are built up and obtained.

IV. CONCLUSION

Action research will not offer all the approaches to our practice in teaching research. But it motivates immediate action which is more convenient and accessible to young college English teachers who are pressured by the urgency of rapid and professional development in educational field. Practitioners develop skills in observing and evaluating their own teaching methods and begin to unconsciously employ the conceptions of action research in their professional life. The active participation of teachers will lead to a bright future of sustainable professional development and fulfillment.

REFERENCES

- [1] Elliott, J. (1976). Developing Hypothesis about Classroom from Teachers' Practical Constructs North Dakota Study Group on Evaluation-series, Grand Forks: University of North Dakota.
- [2] Ferrance Eileen. (2000). Action Research. Web Transcription Tool. <http://wenku.baidu.com/view/4b679a1252d380eb62946d0b.html> (accessed 22/1/2011)
- [3] Lewin, K. (1946). Action research and minority problems. *Journal of Social Issues* 2: 34-36
- [4] McFarland, K.P., & Stansell, J.C. (1993). Historical perspectives. In L. Patterson, C.M. Santa, C.G. Short, & K. Smith (Eds.), *Teachers are researchers: Reflection and action*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- [5] National Education Reform and Development of Long-Term Planning Programs (2010-2020). (2010). Web Transcription Tool. http://www.gov.cn/jrzq/2010-07/29/content_1667143.htm (accessed 3/12/2010).
- [6] Noffke, S.E., & Stevenson, R.B. (Eds.). (1995). Educational action research: Becoming practically critical. New York: Teachers College Press.
- [7] Pine, G.J. (1981). Collaborative action research: The integration of research and service. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Detroit, MI.
- [8] Stenhouse, L. (1975). Mirrors for Behaviour: An Anthology of Classroom Observation Instruments. Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools
- [9] Watts, H. (1985). When teachers are researchers, teaching improves. *Journal of Staff Development*, 6 (2), 118-127.

Xiaoqian Duan was born in 1980, Qingdao, Shandong Province, China. She graduated from Ocean University of China in 2003 with the Master's Degree of Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics.

She is now teaching English as a lecturer in Foreign Languages School of Qingdao University of Science and Technology.

Suzhen Ren was born in 1960, Qingdao, Shandong Province, China. She graduated from Shandong Normal University with the Bachelor's Degree of English.

She is now a professor working at Teaching Affairs Office of Qingdao University of Science and Technology.

Arguing for the Use of Portfolio in L2 Classrooms

Mahmood Hashemian

English Department, Shahrekord University, Shahrekord, Iran

Email: m72h@hotmail.com

Ghasemali Azadi

Faculty of Educational Studies, University of Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Email: azadi62@hotmail.com

Abstract—Pursuing the traditional assessment in education has been a subject of considerable debate among educational experts particularly in language teaching. Depending on the needs of societies, suitable facilities, the purposes of the curricula, and highly educational demands, alternative assessment has been considered to meet the required outcomes. Portfolio, the most well-known of alternative assessments, is generally considered a purposeful collection of student work that shows the student's effort, progress, and achievement in a target area as it not only provides a source for assessment but also enhances learning opportunities. Teachers, students, and researchers need to be well briefed on the benefits of portfolio in the classrooms. However, portfolio is not a perfect assessment tool specially with respect to grading on a large scale, its subjective design, logistic application, and reliability. To enjoy a probable foolproof assessment in language teaching, newer methods and approaches that assist a better and more authentic assessment should be welcomed.

Index Terms—traditional assessment, alternative assessment, portfolio

I. INTRODUCTION

Lack of authentic assessments in education with respect to students' attempts and abilities has, all the time, been a very serious matter of issue for experts in education. According to AbdSamad (2004, p. 100), this is due to the role of the traditional assessments as one-shot and indirect tests with no feedback provided to students, decontextualized test tasks, product of instruction, and intrusive and judgemental procedure. In general, experts in education believe that traditional assessments are not accurate and fair enough to deal with students' potential. According to Tsagari (2004), there are some types of dissatisfaction with formal assessment procedure like dissatisfaction with type of gathered information in which learning as a process is denied, dissatisfaction with standardised tests that focus only on skills for the examination, and dissatisfaction with teacher-made tests that overemphasise the grading function.

In response, alternative assessments are currently and widely used in the field of education as assessments coping with longitudinal and direct tests providing feedback to students. On the other hand, alternative assessments are contextualized, reflect the process of instruction, and proceed as integrated and developmental test (AbdSamad, 2004, p. 101). Alternative assessments are given warm welcome not only because of the weak points of traditional assessments, but also because of the new visions of schools of thought in psychology and educational development like constructivism and multiple-intelligence learning theories which accelerate the radical changes in the field of assessment (Birgin & Baki, 2007). In the cognitive version of constructivism, constructivists place emphasis on importance of L2 learners and believe that L2 learners construct their own representation of reality. They take the role of students into consideration in the process of learning. As Slavin (2003, pp. 257-258) state, "learners must individually discover and transform complex information if they are to make it by their own, a more active role for students in their own learning than typical in many classrooms." The role of teachers, in this view, is to create a learning environment that makes opportunities for an analysis of learning. Teachers should facilitate learning, group and pair work.

In recent theories, teachers are supposed to consider and arrive at three basic areas. That is, teachers as facilitators not only should have the knowledge of the subject matter and should be able to handle skills and techniques, but also should generate a psychological climate directing to high quality learning. According to Klenowski (2002), "a teacher should build up the student-teacher cooperation in consonance with the student's learning, available support, and collaboration" (p. 126).

The impact of constructivism has changed experts' and teachers' views and has brought about the changes in assessments in depth. Consequently, various types of alternative assessments have come into existence ranging from physical demonstration to peer assessment, but it is obvious that the most frequently used one among the assessments is "portfolio assessment." This paper attempts to indicate the rewarding and challenging aspects of portfolio in the classroom and brief the stakeholders through the reasons to use the portfolio in the classroom, although it is obvious

that some teachers and experts might profess some shortcomings.

II. DEFINITIONS AND CONTENTS OF PORTFOLIO

There are several different definitions for portfolio based on the fields and the objectives of the fields. Yang (2003) mentions that portfolio is a compilation of work through which students demonstrate the effort they have put into their work, their progress and achievement in their learning, and their reflection on the materials chosen for the portfolio. According to Nunes (2004), portfolio is considered as part of an alternative assessment which can contain either students' best work or their accomplishments.

In the field of education, the best probably belongs to Wyatt III and Looper (2004) who mentioned, "an educational portfolio is a very personal collection of artefacts and reflections about one's accomplishments, learning, strengths, and best works which is dynamic, ever-growing, and ever-changing" (p. 2). To be more precise in an L2 context, Snively and Wright (2003) define portfolio as the direct evidence of a student's efforts, accomplishments, and advancement throughout a period of time that play both a role as a purposeful collection of student work to show the student's efforts, progress, and achievements and as a teaching tool which helps the development of L2 skills of the student as well as how well students have learned the subjects, what they have not learned yet, and what they still need to improve (p. 3).

The content of portfolio is quite different and depends on the focus of the course and level of learners. According to Pettis (2004), "any kind of material that a teacher would use to determine a learner's level would be appropriate" (p. 39). Writing samples (possibly with the various versions before the final copy), tests, lists of books or stories that a learner has read and completed questions on, a checklist of language tasks with the completed ones marked off, a tape of an interview or presentation, spelling tests, a completed answer sheet from a listening task, and so on might be some possibilities depending on the level.

As general guidelines, Bauer et al. (2007) suggest five different groups of materials that may be included in the portfolio of students: 1) Samples that are considered class assignment requirements, 2) processed samples that were previously graded by the teacher, 3) revisions of student work that are graded and then revised, edited, and rewritten, 4) reflections that are associated with the processed samples and these reflections give students opportunities to identify their own strengths and weaknesses, and 5) portfolio projects that include work mainly designed for students to put into their portfolios.

Endecott et al. (2004) claim that the contents of a portfolio for the education purpose can be whatever that facilitates the application of teaching and learning theories to practice, enables students to develop skills for reflective practice, and provides evidence of competence.

Among various views towards the contents of a portfolio, perhaps the most completed one is of four sections presented by Bailey (1998, p. 218) in Figure 1:

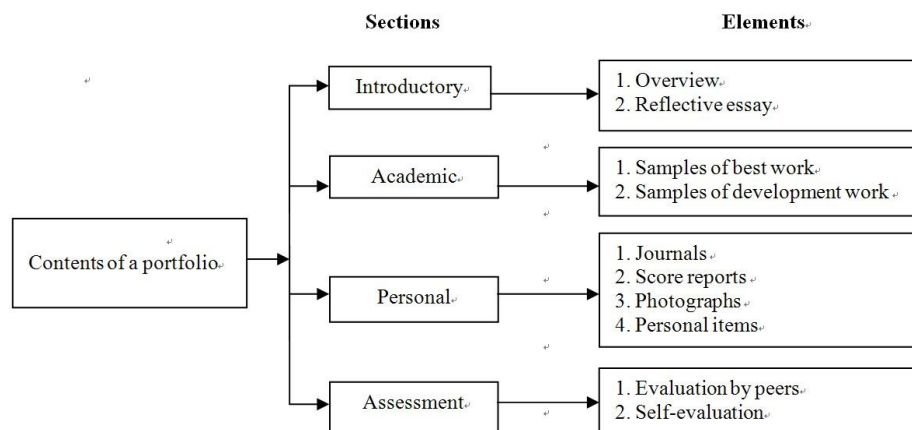


Figure 1. Contents of a Portfolio (Adapted from AbdSamad, 2004, p. 103)

The first section helps students express their thoughts and feelings about the portfolio. The second section demonstrates students' achievement in the skill areas. The third section illustrates students' experiences with the English language. And, the fourth section shows the reflections of peers and students themselves towards what they have achieved.

However, the definition and contents presented in this study are confined to educational portfolio; otherwise, there are several other portfolios with different definitions and contents like art, professional, and many others including some subdivisions. In fact, it is not a safe notion to generalise a certain definition for all and even for some of them. The realm of portfolio application is so vast that for each part of this realm, resourceful researchers and experts of that part should get engaged.

III. PROS AND CONS OF PORTFOLIO

The abovementioned definitions and even the one defined by Wyatt III and Looper (2004) have, in practice, their own proponents and opponents. Both groups account for their claims and try to justify what they stress on. Although the opponents have not completely denied the implementation of portfolio, they find fault with it. On the other hand, the proponents insist on many positive traits of portfolio and encourage teachers and students to use it.

Proponents like Trotman (2004) consider portfolios an instrument that helps teachers get a much clearer picture of their students' abilities. The single timed test is not able to declare many invisible capabilities of students, such as learning strategies, thinking process, reflection on the real world, and so forth. Teachers consider students' abilities not at a short time relevant to exams and based on raw scores. They can sometimes find even some special achievements in portfolios that may not be found in formal exams. In fact, teachers can move through the layers of students' works during the sessions, stay more with the students' abilities, and find out something deeper and more tangible about the students' capabilities.

Proponents also mention that when portfolio is written throughout the whole course, based on various forms of input, the results will be authentic (Trotman, 2004). Students do not just prepare themselves for the exam in a short period of time. They are continually dealing with presenting the learned material in portfolio that shows the real form of learning. Longer involvement certainly increases the real contact with real learning. It is obvious that students who practice continuously and exceedingly learn better and deeper.

The other thing to support portfolio is that it evaluates the process and product of learning as well as other important learning behaviours (Tsagari, 2004). Through preparation of portfolio, it is possible to focus on both the steps through which a student involves consciously in learning like his or her learning strategies and the outcome of his or her attempts relevant to learning. The student who takes part in the class for writing skill, for example, should steadily and practically use the same skill as he or she is making the portfolio. It is also possible to notice whether he or she approaches the skill objectives or not as he or she goes ahead.

Portfolio, too, makes results meaningful to a variety of stakeholders (Tsagari, 2004). It is easy to interpret and understand not only for teachers but also for students, parents, and administrators. All persons involved in the interpretation of the results can tangibly realise the reality as they consider the result during a meaningful period of time.

Interactivity is the other positive trait of portfolio. It is really high because writers who are fully engaged in using the language for planning, editing, and revising are engaged in using metacognitive strategies and a good personal investment, both of which are motivating factors (Trotman, 2004). Students who deal with portfolio preparation, to some extent, even show their feelings, experiences, beliefs, and interests. In order to move successfully from the starting point to the finishing point, they should get along with some kind of hidden struggle to be able to plan, select, and present the duty in a satisfactory way.

In addition, portfolio has great washback on students because, as Trotman (2004) emphasised, "it not only provides the opportunity for reflection but, since they have control over both the conditions of their writing and selection of their portfolio, it enables them to develop of their work" (p. 2). Students who try to select the most appropriate parts and have the chance to reflect are aware of their improvement process. Awareness increases their care to select the suitable content and consequently makes them improve steadily.

It is certain that portfolio can be used for self-assessment (Birgin & Baki, 2007). Students will be able to understand their weak and strong points in learning as they prepare portfolio and as they monitor their preparation. When they encounter their weaknesses, they attempt to consider and cope with them, and when they are strong in some areas, they attempt to enhance them, or at least, stabilise the strong points. As they observe the instant outcome of their attempt, they actually come to a source of self-assessment. Tsagari (2004) points out that portfolio helps students to become "skilled judges" of their own weaknesses and strengths. Because students can judge their work as they go forward, they can direct themselves better in the process. Portfolio encourages students to make a fuss over what they prepare for a better outcome. Positive outcome is gained when the previous parts in sequence have logical and relevant solidarity. The largest advantage about validity of a collection is that we allow writers time for editing before handing work in. According to Trotman (2004), "it enables the writer to present a much truer picture of how he writes outside the exam room both the classroom and the real world (p. 2).

Students spend enough time on their work as they prepare a portfolio and because they are not under any class related pressure, they several times review their work consciously or subconsciously. Portfolio enhances the feeling of efficacy as a growing person (Tsagari, 2004). Because students are aware of participating in a process that they are able to carry out, they feel satisfied with their improvement and attempt to keep on the process. Efficacy among students is one of the basic factors which motivates students to move ahead and sometimes creates creative students.

Many students take portfolio development very seriously because they plan to use some of the contents to convince teachers that they have unique skills and talents. Students, true or false, come to pass the course successfully with good scores, and because of this, they try to show they have some unique capabilities which must be presented. They find portfolio the best place to present their capabilities.

Banta (2003) wrote, "because an essential feature of preparing a portfolio is reflecting on the content and explaining how components fit together to illustrate what has been learned, portfolios simultaneously develop students' skills of reflective thinking"(p. 2). Reflective thinking, one of the greatest advantages of portfolio, allows students to organise

the material as coherent as it is. The power of choosing and describing the suitable part to be put in the portfolio leads students more towards optimisation.

Face validity in portfolio is high for it consists of materials or skills taught and learnt in the course (Banta, 2003). For example, if students are taught different types of writing formats in the class, they prepare the portfolio with contents and examples of those writing formats. If phonetic symbols are taught, portfolio parts certainly represent phonetic alphabet or phonetic transcription.

Portfolio also influences teaching in important ways. Teachers themselves have mentioned the following positive points for portfolio as Schipper and Rossi (1997) stated, "portfolio improves their instruction by compelling them to be more explicit. It makes them more reflective about their students and teaching process. It enhances their ability to do assessment and it makes teaching more fun" (p. 3). It is obvious that whatever is related to students is more or less related to teachers, too. As it is confessed by teachers themselves, the impact of portfolio on teachers is in a positive and formative manner. So, we see that students and teachers both benefit from the portfolio in many different aspects.

It is worth mentioning that portfolio as an assessment instrument bears more advantages, such as enhancing student and teacher involvement in assessment, providing opportunities for teachers to observe students using meaningful language to accomplish various authentic tasks in a variety of contexts and situations, permitting the assessment of multiple dimensions of language learning, providing opportunities for both students and teachers to work together and reflect on what it means to assess students' language growth, increasing the variety of information collected on students, and making teachers' ways of assessing student work more systematic (AbdSamad, 2004, p. 104).

To sum up, Wary (2007) summarises the benefits of portfolio for students, teachers, and even teacher trainers as a dynamic teaching-learning assessment to illuminate the educational philosophies and put them in constant practice, to develop focused reflection in teaching and learning, and to widely indicate the various impacts in the classroom.

On the other side of the picture, there are opponents who mention the drawbacks of portfolio assessment; however, it is interesting that they do not completely reject the application of portfolio. They point out that scoring portfolio is not fair because it is not reliable (Birgin & Baki, 2007). Because it is a kind of subjective assessment related to the form of grading in comparison to multiple-choice test, it seems not to be fair. They are worried about the teacher's personal feeling on the parts of the work believing that different persons have different tastes and different tastes may lead to different understanding.

Another shortcoming for portfolio assessment is that it is very time-consuming for teachers to score, especially if the class is crowded (Birgin & Baki, 2007; Trotman, 2004). For a teacher, for example, in a 20-student class, there is just time for him or her to assess the portfolios. Because different parts of the lesson should be covered in any session, spending much time on one topic is boring, too.

Just as other qualitative data, it is hard to analyse the data from portfolios (Birgin & Baki, 2007). How can a teacher evaluate the exact mind potential and mind process of a student? Even a very experienced teacher is not able to perform abstract assessment efficiently. It is too difficult to read the exact process of a student's mind mixed with his or her feeling as he or she makes the portfolio.

Reliability and validity are considered low because the opponents discuss the possible help from others to assist the student for preparation of portfolio (Birgin & Baki, 2007). They do not deny this doubt that a student may be helped by somebody else like peers or even parents for a suitable portfolio. It is a natural tendency to submit the best work to the teacher, and for this reason, students may be tempted to try to find different possible ways to increase the quality of the work. They sometimes attempt to find shortcuts to prepare their work by getting help from others.

Handling and controlling portfolios in a crowded classroom is difficult (Birgin & Baki, 2007). It is hard for a teacher to control all students' portfolios one by one through the exact procedure. Suppose that we have 20 students in a class and we should consider all of their work, it is nearly hard to control all pieces of work equally and efficiently.

Another shortcoming, as Birgin and Baki (2007) emphasize, is lack of support by parents and community. They are familiar with the traditional score cards at the end of the course and unfamiliar with this kind of new way of assessment, so they react not in a satisfactory manner. In fact, they are in the habit of having the scores of their children in a very easy and formal way.

According to AbdSamad (2004, pp. 104-105), the drawbacks of portfolio, in short, include grading portfolio on large scale, subjectivity in portfolio design, logistic requirements like time and resources, interpretation of students' abstract personal interests, and maintenance of high inter-rater reliability.

IV. SUGGESTIONS FOR DRAWBACKS

Perhaps, it seems that overcoming the drawbacks of portfolios is something impossible, but in order to defuse the shortcomings, there are some tips offered by teachers, experts, and researchers.

For the reliability of scoring as an issue in portfolios, it is useful to identify measurable and clear criteria for each item of portfolio. If the purpose of portfolio is clear for teachers and students, it increases the reliability (Birgin & Baki, 2007). It is useful to specify the amount of score for each item as clear as possible. For example, if a teacher should assess a writing part, analytical scoring is more preferable than holistic, and objective scoring is more reliable than analytical. In addition, as suggested by Trotman (2004), "training markers with 'anchor' portfolio to get them to identify specific level of achievement is worth trying" (p. 2). It means that teachers should be trained well to be able to find the

suitable way of scoring based on the content, nature, and subject in the portfolio.

To overcome the time-consuming issue for portfolios, according to Birgin and Baki (2007), checklist (list of objectives or behaviours to be observed), rubrics (descriptions of students performance expectations linked to a scale for evaluating the work), digital portfolio and multiple drafts, and if it is possible, computer-based portfolio can be helpful.

For qualitative case of portfolio, checklists and observation list (notes on observation of student performance) can be useful as well as electronic portfolio (Birgin & Baki, 2007). It is certain that whatever is qualitative is very difficult to be assessed, but with observation list and checklist we attempt to bring the duty to something as objective as possible.

To remove the problem of handling portfolios, electronic portfolio is suggested (Birgin & Baki, 2007). It is easier to classify and put the materials in separate files for better access. Because in the present modern era having access to electronic devices is more or less possible, it is a logical solution to the issue of handling.

For the parental unfamiliarity with portfolio scoring case, at the beginning of the course, parents should be aware of the method and the positive traits of it (Birgin & Baki, 2007). It is useful to have some regular meetings with parents during the course to view children's portfolios and discuss them with teachers.

V. CONCLUSION

Because the role of students according to constructivism is not traditionally defined in this modern world with swift changes in all different aspects, it is not logical and wise to go ahead only with the traditional view towards the high scale goals of students who are undoubtedly the real decision-makers and social, political, and economic role-players in future. It is by nature neither possible nor logical but a waste of a lot of financial, human, and administrative facilities and potential if we ignore the vivid positive realities of alternative assessments, including portfolios, which are ratified by scientists and educational deep thinkers. According to constructivists and as stressed by Klenowski (2002):

All students need to acquire skills in self-management, self-regulation, continuing learning, self-evaluation, and planning of future work because of the rapid, radical changes of a global, economic, social, and political nature, implying necessary changes to assessment, pedagogy, and curriculum as described through the use of portfolios. (p. 138)

Moreover, as emphasised by Birgin and Baki (2007), "portfolios are assessment tools based on contemporary learning approach such as constructivist learning theory, multiple-intelligences theory, and brain-based learning theory" (p. 86). Implementation of portfolio is actually supported by theories and proved by researchers in practice that indicates it is beyond the personal taste of teachers, students, or others.

In brief, if we consider the versatile capacity of portfolios, it is a very suitable instrument to satisfy the requirements which are not only based on the needs of the realities of the current changes in the modern world, but also based on a very strong support by scientific notions mentioned in new theories.

As teachers and students pay attention to portfolio, the kinds of dissatisfaction with quantitative format of assessment in the traditional type would be disappeared, or at least, diminished. When students learn and present the subject material in an on-going process and feel they are in charge of producing work in portfolio, the assessment of their potential is more authentic and clearer. When teachers assess students' capabilities frequently, they educate students during the meaningful period of time, and at the same time, they even come to possible reforms about their own teaching approach.

Current learning theories and assessments push the assessment decision-makers to get along with the requirement needed for the suitable adjustment according to those theories. In this way, there will be a positive relationship between curriculum, assessment, and pedagogy. Researchers show that portfolio increases reflection, self-evaluation, and analysis which are not found in traditional forms of assessment. As Klenowski (2002) indicates, "portfolios are being used increasingly for assessment and learning purposes of potential for the associated curriculum and pedagogic practice to foster metacognitive development" (p. 2).

For students, portfolio serves as an authentic source to show practically what a student has achieved. It encourages students to become independent and self-directed learners, and enhances communication among teachers, students, and parents. It shows students their strong and weak points. Portfolio makes students take responsibility for their learning. It increases the cooperation between teachers and students. Portfolio shows both learning process and learning product during the course. It increases students' motivation, awareness, self-assessment, self-evaluation, and self-monitoring. As Birgin and Baki (2007) also mention, portfolio has a potential which enables students to learn during assessment and to be assessed during learning.

For teachers, portfolio improves their teaching approaches as they face students' needs in portfolios. Birgin and Baki (2007) indicate, "portfolio encourages teachers to change their instructional practice and it is a powerful way to link curriculum and instruction with assessment" (p. 84). It also increases teachers' reflection about students' learning process. It makes teaching more interesting as mentioned by teachers themselves.

The present authors strongly believe that teachers should be fully and practically educated in the field of alternative assessment, especially portfolio in order to know its value and role in assessment, appraisal, and promotion, but they should not discard the traditional methods of assessment. Logically speaking, depending on the needs of societies, suitable facilities, and the purposes of the curricula, both approaches should be taken into consideration in order to have a very efficient outcome.

Students should also be informed and very well briefed on the benefits of portfolio. If they know the versatile nature of portfolio including where they should go by using portfolio, how they should go by building portfolio, why they should go by applying portfolio, and what they should meet by preparing portfolio, they willingly get involved in portfolio, and finally, the outcome of the attempt will be highly sufficient and efficient.

In sum, portfolio without any doubt and based on the reasons mentioned in this paper should be used in the classrooms. But because there is galloping progress in all fields of education, there will be certainly more changes in the vision and mission related to assessment in future, and so it is not wise to consider even the alternative assessments as perfect instruments whether portfolio or other stuff. Teachers, students, researchers, and all who are involved in education should welcome the newer methods and approaches that assist a better and more authentic assessment.

REFERENCES

- [1] AbdSamad, A. A. (2004). Essential language testing for Malaysian teachers. Kuala Lumpur: Malindo Printers Sdn. Bhd.
- [2] Bailey, K. M. (1998). Learning about language assessment: Dilemmas and directions. Pacific Grove: Heinle and Heinle.
- [3] Banta, T. W. (2003). Introduction: Why-portfolio? Retrieved August 15, 2010, from the World Wide Web: [1Au/Introhttp://media.wiley.com/product_data/excerpt/6x/07879728.pdf](http://media.wiley.com/product_data/excerpt/6x/07879728.pdf)
- [4] Christopher, F. Bauer, C. F. et al. (2007). A guide to the teaching of portfolio. Retrieved January 5, 2011, from the World Wide Web: www.unh.edu/teaching-excellence.
- [5] Birgin, O. & Baki, A. (2007). The use of portfolio to assess student's performance. *Journal of Turkish Science Education* 4.2, 75–91.
- [6] Endecott, R. et al. (2004). Using portfolios in the assessment of learning and competence: The impact of four models. *Nurse Education in Practice* 4, 250–257.
- [7] Klenowski, V. (2002). Developing portfolios for learning and assessment: Processes and principles. London: Routledge Falmer.
- [8] Nunes, A. (2004). Portfolios in the EFL classroom: Disclosing an informed practice. *ELT Journal* 58.4, 327–35.
- [9] Pettis, J. (2004). Collaborative language portfolio assessment. Manitoba best practices guide. Retrieved December 10, 2010, from the World Wide Web: www.monitobaimmigration.com
- [10] Schipper, B. & Roosi, J. (1997). Portfolios in the classroom: Tools for learning and instruction. York: Stenhouse Publishers.
- [11] Slavin, R. (2003). Educational psychology: Theory and practice. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- [12] Snavey, L. L. & Wright, C. A. (2003). Research portfolio use in undergraduate honors education: Assessment tool and model for future work. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship* 29.5, 72–85.
- [13] Thomas, C. et al. (2005). Portfolio assessment: A guide to teachers and administrators. National Forum of Educational Administration and Supervision. *Journal-Electronic* 23.4E, 1–8.
- [14] Trotman, W. (2004). Portfolio assessment: Advantages, drawbacks, and implementation. Retrieved September 20, 2010, from the World Wide Web: articles/trotman: www.waynetrotman.com
- [15] Tsagari, D. (2004). An introduction to language assessment. Is there life beyond language testing? Lancaster University: CRILE Working Papers No. 58.
- [16] Wyatt III, R. L. & Looper, S. (2004). So you have to have a portfolio: A teacher's guide to preparation and presentation. California: Corwin Press.
- [17] Wray, S. (2007). Teaching portfolios, community, and pre-service teachers' professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 23, 1139–1152.
- [18] Yang, N. D. (2003). Integrating portfolios into learning strategy-based instruction for EFL college students. *IRAL* 41.4, 293–317.

Mahmood Hashemian is an assistant professor at Shahrekord University. His area of research includes cognitive-semantic linguistics, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics. He has published articles in academic journals such as IJAL, IJLS, JLTR, TPLS, JALS, Linguistik-Online, Iranian EFL Journal, and International Journal of Social Sciences. Also, he has given lectures in conferences such as TELLSI (4, 7, & 8), LDP2010, and ELT in the Islamic World.

Ghasemali Azadi is an M.A. TESL graduate of the University of Putra Malaysia. He is currently teaching English at Pooyesh Language School at various levels. His areas of interest include teacher training, L2 methodology, and curriculum development.

Mechanisms Leading to Negative Transfer

Xiaorong Luo

Foreign Language School, Changchun University of Science and Technology, Changchun, China
Email: lxrlinda301@yahoo.com.cn

Jian Gao

English Department, the Educational Institute of Jilin Province, Changchun, China
Email: bobgao1965@yahoo.com.cn

Abstract—Negative transfer or interference is one of the difficulties in the course of second language learning for its existence in different linguistic levels. It is covered and permeable. At the same time, it is embodied in such various activities of parole as listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating and often occurs unconsciously when learners transfer items and structures that are not the same in both languages, and within the theory of contrastive analysis, it is believed that the greater the differences between the two languages, the more negative transfer can be expected. There are many factors that may lead to the negative transfer. The devices for it can be analyzed in the following aspects.

Index Terms—mechanism, negative transfer, language, semiotics, information theory

I. THE ASPECT OF LANGUAGE ITSELF

A language is a system of signs expressing ideas and transmitting information. In the course of the form and development of languages, each language has its own principles, rules and regulations to organize the language to communicate. The form of the linguistic rules is objective, once the rules are accepted by a language community, it has its own protecting function, which is stable and unique.

In second language learning, when the rules of the two languages contact, it is likely for their own protecting functions to resist. Two results might be caused when one language rules try to conquer the ones of another language: (1) positive transfer or negative transfer when learners apply the knowledge and skills of their native to the second language; (2) on the contrary, when the second language rules conquer the learners' native language, the linguistic proficiency of the second language learners' has enabled him/her to overcome the negative transfer. It is evident for the beginner to transfer their own language rules to the second language because the protecting function of their mother tongue has rooted in learners' mind. Interference occurs easily at the beginning of second language learning because learner's native language rules always try to make the rule of the second language suitable to the ones of their native language.

II. THE ASPECT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Psycholinguistics is the study of the mental structures and processes involved in the acquisition and use of language. Some theorists reconceptualized transfer within a cognitive framework, which was begun by Larry Selinker. In his formulation of interlanguage theory he identified language transfer as one of the mental process responsible for fossilization. Subsequently, there has been widespread acknowledgement that second language learners depend on their native language (L1) in forming interlanguage hypotheses. Learners do not construct rules in a vacuum; rather they work with whatever information is at their disposal. This includes knowledge of their L1. The L1 can be viewed as a kind of input from the inside. According to this view, "transfer is not 'interference', but a cognitive process"(Ellis, 2000,p52).In this aspect, the term "transfer" is a psychological one.

Cognitive theory can account for the fact that differences between the target language and native language do not always result in learning difficulty. A cognitive theory of language acquisition sees linguistic knowledge as the same as in kind other types of knowledge, and views the strategies responsible for its development as general in nature, related to and involved in other kinds of learning. In cognitivist position language transfer is regarded as a cognitive process, that is, second language (L2) learners make strategic use of their L1 in the process of L2 learning. "The use of L1 in L2 learning comes to be seen as an element of learning strategies"(Wang ,2007,p5). As Corder (1981) suggested that the learner's L1 may facilitate the developmental process of learning a L2 by helping him to progress more rapidly along the 'universal' route when the L1 is similar to the L2. And Krashen (1981) thought that learners can use the L1 to initiate utterances when they do not have sufficient acquired knowledge of the target language for this purpose. Both Corder's and Krashen's proposals refer to L1 as a learning "strategy". Only when learners' knowledge of the target language is not enough and need to make up for it or when learners believe that they may make use of their native language to infer the features of the target language, learners would transfer their L1. Therefore, language transfer is a cognitive means to use the knowledge of their native language for the second language learners.

III. THE ASPECT OF INFORMATION THEORY

According to Longman dictionary, information theory explains how communication systems carry information and which measures the amount of information according to how much choice is involved when we send information. "One well-known model describes communication as a process consisting of the following elements: the information source, i.e. a speaker, selects a desired message out of a possible set of messages. The transmitter changes the messages into a signal which is sent over the communication channel it is received by the receiver and changed back into a message which is sent to the destination. In the process of transmission certain unwanted additions to the signal may occur which are not part of the message and these are referred to as noise. The information content of a unit is measured according to how likely it is to occur in a particular communication. The more predictable a unit is, the less information it is said to carry. The unit of information used in information theory is the binary digit or bit. The related concept of redundancy refers to the degree to which a message contains more information than is needed for it to be understood" (Longman Dictionary, 2005, p, 332).

From the content of the information theory, we can see that linguistic communication is a process of exchanging information, which can be expressed in the model below:

Context
Information
Speaker -----> Hearer
Contact/Exposure
Code

In this model, there are six elements governing the communicative process. The first element is "information", then goes to the "speaker and hearer" and the "contact" between the speaker and the hearer. The sending and receiving of the information can be realized through the "code switching", which is a change by a speaker or writer from one language or language variety to another one. Code switching can take place in a conversation when one speaker uses one language and the other speaker answers in a different language. A person may start speaking one language and then change to another one in the middle of their speech, or sometimes even in the middle of a sentence. Code switching can be a sign of cultural solidarity or distance or serve as an act of identity. This is the fifth element governing the communicative process. And the last is the "context", occurring before or after a word, a phrase or even a longer utterance or a text. The context often helps in understanding the particular meaning of the word, phrase, etc. The context also may be a broader social situation in which a linguistic item is used. Influenced by the context and the communicators (i.e. the speaker and the hearer), the messages can not be sent exactly to the hearer sometimes, this is called the "information gap".

Encoding and decoding in the same way, the communicators with the identical cultural background and language can communicate freely, for they share the same linguistic system rules. On the contrary, the exchanging information can not be realized in the same way that the communicators expect if they do not have the same cultural background and speak the same language, i.e. if the speaker and the hearer cannot share the identical linguistic system rules. The information carries the speaker's intended meaning when it is sent by the speaker. Actually, the speaker encodes and sends the information under his/her own cultural background. There is a code switching process when the information is sent to the hearer, during which the decoding process is influenced by the hearer's cultural background. In brief, the information encoded in one culture must be decoded in another culture because both the speaker and the hearer do not share the same cultural background. Under such circumstances, the informative content carried by the original code can not be accepted by the hearer equivalently, then the information gap will occur, leading to communicative failure, i.e. interference will occur. The information gap may be divided into the following types:

(1) After the hearer accepts and decodes the information, the meaning carried by the information has been added, for example: Shall we have a cup of coffee? This has the meaning of inviting someone to have a cup of coffee in both Chinese and English. English speaking people invite someone to have coffee together without intending to pay the bill for the others, but as for Chinese, the sentence means that the inviter pays the bill. Chinese grants more meaning to it than English. We call it value-added information.

(2) Opposite to (1), when the hearer's meaning is less than the speaker's, the information is decreased. We call it information dissipation/impairment. This results from the fact that the speaker's meaning has been beyond the literal meaning, transmitting the implied meaning with cultural element. We might hear:

"That guy's got a Midas touch" (He, 2005, p.219)

To understand the utterance, we must know what "Midas touch" is. It comes from a Greek tale "The Golden Touch." Midas is the king's name. However, even if we know that Midas touch is the Golden touch, we still cannot get the hang of the utterance above: how come the guy has got a Golden touch? As a matter of fact, the utterance was about business activity. The speaker was talking about that guy's skill in doing business: he gains a lot without great effort, as if he got a golden touch, like Midas.

(3) The information may be mistaken by the hearer while decoding, i.e. supposing one information is another. We might hear:

"The organization quickly mushroomed into a mass movement" (He, 2005, p.221).

When we translate this into Chinese, the "bamboo" is often used instead of mushroom because Chinese and English

take cognizance of different things according to their own cultural customs. As a result, the “mushroom” might be understood as “bamboo shoots”, with the meaning that something appears and grows quickly. It is pity that such information is not exact because “mushroom” in English also means vanish or disappear quickly, though both of them mean numerals and growing fast, for example, mushroom fame, a mushroom millionaire, but Chinese “yuhouchunsun” has no such subtle meaning.

The hearer can not understand the speaker’s meaning completely, which is called “decoding delay.” Figurative meaning in different languages may have different associations. In cross-cultural communication, we must see what images of them can be brought about, and what context should be considered to grasp the exact meaning of words and expressions from one language to another. For instance, “You chicken!” he cried, looking at Tom with contempt. English native speaker compares the coward to a chicken, there is no such expression in Chinese, so Chinese learners of English often feel puzzled or confused about it because they never realized that the coward is the chicken in English.

In brief, conveying the information is constrained by culture. Based on this fact, the so-called “decoding” is a process of decoding the culture.

IV. THE ASPECT OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

Culture can be approached from different perspectives and consequently defined in quite different ways. “Culture can be, in a broad sense, understood as the total way of life of a nation, their approach to life and their ways of behaving, particularly living and thinking. This simple, but inclusive definition of culture implies that culture covers virtually all the aspects of human life and their correspondent behaviour, linguistic and nonlinguistic, such as traditions, conventions, social norms, customs, social habits, modes of living, patterns of thinking, beliefs, values and language.” (Chen, 2004, p, 276).

Culture is often bound up with language and thought, which are interdependent. A nation’s culture and language often symbolize the nation’s spirit and mind. Language and culture are closely related to and dependent on each other throughout their history. The native language is acquired with the ways, attitudes and patterns of behaving of the social group and these ways, attitudes and behaving patterns find their expression through language. Language and culture evolved and developed together, and therefore have been interwoven and mutually dependent throughout their history. Neither of them can exist or develop without the other.

V. CONCLUSION

In order to overcome the negative transfer from L1, in the aspect of language itself, learners have to master the standard pronunciation, accurate grammatical rules and vocabulary of the target language. When second language learners’ linguistic knowledge increases, their linguistic competence increases, too. As for as the information theory and the cultural and linguistic relationships are concerned, learners have to improve their cultural quality of the target language because language and culture interact. Learning a language, in fact, is inseparable from learning its culture. So language and culture must be studied together, and great efforts must be made in the study of the culture in which the TL operates. Improving our cultural quality may make our language fluent, vivid, and elegant.

REFERENCES

- [1] Chen Linhua. (2004). An introduction to linguistics. Changchun: Jilin University Press.
- [2] Corder, S. P. (1981). Errors analysis and interlanguage. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [3] He Ziran. (2005). Notes on pragmatics. Nanjing: Nanjing Normal University Press.
- [4] Krashen, Stephen. (1981). Second language acquisition and second language learning. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- [5] Lado, R. (1957). Linguistics across cultures: Applied linguistics for language teachers. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan.
- [6] Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics. (2005). Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press. 84,332.
- [7] Rod Ellis, R. (1999). Understanding second language acquisition. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [8] Rod Ellis, R. (2000). Second Language Acquisition. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [9] Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 10: 209-31.
- [10] Wang Dongjin. (2007). Language Transfer And The Acquisition Of English Light-Verb And Noun Collocations By Chinese Learners. Msaster’s thesis, Chonqing University.

Xiaorong Luo was born in Changchun, China in 1963. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Changchun University of Science and Technology, China in 2009.

She is currently an associate professor in School of Foreign Languages, Changchun University of Science and Technology. Her interests are concerning the fields of language teaching and applied linguistics. She has published some papers relating to her teaching.

Jian Gao was born in Changchun, China in 1965. He got his bachelor degree in English teaching from Siping Teachers' College, Siping, Jilin, China in 1984.

He is currently an associate professor in English Department, the Educational Institute of Jilin province, China. His favorite fields are the general linguistics and teaching methodology. His latest publication is The importance of Teaching English Phonetics, and he also did the project on the differences of Chinese and English Phonetics.

Quantification and Graphic Representation of EFL Textbook Evaluation Results

Mohammad Reza Ghorbani
Bojnord University, Iran
Email: mrg872@yahoo.com

Abstract—Part of the English language problems in Iran are supposed to arise from the inadequacies in the design of the prescribed English textbooks used at high school levels. This study examines the first grade English textbook used in Iran's senior high schools based on the current research findings in syllabus design, English language teaching, and the specific language teaching situation in Iran to determine the extent to which it conforms to the common universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks. Detailed analysis focused specifically on the use of a checklist extracted from different EFL textbook evaluation checklists corresponding to the local needs. The findings show that only 63% percent of the book conforms to the universal characteristics of textbooks. It is hoped that policy makers, textbook writers, and teachers strive to effectively match textbooks with the needs of the learners.

Index Terms—EFL textbook, evaluation, graphic presentation, checklist, instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

Although the significance of the textbook as a universal component of English language teaching is undeniable (Hutchison and Torres 1994), it is difficult to define the textbook role in the language classroom perfectly and exactly. Textbooks provide teachers and students with a common framework. However, it is not enough to use them, from cover to cover, for meeting students' needs. It is necessary for instructors to strike a balance between being a slave to their texts and providing organized, objective-based instruction (Garinger, 2002). To do so, instructors need updated criteria to evaluation system to use as

Evaluation, as an underlying element in the development of innovations and modifications within the educational context, is a dynamic process which investigates the suitability and appropriateness of an existing practice (Rea-Dickens and Germaine 1992) and can be used as a useful device for both teachers and material writers. However, despite its undeniable role in improving various aspects of teaching programs, evaluation is not still a well supported part of a project (Hargreaves, 1989).

Many experts suggest that evaluation checklists should be used for a thorough examination of a textbook's language content. For example, Cunningsworth (1984) deals with the necessity of relating materials to course objectives and the learner's needs. Sheldon's (1988) checklist focuses on assessing all aspects of content ranging from graphics and physical characteristics to authenticity and flexibility. Ansary and Babaii (2002) believe that although these approaches are the most common and likely straightforward, the shaky theoretical basis of such checklists and the subjectivity of judgments have often been a source of disappointment. Perhaps, that is why the relative merits of such checklists and their criteria, over the years, would diminish and new checklists would be needed. They suggest a scheme, which is based on a selected set of common consensus-reached and some theory-neutral, universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks, for a systematic textbook evaluation.

The textbook evaluation criteria developed by the researcher for this study is based on a set of universal (but not theory-neutral) characteristics which not only correspond to the local needs, but also are flexible enough to be used worldwide with some modifications. Before proceeding to the main research topic, a description of Iranian educational system, English education and grading system at senior high schools is provided in the following text to help the reader understand the research context.

A. English Education in Iran

In Iran, English is taught as a foreign language and is practiced within a context-restricted environment, in which the textbook and classroom teacher play the main role. The difference between English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL) is that in an ESL context, English is taught as a partial or general medium of instruction for other subjects, while in an EFL context, instruction in other subjects is not usually in English (Prator, 1991).

Previously, English education in Iran formally started from second grade in junior high schools, but now it begins from the first grade. All schools at different levels follow the curriculum standards. The ME compiles, develops and publishes textbooks and teaching materials for nationwide public and private high schools (Eslami-Rasekh & Valizadeh, 2008, 2004).

According to the senior high school regulations prescribed by the ME in Iran, the average instruction time is three hours per week for the first grade, two hours for the second grade, and two hours per week for the third grade in senior high schools. English education, particularly at the pre-university level, has been focusing on reading skill. Most pre-university and senior high school English teachers, therefore, have been using the grammar translation teaching method in their classrooms (Hosseini, 2007).

Students' translation abilities have improved because the medium of instruction is Persian. They can translate materials written in English into Persian but they cannot use the language communicatively. The reforms of the ME, especially in the areas of curriculum development and teaching materials to the language education, do not seem to have been successful so far.

Due to a technological revolution and scientific advancements, the curriculum in pre-university and senior high school English education has been called into question and revised several times. The current textbooks for senior high school and pre-university English education were developed to put more emphasis on communicative competence, but they are far from being called communicative textbooks.

According to Hosseini (2007), even nowadays many teachers use the grammar translation method and the textbooks lack listening and speaking activities. Furthermore, the writing activities are confined to grammatical exercises such as making passive sentences, putting the scrambled words and phrases in order, etc.

B. Statement of the Problem

Students usually study the English language for seven years in Iranian high schools and pre-university centers. Although most of them master the related prescribed textbooks and pass their examinations with relatively good marks, very few of them leave the system with the ability to speak English effectively or use it communicatively. Famous Iranian Language testing and teaching specialists such as Farhady, Jafarpoor, and Birjandi (1994) have already confirmed that even Iranian students at the university level are not able to use the English language for communicative purposes as they are expected to.

Almost all Iranian English teachers are aware of the fact that the instruction of spoken English in the public and private school system faces major problems. Many English conversation institutes and language teaching centers out of the formal educational system throughout the country are in operation. They owe their existence to the very weakness of spoken English instruction in the formal education system.

Since many students encounter immense problems in terms of using the English language communicatively after graduating from senior high schools and pre-university centers, one might ask where the origin of these problems is. They may arise from different sources and have various reasons. However, it is assumed that the predicament is mainly caused by the inadequacies in English teachers' instruction and curriculum planning (Jahangard, 2007).

As most students encounter immense English language problems after graduating from high school, one might ask where these problems arise from. This study suggests that the predicament is mainly caused by the inadequacies in the design of the prescribed English textbooks used at junior and senior high school levels. Thus, this study is designed to investigate the extent to which the EFL textbooks in Iranian senior high schools conform to the common consensus-reached and universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks.

C. Significance of the Study

The primary importance of dealing with language education problems is reflected in the obligatory law in which the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL) must be included in the general syllabus of all Iranian schools. Despite the fact that textbooks are an important element in most of EFL classes, there has been little investigation in terms of how and why materials are selected by teachers. The reason for this may lie in the fact that in the age of communicative teaching, experts who advise on the use of textbooks may seem out of step with current language teaching methodology. Yet, regardless of how great an emphasis is placed on the use of authentic materials, teachers frequently do not have the time and the administrative support to collect and adapt all the necessary materials for their classes. Therefore, researchers are required to provide more guidance to enable teachers and administrators to make wiser decisions.

According to Tomlinson (1996), the process of materials evaluation can be seen as a means of carrying out action research. In doing so, this study first seeks to evaluate the Iranian high school EFL textbook (English 1) based on current trends in ELT, curriculum design, and materials development to find out whether they conform to the universal characteristics of EFL textbooks and recent pedagogical principles. And then, it highlights the main shortcomings of the textbook and offer suggestions to improve both the structure of English course and the design of the textbooks.

The current English Textbooks (English 1, 2 and 3), which are taught at the Iranian senior high schools, do not conform to the developments resulting from applied linguistic debates of the last two decades. The books have not been properly revised since they were introduced. Moreover, neither at the stage of introducing these textbooks, nor at any other stage, was any need analysis survey carried out. Therefore, there is an urgent need for evaluating and possibly updating the materials according to recent findings in applied linguistics and curriculum design. But it should be remembered that the implications of evaluation in a nation-wide educational context of public schools are of crucial sensitivity and consequences. Hence, it is necessary to choose and define the relevant criteria by which the merits and drawbacks of the textbooks are going to be examined.

The textbook evaluation criteria developed by the researcher for this study are based on a set of universal

characteristics of EFL textbooks which not only correspond to the local needs, but also are flexible enough to be used worldwide. The developed checklist was used and the content of the book was analyzed to evaluate the textbook.

By using a checklist, this study had a potential to explore and explain the weaknesses and strengths of the textbook which will be helpful for materials writers, curriculum designers, researchers, Curriculum Development Center of the Ministry of Education and teachers.

D. Research Question

In order to facilitate the investigation regarding the evaluation of the EFL textbook (English 1) used in Iranian senior high schools, the researcher formulated the following research question.

To what extent does the EFL textbook (English 1) used in Iranian senior high schools conform to the common consensus-reached and universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Prabhu (1987), textbooks ensure uniformity and accountability. They are both realizations and determinants of methods (Vassilakis 1997). In Iran, English language textbooks are pivotal to the language teaching program because they are the sole source of language input for the students who need to master English language for their future use. Since all decisions regarding curriculum, materials and instruction are determined by the Curriculum Development Center of the Ministry of Education, teachers are expected to strictly follow the guidelines created for them by the national government. Therefore, textbooks need to be continuously evaluated based on updated criteria.

There are many factors to be taken into account when evaluating material for use with EFL students. According to Nunan (1988) materials are an essential part of the curriculum. Chambers (1997), Harmer (1998), and Garinger (2002) offer a number of criteria to consider when analyzing textbooks for EFL/ESL classes. Cunningsworth (1984) deals with the necessity of relating materials to course objectives and the learner's needs. Sheldon's (1988) checklist focuses on assessing all aspects of content ranging from graphics and physical characteristics to authenticity and flexibility. Though these approaches are more common and straightforward, other writers go beyond simply content and instead focus on cognitive and affective factors.

Skierso (1991) and Chall and Conard (1991) employed Bloom's Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain to assess textbooks. According to Umer Azim (2005), Chall and Conard use Bloom's Taxonomy and a "Question Complexity Rating Scale" to evaluate textbook activities. These improvements and amendments refer to a paradigm shift to the process of learning versus the product of learning which implies focusing only on outcomes may not always address all the EFL learner's needs.

According to Riazi and Mosalanejad (2010), the textbook evaluation studies in Iran have focused on developing textbook evaluation criteria (Ansary & Babaii, 2002) or investigating strengths and weaknesses of the present textbooks (Jahangard, 2007; Riazi & Aryashokouh, 2007). This study used most of those criteria to examine the shortcomings of the current English textbook (English 1).

Ansary and Babaii (2002) believe that teachers, students, and administrators are all consumers of textbooks. They may have conflicting views about what a good textbook is. However, the question is where they can turn to for reliable advice on how to make an informed decision and select a suitable textbook. The literature on textbook selection and evaluation procedure is vast. There have been various suggestions by different scholars for teachers (Chastain, 1971; Tucker, 1975; Candlin & Breen, 1979; Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979; Williams, 1983; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Sheldon, 1988; Skierso, 1991; Ur, 1996; Littlejohn, 1996). Checklists offered by them are usually based on supposedly generalizable criteria and a variety of methods to assess a particular textbook under scrutiny.

According to Ansary and Babaii (2002), the fundamental problem with such checklists is their dependence on the swings of the theoretical pendulum (Sheldon, 1988). For example, Tucker (1975, p. 357) proposes "adequacy of pattern practice" and Penny Ur (1996, p. 186) offers "good grammar practice" as two criteria which may not be rated now the same as a decade or so ago. In addition, these checklists neglect some important criteria like "competence of the author" (Tucker, 1978, p.358) and "whether or not a textbook is based on the findings of a contrastive analysis of English and L1 sound systems" (William, 1983, p. 255). If one's own priorities and specific requirements are not identified and taken into account in a specific teaching situation, it would be difficult to rely on any already-available checklist criteria to judge teaching materials. That is why such checklists and their criteria lose their significance over the years and new ones are required. Ansary and Babaii (2002) argue that no neat formula can provide a definite way to judge a textbook. They therefore compiled a list of what they deem to be a set of theory-neutral and universal features of EFL/ESL textbooks.

Collectively, these evaluation lists may or may not include the issues or elements that reflect the concerns of teachers using textbooks. Therefore, selecting particular items to create a personal evaluation index is the best method for ensuring that the realities of each individual learning situation are addressed. Some of those criteria are used in the newly developed checklist by the researcher.

III. METHODOLOGY

Through a comprehensive review of the relevant literature and by taking into consideration the English teaching/learning context in Iran, the researcher seeks to establish the prime criteria by which different aspects of the current EFL textbook English Book 1 will be analyzed and evaluated.

A. *Materials*

One of the current English Language Teaching textbooks English Book 1 (Birjandi, Soheili, Noruzi and Mahmodi 2006) that is locally designed to cater for and respond to the English language needs of Iranian students in grade one at senior high schools was taken to serve as the corpus of present study. It was content analyzed in terms of the criteria in the checklist under 7 subheadings: A. Practical Consideration, B. Skills, C. Exercises and Activities, D. Pedagogic Analysis, E. Appropriacy, F Supplementary Materials, and G. General Impression.

B. *Instrumentation*

A large number of EFL classes around the world today are using textbooks which were not chosen by the careful application of objective evaluation criteria. One effective way to ensure that the needs and wants of learners are given careful consideration when choosing textbooks is to apply a written checklist of appropriate selection criteria to potential textbooks. Such a checklist if used must be tailored to the needs and wants of the learners who will use the textbook.

It is necessary to use checklists designed for the local situation. Sheldon (1988, p. 241) states that "textbook criteria are emphatically local". A universally appropriate textbook could hardly exist, and neither could a universally appropriate list of textbook evaluation criteria.

Following Ansary and Babaii's (2002) suggestion, in an attempt to locate some universal and broad characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks and to draw up, as such, some guidelines for the generation and systematic evaluation of EFL/ESL textbooks, the researcher reviewed many EFL/ESL textbooks and EFL/ESL textbook evaluation checklists. Then, an attempt was made to discover important elements in EFL/ESL textbooks. Then, a selected set of common consensus-reached (but not theory-neutral) characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks was identified. And finally, they were tailored to the needs and wants of the learners.

C. *Creation of the Checklist*

Decisions related to textbook selection will affect teachers, students, and the overall classroom dynamic. It is probably one of the most important decisions facing EFL educators. The use of an evaluation procedure or checklist can lead to a more systematic and thorough examination of potential textbooks and to enhanced outcomes for learners, instructors, and administrators.

So a new checklist was created to evaluate the EFL textbook (English 1) being used in Iranian senior high schools. To produce this checklist, several factors were considered. Firstly, the previously published lists were examined and their most salient features considered. Areas of commonality between them are reflected in the new list. Secondly, there was an attempt to balance both the practical and theoretical concerns involved in choosing the criteria.

The designed checklist takes elements from the suggestions and checklists of Matthews (1985, p. 206), D. Williams (1983, p. 255), R. Williams (1981, p. 159), Daoud & Celce-Murcia (1979), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Cunningsworth (1984, p. 75-79), Breen and Candlin (1987, p. 13-28), Sheldon (1988, p. 242-245), Tucker, C. A. (1975), Ur, P. (1996), Skierso, 1991, Littlejohn, 1996, Chambers (1997), Harmer (1998), Garinger (2002) and Ansary and Babaii (2002) and adapts them, with the addition of new items and a new scoring system. It is on the basis of the needs and wants of the learners.

D. *Data Collection and Analysis Procedures*

The newly developed checklist (See Appendix A) was used to collect as many types of data as possible. This checklist was designed to produce a score for the textbook evaluated. Scores are not explained in absolute terms but can be used for comparison if more than one textbook is evaluated. There are 50 items on the checklist, with 2 points possible for each item. The criteria are numerically rated on a scale from 0 to 2 in the blank space of the score column as follows:

2 = Good

1 = Satisfactory

0 = Poor

What follows is a demonstration of how the checklist system works. Evaluation essentially involved the following steps based on the procedures Ansary and Babaii (2002) followed and the analyses they did in their research. First, an evaluation checklist with two columns was designed. The universal features of EFL/ESL textbooks tailored and adapted to the needs of the learners appeared in the first column on the form. A merit score consisting of numbers 0 to 2 appeared in the second column on the checklist. A comparative weight is assigned to the relative realization of each actual criterion in the textbook under scrutiny: a perfect match between the ideal defined criterion and its actual realization in the textbook receiving 2, a total lack a score of 0, and any inadequate match a score of 1.

Finally, the numbers in the merit score column after each criterion were represented on a graph by drawing (1) a dotted line corresponding to the numerical value of the Merit Scores, and (2) a straight solid line to represent the perfect

scores (see appendix B).

Ansary and Babaii (2002) argue that this framework has a dual utility. On the one hand, if the evaluations of several raters should be compared and contrasted in order to reach a correlated consensus, several opinions of a single textbook can be easily displayed on the same graph. On the other hand, an evaluator can display his judgments about several textbooks on a single graph using a separate line for each textbook. In this way, he may compare the profiles of various textbooks, see them in contrast to the ideal solid line, and judge how far a particular textbook can satisfy his requirements. If this is done, not only are the differences among various textbooks portrayed, but also any instances of marked variation can be noted and revised.

IV. FINDINGS

In an attempt to analyze descriptively the English Book 1 for the grade-one students of senior high schools in Iran, the research found the strengths and weaknesses of the textbook with a hope to help teachers, students, guardians and related administrators make a judgment on EFL textbook selection and use. The procedure of data collection and analysis went simultaneously and the texts were explored thoroughly with a particular focus on the checklist criteria under 7 subheadings: A. Practical Considerations, B. Skills, C. Exercises and Activities, D. Pedagogic Analysis, E. Appropriacy, F. Supplementary Materials, and G. General Impression. Although there is no universal canon according to which an EFL textbook can be evaluated. This paper made an attempt to analyze the English Book 1 based on the newly developed checklist criteria consisting of the above-mentioned 7 broad subheadings. The findings based on the checklist criteria showed 63 percent satisfaction which answers the following research question.

To what extent does the EFL textbook (English 1) used in Iranian senior high schools conform to the common consensus-reached and universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks?

So, 63 percent of the evaluated textbook conforms to the common consensus-reached and universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks. The findings for the 7 broad subheadings are as follows:

A. *Practical Considerations*

The textbook has sufficient number of pictures to make the situation more life-like, although there is a lack of color photographs and drawings in it. The paper used for the textbooks is of good quality; each sheet is quite thick and ensures durability of the texts. Binding is not so strong, but the physical appearance is interesting and attractive. Good printing not only makes a book attractive but also motivates the learners to read. Crowded printing or small fonts demotivate the students. The good printing, size and type of the fonts used in this book undoubtedly guarantee the smooth readability of the texts. The layout is clear and well-organized. The topic of each unit is written in bold type. Reading passages are of normal font size that is just right for the first graders. All the letters unanimously are in black color. There are no traces of weak points in the font size for topic and exercises, the top, bottom, left and right margins, the space between words, sentences, lines and paragraphs, the quality and color of ink used, etc. The researcher went thoroughly through the textbook but found no cases of errors. It ensures thorough editing and proofreading of the textbook. The instructions are exclusively in English which is difficult for students to understand without the teacher's help. On the whole, in terms of practical considerations the book is good.

B. *Skills*

The balance between listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills development in the book is not appropriate to the learners and learning situation. The textbook devote a particular space for two language skills, that is, reading and writing. Speaking is paid little attention and listening is completely neglected. Speaking activities do not make students able to speak correctly about their thoughts and feelings. The skills that are presented in the textbook do not include a wide range of cognitive listening and speaking skills that will be challenging to the learners. The skills integration and the development of discourse and fluency skills are not given sufficient attention. Most of the speaking activities are mainly based on pair work only, giving very little attention to other communicative activities like group work, simulation, role play, etc.

Most reading materials are passages which draw the content from a number of areas like science, transportation, foreign language, education, etc. Reading activities are mainly limited to question-answer types that range from simple scanning questions to questions that ask for opinions and arguments. Although the reading texts have wide coverage of topics and content, they considerably lack variety in materials and activities.

Actual writing does not exist in the book. Writing exercises and activities are just a written practice of grammatical structures and presentations. The textbook does not incorporate activities like writing experiences or a diary, writing a letter to a friend etc. There are no challenging writing tasks, for example, writing a letter to a singer by a fan, writing a message, etc. The textbook does not lead students from simple controlled writing activities to guided writing activities, and gradually expose free activities.

C. *Exercises and Activities*

Students are supposed to become familiarized with the basic characteristics of English sounds such as stress, intonation and pauses, and pronounce English sounds correctly. There are a number of phonological gaps between

English and Persian. Persian, for example, lacks English sounds like w, th, and a number of vowels. These phonological gaps are neglected to be emphasized.

Selection and gradation of vocabulary items are not mainly on the basis of simplicity and frequency of occurrence. There is a list of vocabulary items tagged at the end of each textbook, and presented alphabetically. These words are not accompanied with their phonetic transcription in English and their Persian or English meanings are not given in the glossary. Also there are not sufficient number of exercises meant for practicing vocabulary items attempting to develop the ability, for example, to guess the meaning of unknown words, or to find synonyms or to find antonyms. Such activities can be incorporated through vocabulary games, word puzzles, and vocabulary quizzes.

Nowadays no EFL textbook likes to be purely grammatical in terms of selection and gradation of language materials. The authors of this book also seem to realize that the focus should be on developing communicative competence of the students rather than grammatical competence. There is a sufficient treatment of grammar in this textbook. The writing exercises are also grammatical structures rather than writing practices.

Language functions are purposes for which people use language, eg. greeting, apologizing, complaining, describing, etc. Functions should combine appropriate grammatical structures used in particular situations with purposes. Although the overall objective of the course is to develop students' basic communication abilities, there is not sufficient focus on the language functions and appropriate activities. The dialogs do not appear to be communicative.

D. Pedagogic Analysis

The overall aim of teaching English in senior high school is to make students communicatively competent. But the presentation of grammar and communication skills is not in a well balanced manner. However, knowingly or unknowingly, the textbook is more structural than communicative. The book is not methodologically in line with current worldwide theories and practices of language learning. It does not contain any formal learner achievement tests. It is not sufficiently challenging to the learners and it is not enabling the learners to use English outside the classroom situation.

E. Appropriacy

The materials, instructions, language focus and activities in general are less appropriate for the learners. The material does not facilitate interactive learning. Vocabulary and comprehensible input levels are not well-graded. The material is age-appropriate but does not match the learner objectives.

F. Supplementary Materials

The textbooks are not accompanied with audio CDs for listening. In fact there are no listening activities such as 'listen and write', 'listen and choose', 'listen and fill out', etc. No teacher's guide book or student's workbook is available to give useful guidance, along with alternative activities. The teacher's guide book was offered for the first and the last time when the first edition of the book was published and prescribed in the 1990s.

G. General Impression

The book doesn't include reasonable balance & range in skills and activities. It doesn't motivate learners by pleasurable activities. It doesn't encourage learners to assume responsibility for their own learning. It doesn't provide a variety of Communicative activities to promote the use of information/opinion gap. Learners can not use English unless they do really use it. Communicative activities are those activities with which students develop an ability to use language for communicative purposes. No attempt has been made to lead students toward a situation where they can use maximum English. A lot of room could have been used to make activities more communicative with information gap, allowing variety in presentation of tasks and activities. It can be a better idea, as most EFL/ESL textbooks do, to make a gradual shift from students' native language to target language as they go in higher grades. Also the instructions can appear bilingually for lower grades.

V. CONCLUSION

The textbook is perfect in physical qualities like paper quality, binding, printing, etc. But a good attempt has not been made to present four language skills in a well balanced manner. There are no audio CDs and student guides as reference materials. And teacher's guide is not available. It would have been a better idea if the writers had made an attempt to introduce pronunciation and listening activities accompanied with CDs.

The book doesn't have glossary at the end and is more structural than communicative. It seriously lacks variety in the communicative tasks and information gap activities. Most of the speaking activities are mainly based on question-answer type activities and pair work only, giving very little attention to other communicative activities like group work, simulation, role play, etc. Efforts can be made to present different kinds of speaking activities in a more balanced way and more diversified form, allowing more information gaps in the tasks. Apart from question-answer type activities tagged at the end of a reading passage, reading activities can be made more interesting adding variety like fill in the blanks, matching two halves, etc.

Though there are five elements in language instruction, and learners should be the center of instruction. However, materials often control the instruction, since teachers and learners tend to rely heavily on them. Materials which are appropriate for a particular class need to have an underlying instructional philosophy, approach, method and technique

which suit the students and their needs. They should have correct, natural, current and standard English.

Through this textbook analysis, it is hoped that language professionals will gain some knowledge on how to perform this procedure for themselves. Implications suggest that textbook developers, by using appropriate checklists can include more universal characteristics in their EFL/ESL textbooks which, at the same time, are tailored and adapted to the needs of the learners. Textbooks that appear sound on the surface often lack many of the criteria of a truly superior book. Therefore, it is necessary for individuals who are making these choices to carefully examine all aspects of the text and compare it against an assessment tool. An evaluation checklist, whether adopted from another author or created by the researcher, serves to focus this examination and ensures that significant factors will not be missed.

This process is going to continue to be demanding as publishers provide more and more options to teachers, although in some countries like Iran textbooks are dictated by the Ministry of Education and teachers cannot have any choice. With the growth of computer-assisted language learning, the role of the textbook may be changing, but it is unlikely that it will ever disappear. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to be well-equipped with the skills to evaluate materials to ensure that students are using the highest quality texts possible and that their language learning experience is enhanced, not hindered, by the books used in their classrooms.

63 percent satisfaction of the only textbook which is prescribed and used for the first grade students in Iranian high schools nationwide can hardly be considered as acceptable and satisfactory. Therefore, it is important that all individuals involved at all levels of programme, from policy makers to administrators, material designers, curriculum developers, textbook writers, and teachers, consider the importance of their decisions and make wise judgment at right time, and strive to effectively match textbooks with the identified needs of the learners.

APPENDIX A TEXTBOOK EVALUATION CHECKLIST

This checklist is designed for evaluating EFL textbooks used in Iranian Senior High Schools.

Name of evaluator: Mohammad Reza Ghorbani

Title of the textbook: English Book 1

Publisher: The General Bureau for Textbooks Printing and Distribution (Iranian Ministry of Education)

Date of publication: 2007

Stated level of learners: First grade in senior high school

Cost of student's book: 1700 Rials

| Criteria for EFL textbook evaluation | Merit Score |
|--|-------------|
| A. Practical Considerations | |
| 1. Is it available locally? | 2 |
| 2. Is it cost-effective? | 2 |
| 3. Is the physical appearance interesting and attractive? | 2 |
| 4. Is there an appropriate mix of graphics and text? | 2 |
| 5. Is the layout clear and Well-organized? | 2 |
| 6. Are the headings effectively used? | 2 |
| 7. Is it appropriate for local situation? | 1 |
| 8. Does it have an appropriate size, weight and title? | 2 |
| B. Skills | |
| 9. Are the skills presented in the textbook appropriate to the course? | 1 |
| 10. Does the textbook provide learners with adequate guidance as they are acquiring these skills? | 1 |
| 11. Do the skills that are presented in the textbook include a wide range of cognitive skills that will be challenging to learners? | 1 |
| 12. Is the balance between listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills development in the book appropriate to the particular learners and learning situation? | 1 |
| 13. Is the skills integration given sufficient attention? | 1 |
| 14. Is the development of discourse and fluency skills given sufficient attention? | 1 |
| C. Exercises and Activities | |
| 15. Do the exercises and activities in the textbook promote learners' language development? | 1 |
| 16. Is there a balance between controlled and free exercises? | 1 |
| 17. Do the exercises and activities reinforce what students have already learned and represent a progression from simple to more complex? | 2 |
| 18. Are the exercises and activities varied in format so that they will continually motivate and challenge learners? | 2 |
| 19. Are there activities for communicative interaction and the development of communicative strategies? | 1 |
| 20. Are new structures presented systematically and in a meaningful context? | 2 |
| 21. Is the meaning of new vocabulary presented in context? | 2 |
| 22. Is there sufficient work on recognition and production of individual sounds for pronunciation practice? | 1 |
| 23. Is there sufficient work on recognition and production of stress patterns and intonation? | 1 |
| 24. Is there a summary of new and reviewed grammar? | 1 |
| 25. In general are the activities in the book neither too difficult nor too easy for the learners? | 2 |
| D. Pedagogic Analysis | |
| 26. Is the book methodologically in line with current worldwide theories and practices of language learning? | 1 |
| 27. Does the book contain adequate formal learner achievement tests? | 0 |
| 28. Is the book enabling learners to use English outside the classroom situation? | 1 |
| 29. Is the book sufficiently challenging to learners? | 1 |

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 30. Are there mechanisms for giving regular feedback to learners? | 1 |
| 31. Are new items reviewed and recycled throughout the book? | 1 |
| 32. Does the book match the syllabus of the school to a sufficient extent? Is the time allowance indicated appropriate? | 2 |
| E. Appropriacy | |
| 33. Are the materials, instructions, language focus and activities in general appropriate for the learners? | 1 |
| 34. Will the textbook meet the long and short term goals specific to the learners? | 1 |
| 35. Does the material match learner objectives? | 1 |
| 36. Does the material facilitate interactive learning? | 1 |
| 37. Is the material socio-culturally appropriate? | 2 |
| 38. Is the material up-to-date? | 2 |
| 39. Are vocabulary and comprehensible input levels well-graded? | 1 |
| 40. Is the material age-appropriate? | 2 |
| 41. Is the material relevant to real life? | 2 |
| F. Supplementary Materials | |
| 42. Is a teacher's book available and does it give useful and complete guidance, along with alternative activities? | 0 |
| 43. Is a workbook available and does it contain appropriate supplementary activities? | 0 |
| 44. Are audio-visual aids accompanied? And are they of good quality? | 0 |
| G. General Impression | |
| 45. Does it have clear objectives & instructions? | 1 |
| 46. Does it include reasonable balance & range in skills and activities? | 1 |
| 47. Does it motivate learners by pleasurable activities or arouse learner interest? | 1 |
| 48. Does it provide a variety of Communicative activities? Does it promote the use of information/opinion gap? | 1 |
| 49. Is the cultural tone of the book overall appropriate for use in the setting? | 2 |
| 50. Does the book encourage learners to assume responsibility for their own learning? | 1 |
| Total | 63 |

EVALUATION RESULT: 63% SATISFACTION

APPENDIX B

GRAPHIC REPRESENTATION OF THE EVALUATION

| Poor = 0 | Satisfactory = 1 | Good = 2 | Merit Score |
|----------|------------------|----------|-------------|
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 0 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 2 |
| | | | 1 |
| | | | 1 |

| | | | | |
|-------|--|--|--|----|
| | | | | 1 |
| | | | | 1 |
| | | | | 2 |
| | | | | 2 |
| | | | | 1 |
| | | | | 2 |
| | | | | 2 |
| | | | | 0 |
| | | | | 0 |
| | | | | 0 |
| | | | | 1 |
| | | | | 1 |
| | | | | 1 |
| | | | | 1 |
| | | | | 2 |
| | | | | 1 |
| Total | | | | 63 |

EVALUATION RESULT: 63% SATISFACTION

Note: Developed by Ansary and Babaii (2002). From Internet TESL Journal © 2002. Used with permission.

REFERENCES

- [1] Aliakbari, Mohammad (2002). Culture in ELT programs: An evaluation of the issue of culture in the Iranian ELT program in high school level. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Isfahan.
- [2] Ansary, H. & Babaii, E. (2002). Universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks: A step towards systematic textbook evaluation. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 8(2), available on-line at: <http://iteslj.org/Ansary-textbooks/>
- [3] Bardovi-Harlig, K., Hartford, B.A.S., Mahan-Taylor, R., Morgan, M. J., & Reynolds, D. W. (1991). Developing pragmatic awareness: Closing the conversation. *ELT Journal*, 45, 4-15.
- [4] Berry, R. (2000). "You-ser" friendly metalanguage: What effect does it have on learners of English? *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 38, 195-211.
- [5] Boxer, D., & Pickering, L. (1995). Problems in the presentation of speech acts in ELT materials: The case of complaints. *ELT Journal*, 49, 44-58.
- [6] Burns, A. (1998). Teaching speaking. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18, 102-123.
- [7] Cane, G. (1998). Teaching conversation skills more effectively. *The Korea TESOL Journal*, 1, 31-37. [-16-]
- [8] Candlin, C.N. & Breen, M.P. (1979). Evaluating, adapting and innovating language teaching materials. In C. Yorio, K. Perkins and J. Schacter (Eds.) *On TESOL '79: The learner in focus* (pp. 86-108). Washington, D.C.: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.
- [9] Chambers, F. (1997). Seeking Consensus in Coursebook Evaluation. *ELT Journal*, 51(1), 29-35.
- [10] Chastain, K. (1971). The development of modern language skills: Theory to practice (pp. 376-384). Philadelphia. The Center for Curriculum Development, Inc.
- [11] Cunningsworth, A. (1984). Evaluating and selecting EFL teaching materials. London: Heinemann Educational Books.
- [12] Daoud, A. & Celce-Murcia, M. (1979). Selecting and evaluating a textbook. In M. Celce-Murcia and L. McIntosh (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 302-307). Cambridge, MA: Newbury House Publishers.
- [13] Eslami-Rasekh, Z. & Valizadeh, K. (2004). Classroom activities viewed from different perspectives: Learners' voice vs. teachers' voice. *TESL EJ*, 8(3), 1-13. Retrieved October 9, 2008, from <http://tesl-ej.org/ej31/a2.html>
- [14] Eslami-Rasekh, Z. & Valizadeh, K. (2008). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy, English proficiency, and instructional strategies: A study of nonnative EFL teachers in Iran. *TESL EJ*, 11(4), 1-19. Retrieved October 9, 2008 from <http://tesl-ej.org/ej44/a1.pdf>
- [15] Garinger, D. (2002). Textbook Selection for the ESL Classroom. Available on-line at <http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0210garinger.html>
- [16] Grant, L., & Starks, D. (2001). Screening appropriate teaching materials: Closing from textbooks and television soap operas. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 39, 39-50.
- [17] Harmer, J. (1998). How to Teach English. Essex: Longman.
- [18] Hargreaves, A. (1989). Curriculum and assessment reform. Toronto: OISE Press.
- [19] Hosseini, S. M. H. (2007). ELT in higher education in Iran and India – A critical view. *Language in India*, 7, 1-11. Retrieved October 9, 2008, from <http://www.languageinindia.com/dec2007/eltinindiaandiran.pdf>
- [20] Hutchinson and Torres. (1994). The textbook as agent of change. *ELT J.*; 48: 315-328.
- [21] Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). English for Specific Purposes: A learning-centred approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [22] Jahangard, A. (2007). The evaluation of the EFL materials taught at Iranian public high schools. Karen's Linguistics Issues. Retrieved from: <http://www3.telus.net/linguisticsissues/bymonth.html>
- [23] Jolly, D. and R. Bolitho (1998). A framework for materials writing. Materials Development in Language Teaching. B. Tomlinson. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press: 90-115.
- [24] Kim, D., & Hall, J. K. (2002). The role of an interactive book reading program in the development of second language pragmatic competence. *Modern Language Journal*, 86, 332-348.
- [25] Littlejohn, A. (1996). The analysis of language teaching materials: Inside the Trojan Horse. In B. Tomlinson, (Ed.), *Materials development in language teaching* (pp. 191-213). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- [26] Matthews, A. (1985). Choosing the best available textbook. In Matthews, A., Spratt, M., and Dangerfield, L. (eds.) *At the chalkface*. London: Edward Arnold, pp 202-206.
- [27] Nunan, D. (1988). *The learner-centered curriculum*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [28] Prabhu, N. S. (1987). *Second Language Pedagogy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 94-95.
- [29] Prator, C. H. (1991). Cornerstones of method and names for the profession. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (2nd ed.). New York: Newbury House.
- [30] Rea-Dickens, P. & Germaine, K. (1992). *Evaluation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [31] Sheldon, L. (1988). Evaluating ELT textbooks and materials. *ELT Journal*, 42 (4), 237-246.
- [32] Riazi, A.M., & Aryashokouh, A. (2007). Lexis in English textbooks in Iran: Analysis of exercises and proposals for consciousness-raising activities. *Pacific Association of Applied Linguists*, 11, 17-34.
- [33] Riazi, M., and Mosalanejad, N. (2010). Evaluation of learning objectives in Iranian High-School and Pre-University English textbooks using Bloom's Taxonomy. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language*, 3(4), 1-16.
- [34] Skierso, A. (1991). Textbook selection and evaluation. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 432-453). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- [35] Talebinezhad, M. R./Aliakbari, M. (2002). "Evaluation and Justification of a Paradigm Shift in the Current ELT Models in Iran." *The Internet Linguistik online* 10/1. http://www.linguistik-online.de/10_02/talebinezhadaliakbari.html
- [36] Tomlinson, B. (Ed.). (1996). *Materials development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [37] Tucker, C. A. (1975). Evaluating beginning textbooks. *English Teaching Forum*, 13, 355-361.
- [38] Umar Aziz, m. (2005). Evaluation and comparison of textbooks of ESL/EFL classroom. Unpublished M.A. Thesis. Retrieved from faculty.ksu.edu.sa/umerazim/publications/thesis.doc
- [39] Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching: Practice & Theory* (pp. 184-187). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [40] Vassilakis, G. (1997). Materials and methods: Need they be in conflict? Paper presented by at the TESOL Greece Saturday seminar on Material Choice and Development in the EFL Classroom (9th February).
- [41] Williams, D. (1983). Developing criteria for textbook evaluation. *ELT Journal*, 37(3), 251-255.
- [42] Williams, R. (1981). A procedure for ESP textbook analysis and evaluation on teacher education courses. *English for Specific Purposes Journal* 1/2, pp 155-162.
- [43] Wong, J. (2001). "Applying" conversation analysis in applied linguistics: Evaluating dialogue in English as a second language textbooks. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 40, 37-60.

Mohammad Reza Ghorbani has worked as an EFL teacher and researcher in Iran, Japan, and Malaysia since 1990. He has published two books on educational issues and eight articles in specialized international journals. He has also presented six papers in international conferences. His interests are English Teaching, Learning, Testing, and Evaluation.

Function-oriented Approaches in Commercial Advertisement Translation

Lu Wang

Inner Mongolia University, Hohhot, Inner Mongolia, China

Email: wlfuleiya@yahoo.com.cn

Guodong Zhao

Inner Mongolia Finance and Economics College, Hohhot, China

Email: zhaoliu1116@163.com

Abstract—With China's entering the World Trade Organization and the deepening of reform and opening, numerous foreign products have emerged in China's market. In the meantime, domestic enterprises are eager to exploit the much bigger global markets. Therefore, advertisement translation plays a more and more important role in the exchange of both economy and culture. The traditional translation strategies such as faithfulness and equivalence can no longer work in the translation of advertisements. Instead, this paper tries to study the advertisement translation strategies from the point of functionalist translation theory.

Index Terms—Functional Translation Theory, advertisement translation, translation strategies

I. BACKGROUND OF FUNCTIONALIST TRANSLATION THEORY

The functional translation theory or functionalism didn't appear overnight. It has also experienced a long period of evolution as any other theories, so here we will first make a brief introduction of its background to understand under what situation it emerged.

Functional approaches to translation were not invented until the twentieth century. The theory of dynamic equivalence was put forward by Eugene Nida based on linguistics, informatics and semiotics in 1960s, and he gave the definition like this, "translation consists in reproducing in receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message". (Nida and Taber, 1969, p.12). Throughout history, translators usually observed that different situations called for different renderings, texts with different purposes and functions demand respective translating standards and principles which cannot easily resolved by "faithfulness" or "spirit alike". Consequently, the translator is expected to make adaptation and modification to take care of the acceptance of target receivers. So many translators found that the process of translating should involve both procedures: a faithful reproduction of formal source-text qualities in one situation and an adjustment to meet the needs of the target audience in another. They believed that it was more important to adjust the text to the target audience's needs and expectations.

As a break of the former translation theories, the German functionalist translation theory, with Katharina Reiss, Hans.J. Vermeer, Justa Holz-Manttari and Christiane Nord as its representatives, had opened up a new perspective to translation studies and bridge the gap between theory and practice, just as Nord (2001) said that the functionalist view of translation is intended to solve the eternal dilemmas of free vs. literal translation, adaptation vs. alienation, good interpreters vs. slavish translation and so on (p.29).

A. *Scopotheorie*

Hans J. Vermeer developed Reiss' idea with the proposal of the famous Skopos theory, which is defined as the main principle of German functionalist translation theory. "Skopos" is from Greek language, which means purpose. The Skopos translation theorists took the process of translation as a communicative action, and they believe that the translation purpose justifies the translation process, i.e. the end justifies the means. (Nord, 2001, p.124) The strategies should be chosen according to the purpose of translation and the source text only functions as the offer of information.

In order to better fit the target culture and reader's acceptance and enhance the function of the target text, the use of translation strategies should not stick to the source-text and its function, whereas the expected functions of target text in target culture should be emphasized. Skopos theory is positioned as the core principle and the most important and representative theory of the German functionalist translation theory. The theorists of functionalist translation theory proposed three rules and elucidated their relationship. The three rules are: skopos rule, intratextual rule and intertextual rule.

B. *Text Typology*

One of the specific theories in Reiss and Vermeer's 1984 book is Katharina Reiss's theory of text types. This has to be appreciated in connection with Reiss's concept of a specific translation type referred to as "communicative

translation”, which we have just seen associated with a certain notion of equivalence. According to Reiss (1984), text typology helps the translator specify the appropriate hierarchy of equivalence levels needed for a particular translation Skopos (p.156). According to the typology, “informative” text functions at introducing the objective world and phenomenon, thus the linguistic form and content must conform to the function. In the “expressive” type of text, the stylistic form should be related with the meaning of the text and the aesthetic effect should be found from the receivers’ side. “Operative” text aims at the effect beyond language and the target version of “operative” text should have the same effect on the readers.

II. DEFINITION OF ADVERTISING

Advertisement (AD) maybe classified by medium (print, electronic, out-of-home and Direct- mail advertisement), by target audience(consumer, industrial), by its function or purpose(commercial versus non commercial advertisement, direct-action versus indirect-action advertisement), or by geography (local, regional, national, international), A widely accepted working definition of advertising is that advertising is the non – personal communication of information usually paid for and usually persuasive in nature about products, services, or ideas by identified sponsors through the various media”. Advertisement is a sort of practical writing which has high commercial values. Language in English advertisements belongs to “loaded language”, which has highly “Persuasive Power”, It aims to inspire people’s imagination, to stimulate their emotion, to persuade customers, to purchase certain commodity. The main purpose of this study is to give an adequate analysis of the language of the interpersonal meaning of written English commercial advertising within the framework of functional linguistics. The main purpose of this study is to give an adequate analysis of the language of the interpersonal meaning of written English commercial advertising within the framework of functional linguistics.

III. FUNCTION-ORIENTED APPROACHES IN ADVERTISEMENT TRANSLATION

With the increasing of social development and the deepening of cultural and economic interaction, the position of advertisements has reached its highest point in history. The ultimate goal of all advertisements is to present the information about the product or the services and persuade the potential consumers to buy them. The advertising language is only a means to achieve this purpose. Therefore, what we need to do is to adjust the translation to the target language and target culture so that the target audience could accept it and get action.

From the perspective of functionalists, however, translators should be regarded as active participants in the chain of cross-cultural communication and translation as an integral part of the development of both intercultural exchange and professional knowledge in a given area. As far as advertisement translation is concerned, translators are supposed to be not only bilingual and bicultural, but also to equip himself with the sound knowledge of advertising. Only thus can he deal with the source text in a culturally appropriate and professional manner which will appeal to the target audience.

Accordingly, Christiane Nord (1997) summarizes three possible kinds of purpose in the field of translation: the general purpose aimed at by the translator in the translation process, the communicative purpose aimed at by the target text in the target situation and the purpose aimed at by a particular translation strategy or procedure (p.315). The communicative Skopos of advertisement is to provide, within the constraints of time and space, the most relevant information in the most effective way to persuade the audience into purchasing goods.

In the interaction of advertising, the people or agents also play an important role. For example, translators usually called upon to start translating by a client but not their own free will. In this context, the client is called an “initiator”. Then the commissioner is the person who asks the translator to produce a target text. There are also the ST (source text) producer, the TT (target text) producer, the TT user and the TT receiver. It is the advertiser, in this case, who decides what the principle is in advertisement translating.

IV. STRATEGIES OF ADVERTISEMENT TRANSLATION FROM FUNCTION-ORIENTED APPROACHES

Since advertisement translation is a creative activity, the traditional concept of “faithfulness” standard is not suitable for an advertisement translation. Scholars began to turn to a more workable one. The principle of equivalent effect was put forward. Under the guidance of functionalist translation theory, what possible strategies could be applied to reach the purpose of advertisement texts?

A. *The Commercial Effect-oriented Adaption*

The final purpose of advertisement is to move the readers and to change the attitude of the readers from skeptic to agreement. Therefore, in the advertisement composition and translation, the psychology feelings of consumers should be set as the priority. As receivers in different countries with their own acceptance habits, there are great differences in psychological between target readers and source readers. That is to say the functionality of the translation in target culture rather than the equivalent effect of the translation to the source text are translator’s concern. Applying the functionalist theory in advertisement translation means “a good advertisement translation should function as an acceptable advertisement in the target culture and help a company promote its products in the targeted market” (Jiang, 1994, p.40). Thus, the commercial effect of an advertisement translation in the target culture can be used as a standard

to evaluate its quality.

Example 1: Mercedes-Benz (automobile) is translated from 梅塞德斯 本茨 to 奔驰

Example 2: Heads&Shoulders (shampoo) is translated from 海伦仙度丝 to 海飞丝.

Obviously, the brands 奔驰 and 海飞丝 are widespread and very successful in Chinese market while 梅塞德斯 本茨 and 海伦仙度丝 have been abandoned by most consumers. The latter versions of the two brands' Chinese counterparts are better than the former ones in that they exert positive effect on both the promotion of products and the establishment of brand image. The Chinese characters 奔 and 驰 can both attract consumers with their association with comfort and speed. And in the other example, 海 gives people a feeling of freshness while 飞 indicates the desired outcome of this shampoo and 丝 is associated with smooth and silky hair for which is this product designed.

B. Linguistic Strategy

In some advertisement and brand name translations, the intratextual coherence and intertextual fidelity are together achieved in a phonetic homonymy way both in Chinese and in English. Following are the examples of advertisement and brand name translations that could account representative:

“海信” is a Chinese local brand of IT and TV products, the English brand name is translated as “Hi-Sense”, which is also a phonetic equivalent translation to the source text. The initial consonant and final sound of Chinese syllable of “海” go strictly with the consonant and vowel of “Hi” in international phonetic alphabet, i.e. [h] and [ai]. “海信” and “Hi-Sense” are pronounced similarly and “Hi-Sense” also shows the feature of the brand products: sensitive and easy to control. In this TT, the skopos rule is also reflected in order to make the target consumers to know the property of the products.

“蒙牛” is the well-known dairy brand. The former English translation is just the Chinese Pinyin of the characters. From the year of 2007, the new English version of the brand name came into being: Mon Milk, which means “my milk”. “Mon” is the French word means “my”, and “Mon” shares the same consonant [m] with “蒙” in Pinyin, the final sounds of the two also seems similar. The liaison of vowel [i] and second consonant [l] of “milk” still sounds closely to the final sound [iu] of “牛” in Pinyin. “蒙牛” and “Mon Milk” have the different ideas in the literal meanings, the first tells us the location of the products, the second boosts everyone deserves this product. In the writer's opinion, the English name could better be persuasive from the view of skopos rule whereas the pronunciation has reached the purpose of intratextual and intertextual coherence.

In advertisement translation, as the purpose should be put in the first place, the arrangement of words or sentences would be changed to conform with the purpose of an advertisement:

Example 3: ST: 失去联想, 人类将会怎样?

TT: Without Lenovo, Without Life. (Fang, 2003, p.46)

This is an example of C-E advertisement translation. The idea of the advertisement tells people that the Lenovo technology and computers has been closely linked with people's daily life, and it is difficult to survive if without the modern products. The English translation also conveys the same idea. The Chinese text is a form of question that makes people to think about the answer of this question. But the English advertisement directly gives out the answer “no life”, and it is composed in a different structure with the Chinese version. The Chinese slogan is a complete sentence that contains the noun “人类” as its subject and the verb “怎样” as the predicate. While translated into English, the complete sentence is changed to prepositional phrases, i.e. “without” plus objects.

This chapter proposes adaptive transfers of advertising translation as the fundamental translation strategy for advertising translation. Actually, a successful translation of advertisement requires the translator to take the target language and culture into account, and only in this way, the translator can produce an idiomatic target text which will achieve the intended goal of advertisement in target market.

C. Cultural-oriented Adaptation

Culture is an extremely complex conception and a broad subject. The translation practice, especially pragmatic translation, is not only a transfer of linguistic signs, but is related to the custom, psychology, ethnic consciousness, etc. From the perspective of functionalist translation theory, to avoid the not preferred factor in the target text is an approach to keep with the intra-textual coherence. Here are the examples:

Example 4: ST: Where there is a way, there is a TOYOTA.

TT: 车到山前必有路, 有路必有丰田车。 (Su, 1996, p.13)

This is a typical advertisement that uses the cultural facts to embellish the texts. The elements of idioms in English and Chinese languages both appear in the source text and target text and this characteristic decides the translation cannot be a literal one, for the equivalences in both cultures are very rare. It shows the popularity of this brand, and makes people to Chapter Four Advertisement Translation in Light of Functionalist Translation Theory imagine that no matter how bad the road is, the car would go ahead without anchor. This is a vivid image of the quality for the car of this brand. This perfect translation fully catches the cultural factors that affect the acceptance in the target context, thus the persuasive effect is emerged by its intra-textual coherence.

V. CONCLUSION

With the opening policy deepening in China, as well as China's entering WTO, the international business communication and promotion become increasingly important. The companies not only care much on domestic markets, but also endeavor to explore international market. This promotes the importance of advertising translation. Advertising translation is a subject with much room for discussion. Personnel engaged in advertising translation need to have good grounding in Chinese and English, fully understand the cultures of the two languages and guiding advertising laws and regulations of countries concerned, broaden their mind and make endeavors to make themselves "know-alls". Besides, they are advised to accumulate related knowledge on advertisement constantly. They'd better read as much as possible the advertisements printed on both Chinese and English newspapers and magazines. Moreover, those slogans on the billboards should also deserve their specific attention.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Upon the completion of this thesis, I would like to express my gratitude to all those who helped me during my study and who have given advice, provided references and made suggestions in the writing of this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] Fang Meng, Z. (2003). Applied translation in China: Positioning and academic research. *Chinese Translators' Journal*, 6, 45-47.
- [2] Jiang Lei. (1994). On the translation of commercial advertisement. *Chinese Translators' Journal*, 6, 38-41.
- [3] Nida, E. & C. Taber. (1969). The theory and practice of translation. Leiden: E. J. Brill.
- [4] Nord, C. (1997). A functional typology of translation. *Scope and Skopos in Translation*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: Benjamins.
- [5] Nord, C. (2001). Translation as a purposeful activity. Shanghai: Foreign Language Education Press.
- [6] Reiss, K. (1984). Translation criticism: The potentials and Limitations. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [7] Su Shu, H. (1996). Stylistic function and translation standard of advertisement English. *Journal of Foreign Languages*, 2, 12-14.



Lu Wang, born in Hohhot, Inner Mongolia, China in 1986, got bachelor's degree of Science and Technique English in Inner Mongolia University of Technology, Hohhot, Inner Mongolia. Now is a postgraduate of Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics in Inner Mongolia University and will graduate in June, 2011.

She worked as an English Teacher in 2009 and an Interpreter in a Sino-Italian MCH project in 2010. She is interested in English linguistics and translation work.

Guodong Zhao, male, was born in Fengzhen, Inner Mongolia, China in 1975.

He is now a lecturer in Foreign Languages Department, Inner Mongolia Finance and Economics College and his major areas of research are linguistics and translation studies.

A Comparative Study of the Test Tasks and Target Use Tasks

Seyyed Ali Ostovar-Namaghi
Shahrood University of Technology, Iran
Email: saostovarnamaghi@yahoo.com

Abstract—This study aimed at exploring possible construct underrepresentation and construct irrelevant difficulty in Shiraz University Language Proficiency Test (SULPT). To this end, a checklist of target-use tasks was developed based on an analysis of the data obtained from an open-ended questionnaire. The checklist, comprising 24 areas of target use tasks, was administered immediately after the test. The students rated the degree to which the test tasks correspond to each of the items included in the checklist on a scale of 0-4. They also rated the comparative difficulty of test tasks and target use tasks. The frequency of the answers was analyzed using χ^2 test of significance. All items, except for item 4, showed very negligible p values ($p < 0.05$). Such small p-values indicate that there is a significant difference between the test tasks and target use tasks. As for construct irrelevant difficulty, nearly 80% of the students indicated that the reading tasks included in the test were more difficult. This indicates that the test tasks produce construct-irrelevant difficulty.

Index Terms—construct underrepresentation, construct irrelevant difficulty, test task, target use task

I. INTRODUCTION

Although the communicative approach has always laid great stress on authenticity, even a cursory reading of the relevant literature will bring to light a confused and contradictory picture. Taylor (1994) points out that while there are relatively clear definitions available of what is meant by authenticity in teaching materials and texts, there is much less agreement about what constitutes authenticity of context and of the task or activity. Similarly Heltai (1998) states that the term authentic is rather problematic since it has several meanings and is often used in rather a loose manner. The first and the original meaning of authenticity refers to texts. Widdowson (1978) recommends the term genuine to differentiate authentic texts from contrived or doctored texts. Moreover, he introduced the distinction between 'genuineness' and 'authenticity' of language by arguing:

To present someone with a set of extracts and require him to read them not in order to learn something interesting and relevant about the world but in order to learn something about the language being used is to misrepresent normal language use to some degree. The extracts are, by definition, genuine instances of language use but if the learner is required to deal with them in a way, which does not correspond to his normal communicative activities, and then they cannot be said to be authentic instances of use. Genuineness is a characteristic of the passage itself and is an absolute quality. Authenticity is a characteristic of the relationship between the passage and the reader and it has to do with appropriate response. (Widdowson, 1978, p. 80)

Morrow (1997) also focuses on the authenticity of texts. He argues that in real life language is seldom simplified to suit a person's linguistic ability. It contains irregularities, interruptions, irrelevancies depending on the context of interchange. It should be noted, however, that Morrow does not limit himself to authenticity and argues that language tests should measure the seven features of communication. These seven features are; interaction-based, unpredictability, context, purpose, performance, authenticity, and behaviour-based.

Lewkowicz (2000) believes that "Sticking to authentic texts has proved unhelpful since the very act of extracting a text from its original source, even if it is left in its entirety, could be said to disauthenticate it" (p.46). Taking this dilemma into account, Spolsky (1985) focused on authenticity of tasks. He believed that in the post-modern period authenticity of task has come to have special importance. He states that authentic tasks simulate real-life tasks but the test taker need to cooperate and be willing to abide by the rules of the game if simulations are to be successful in testing situations. Otherwise the validity and fairness of the assessment procedure remain suspect. Throughout the 19880s, the authenticity debate remained on the use of authentic texts and tasks taken from real life situations.

Bachman in the early 1990s suggested that there was a need to make a distinction between situational and interactional authenticity. Situational or real life (RL) approach considers the extent to which test performance replicates some specific non-test language performance. According to Bachman (1990), "The primary concerns of this approach are: (1) the appearance or perception of the test and (2) the accuracy with which test performance predicts future non-test performance" (p. 301). Therefore, to the extent that test tasks resemble the real life tasks, the test is seen to be a direct test of proficiency and by definition valid.

The second approach is the interactional ability (IA) approach which aims to ensure authenticity by identifying and incorporating critical features of communicative language use, rather than attempting to capture holistic language use

situations. The IA approach is based on a carefully developed framework, which specifies both the components of communicative language ability and the characteristic of the test method. The basic premise of this approach is that it is the interaction between the characteristics of the test taker and the characteristics of the test task that determines authenticity.

Bachman and Palmer (1996) divide the notion of authenticity into two components: authenticity and interactiveness, roughly corresponding to RL and IA approaches in Bachman (1990). Bachman's perspective towards authenticity has changed over time. While in 1990 Bachman rejected the RL approach as the sole basis of test validity, he now advocates a consideration of authenticity in terms of the degree to which the test tasks resemble real life tasks. They define authenticity as "the degree of correspondence between the characteristics of a given test tasks and the features of TLU task" (Bachman and Palmer, 1996, p. 23).

Many authors have highlighted the need to ensure that tasks engage and challenge the abilities, which we wish to test. Bachman and Palmer (1996) term this dimension interactiveness, defining it as the degree of involvement of test takers competencies and other individual characteristics in accomplishing a task. It thus refers to the interaction of the competencies with the task. It should be noted, however, that for Bachman interaction is interpersonal.

McNamara (1996) rejects this restricted notion of interaction by arguing that attention should be given to social dimensions of interaction in language tests, including the interaction between the test-takers, examiners and other interlocutors. He backs up his position by referring to constructivism, functionalism, and Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development (ZDP). The thrust of his argument is that interaction is something interpersonal. As such performance is affected by the rater and other interlocutors.

From the previous discussion it is evident that authenticity has been an ever-changing concept. Although Bachman has recently advocated the RL approach, it has been attacked on several counts. Stevenson (1985) points out that instances of language use are by definitions context-dependent and hence unique. Therefore, authenticity is not transferable. But the main criticism with the real life approach is that duplication or simulations of real life tasks do not solve the problem of coverage. Skehan (1984) cogently addresses this problem by arguing that merely making an interaction authentic does not guarantee that the sampling of the language involved will be sufficient, or the basis for wide-ranging and powerful prediction of language to other situations. Skehan's concept of sufficiency is in line with Messick's (1996) notion of 'construct under-representation'. These two concepts act synergistically to add a new dimension to authenticity and hence fill in the gap in our present discussions about authenticity.

Messick (1996) presents authenticity and directness as validity standards. To him, authenticity ensures that nothing important be left out in assessing the focal construct. Similarly, directness ensures that nothing irrelevant be added that interferes with the construct. He argues:

In the threat to validity known as construct under-representation (which jeopardizes authenticity) the assessment is deficient: the test is too narrow and fails to include important dimensions or facets of the focal constructs. In the threat to validity known as construct-irrelevant variance (which jeopardizes directness), the assessment is too broad, containing excess reliable variance that is irrelevant to the interpreted construct (Messick, 1996, p.244).

These threats are more likely when language skills are included in the construct definitions. Bachman and Palmer (1996) warn that skills should not be included in construct definition by arguing that:

Characterizing skills in terms of channel (audio, visual) and (receptive, productive) is inadequate on two counts: first, these features fail to capture important differences among language use activities that are within the same skill [construct under-representation]... Second, this approach to distinguishing skills treats them as abstract aspects of language ability, ignoring the fact that language use is realized in specific situated language use tasks (p. 79).

Another reason for not including a specific skill in the construct definition is that as Widdowson (1978) has pointed out, many language use tasks involve more than one skill. What he calls the communicative ability of 'conversion' involves listening and speaking, while what he calls 'correspondence' involves reading and writing. Therefore rather than defining a construct in terms of skills, Bachman and Palmer (1996) suggest that the construct definition include only the relevant components of language ability and the skills elements be specified as characteristics of the tasks in which language ability is demonstrated.

Nonetheless, many of the popular tests are based on skills and components. Using the format and components of the popular tests has placed us in a position to defend the indefensible. Being skill-based, SULPT may not include many important aspects of the focal constructs, i.e., it under-represents the constructs. Moreover, since test tasks are different from target language use tasks, they are likely to include construct-irrelevant difficulty. Knowing that both threats are operative in all assessment, the researcher aims to validate the reading section of SULPT to see whether and to what extent it stands the tests of construct under-representation and construct irrelevant difficulty.

To meet the specific needs of the test takers and to find the relevant reading tasks for PhD students in Iran, this study tried to elicit real life reading tasks from the test takers themselves, i.e., from PhD students at Shiraz University. The elicited tasks presented us with important aspects of reading comprehension. So they can be used as benchmarks against which authenticity and validity can be assessed.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Taking construct under-representation and construct-irrelevant variance into account, this study mainly aims at

answering the following questions:

- Is there any significant difference between test tasks and target use tasks in SULPT?
- Do the reading tasks included in SULPT produce construct irrelevant difficulty?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Because the population of SULPT is mainly PhD students, it was important to explore how they perceive the test. To this end, a questionnaire was distributed among all test takers, both male and female, from different departments of Shiraz University. A total of 150 students returned the questionnaires.

B. Instruments

This study utilized three instruments for data collection. The first instrument is a questionnaire comprising one open-ended question. This questionnaire was used to elicit the different reading tasks PhD students are engaged in during their academic studies. The second instrument is a checklist developed on the basis of students' responses to the questionnaire. This checklist is a summary of the important aspects of reading comprehension for PhD students in Shiraz University. It is composed of 27 items; the third instrument is the reading section of SULPT.

C. Data Collection Procedure

To identify the target language use reading tasks, an open-ended questionnaire was distributed among 57 PhD students who reside in the dormitory. To make sure that they have no problem in expressing their ideas, the questionnaire was written in Persian. Then, their responses were summarized and developed into a checklist which is composed of 24 items, covering the different reading tasks students are involved in during their academic studies. The checklist is also in students' native language. Finally, the checklist was administered to all the test takers after the SULPT. 150 students returned their checklist after the exam. Only 108 papers were analyzed because the rest of the papers were either anonymous or in blank.

IV. RESULTS

The students rated the degree to which test tasks correspond to each of the items included in the checklist on a scale of 0-4. Table 1 shows the mean and the standard deviation of the 24 items of the checklist. Taking their means into account, only items 1, 2, 3, and 22 are well represented in the test. Items 15, 17, 18, 20, and 24, which are very important in an EFL context, are completely under-represented. According to Messick (1996) construct under-representation, which is a threat to validity, jeopardizes authenticity.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE ITEMS

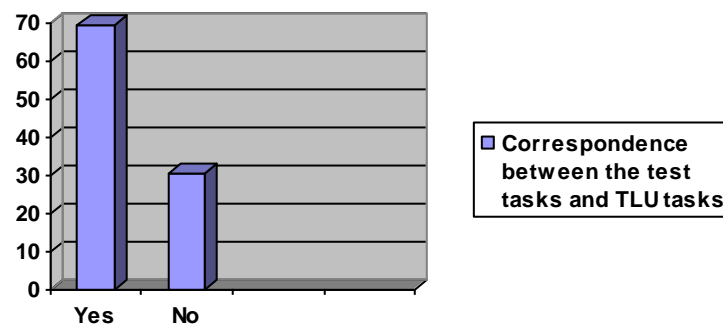
| Item | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Mean | 3.15 | 3.20 | 2.24 | 1.88 | 1.74 | 1.47 | 1.46 | 3.05 | 1.35 | 1.51 | 1.46 | 1.07 |
| SD | 1.23 | 1.15 | 1.45 | 1.40 | 1.33 | 1.16 | 1.21 | 1.23 | 1.25 | 1.34 | 1.46 | 1.19 |
| Item | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 |
| Mean | 1.07 | 1.01 | .95 | .97 | 1.04 | .98 | 1.03 | .99 | 1.00 | 3.07 | 1.16 | .80 |
| SD | 1.08 | .99 | 1.01 | 1.07 | 1.09 | 1.12 | 1.34 | 1.08 | 1.11 | 1.49 | 1.50 | 1.07 |

The frequency of the answers was analyzed using χ^2 test of significance. All items, except for item 4, showed very negligible p values ($p < 0.05$). Such small p-values indicate that there is a significant difference between the test tasks and target use tasks. Table 2 shows that in all items, except item 4, there is a significant difference between test tasks and target use tasks.

TABLE 2: χ^2

| Item | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| χ^2 | 116.7 | 142. | 21.23 | 3.94 | 11.33 | 22.58 | 21.76 | 94.84 | 21.32 | 13.29 | 45.47 | 48.95 |
| Df | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| P | .000 | .000 | .000 | .414 | .023 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .010 | .000 | .000 |
| Item | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 |
| χ^2 | 44.39 | 22.70 | 26.23 | 59.18 | 46.72 | 62.80 | 89.05 | 55.23 | 53.09 | 128.7 | 81.42 | 89.14 |
| Df | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| P | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 |

Moreover, student's general impression about the degree of correspondence between the test tasks and real life reading tasks indicates little similarity between the two.

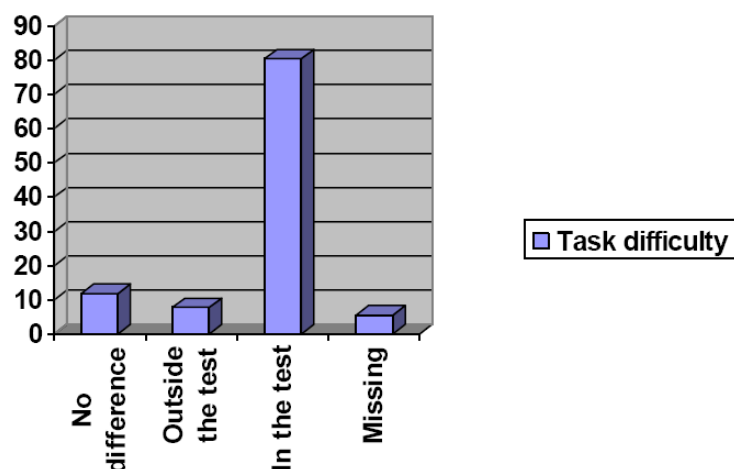


To explore construct irrelevant difficulty, test-takers were asked to mark the comparative difficulty of test tasks and target use tasks. Eighty two test takers pointed out that test tasks were more difficult than the target use tasks. Table 3 gives a summary of the results.

TABLE 3:
FREQUENCIES

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative percent |
|---------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| No difference | 12 | 11.1 | 11.8 | 11.8 |
| Outside | 8. | 7.4 | 7.8 | 19.6 |
| In the test | 82 | 75.9 | 80.4 | 100.0 |
| Missing | 5.00 | 6 | 5.6 | |
| Total | 108 | 100.0 | | |

The bar graph clearly shows that nearly 80% of the students commented that the reading tasks included in the test were more difficult. This indicates that the test tasks produce construct-irrelevant difficulty.



V. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

First, respondents were not much cooperative since in both phases of data collection the return rate was low. Moreover, in the open-ended questionnaire students were a bit reluctant to respond. However, such a problem is naturally expected due to the nature of the study. It should also be acknowledged that after summarizing the students' open-ended responses, the researcher came up with some items, which seemed either trivial or un-operationalizable. Therefore, they were not included in the checklist. There are still some items in the checklist, which may seem trivial or un-operationalizable but this is a problem with any types of needs analysis, especially in testing EAP. Finally, since the SULPT was not accessible for further scrutiny the analysis was limited to the students' responses. Had the test been accessible, the analysis could have been extended in other dimensions.

VI. DISCUSSION

The results clearly show that the SULPT suffers from construct under-representation and construct-irrelevant difficulty. First, 80.4 percent of the students indicate that reading tasks included in the test are more difficult than real life reading tasks. As such, the test tasks have produced evaluative anxiety that is not operative in the criterion

performance. This is due to lack of correspondence between the test tasks and real life tasks. Second, the test does not capture important aspect of reading proficiency. Therefore, the results are not generalizable to those aspects which are excluded. That is, the test scores lack predictive utility.

Moreover, construct under-representation and construct-irrelevant difficulty leads to bad educational practices. Because important aspects of reading proficiency are under-represented in the SULPT, students overemphasize those aspects that are well presented and downplay those parts that are not. Living in the dormitory with PhD students, the researcher has had the chance to observe such unhelpful practices on the part of students. Similarly, since the test employs test tasks which are different from real life reading tasks, students pay undue attention to overcoming the irrelevant difficulty as opposed to fostering reading proficiency. If these threats are minimized and if test tasks are deeply rooted in students' needs, the student's immediate goal- i.e., to achieve a given test score- materializes his long-term goal-i.e., to enhance his language proficiency. As Messick (1996) states, "the best defense is to minimize such irrelevant difficulty in the first place as well as construct under-representation (p. 253). Having done this, one does not feel guilty to see that even those who can do academic reading tasks quite efficiently are under the heavy and stressful pressure of the SULPT. Knowing the importance of authenticity, and being aware of the fact that authenticity affects performance, test developers are challenged to eliminate the problems with the current form of the SULPT, i.e., construct under-representation and construct-irrelevant variance.

REFERENCES

- [1] Bachman, L. F. & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language testing in practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [2] Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [3] Heltai, P. (1995). Communicative language tests, authenticity and the mother tongue. *NovELTy*, 8(2), 65-74.
- [4] Lewkowicz, J. A. (2000). Authenticity in language testing: some outstanding questions. *Language Testing*, 17(1), 43-66.
- [5] McNamara, T. F. (1996). *Measuring second language performance*. London: Longman.
- [6] Messick, S. (1996). Validity and washback in language testing. *Language Testing*, 13(3), 241-256.
- [7] Morrow, K. (1979). Communicative language testing: Revolution or evolution. In Jordon R. editor, *Case Studies in ELT*, (pp. 102-107), London: Collins ELT.
- [8] Skehan, P. (1984). Issues in the testing of English for specific purposes. *Language Testing*, 1(2), 202, 220.
- [9] Spolsky, B. (1985). The limits of authenticity in language testing. Paper Presented at the Seventh World Congress of Applied Linguistics. Brussels, Belgium.
- [10] Stevenson, D. K. (1985). Authenticity, validity, and a tea party. *Language Testing* 2, 41-47.
- [11] Taylor, D. (1994). Inauthentic authenticity or authentic in-authenticity. *TESL-EJ*, 1(2), 80-91.
- [12] Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The development of the higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- [13] Widdowson, H. G. (1978). *Teaching language as communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Seyyed Ali Ostovar-Namaghi was born in 1969. Presently, he runs EAP courses at Shahrood University of Technology, Iran. His chief area of research interest is language teacher education. He has published in a number of leading peer-reviewed journals including the Reading Matrix, Teacher Education Quarterly, the Qualitative Report, and the Asian EFL Journal.

A Study of Professional Development of College English Teachers through Narrative Inquiry

Jing Ma

Foreign Language Department, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao 266001, China
Email: Majing508@163.com

Suzhen Ren

Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao 266001, China
Email: rensuzhen@hotmail.com

Abstract—With the deepening of foreign language education reform of higher education in China, people begin to pay more attention to professional development of college English teachers. The paper, based on a theoretical study of professional development and narrative inquiry, conducted narrative inquiry among young college English teachers. The results provide useful insights both for the young college teachers themselves and teaching educators.

Index Terms—narrative inquiry, professional development, college English teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

Professional development of college English teachers is a major concern of our current higher educational reform in China. It is generally believed that the essence of college English teaching lies in the college English teacher. The success of school improvement efforts will depend on the professionals within those schools. But in China, there were a lot of researches on students' English learning strategies, motivation and the like. Professional development of college English teachers as an approach to educational research and practice is something new for teachers. The factor of the teacher in education was relatively ignored. Fortunately, this problem has been noticed in recent years. Many researchers have tried to change the situation. They began to make research focusing on teacher development rather than on students. Although some experts and researchers have made significant explorations on teacher development, yet much has to be done in available and effective ways of how teachers can develop themselves.

Presently, young teachers account for the majority of college English teachers. The quality of young teachers is decisive for the overall quality of the college. However, according to our survey, young college English teachers are facing many problems. On the one hand, they are under great pressure of preparing lessons, checking students' homework and organizing extracurricular events. Besides, their status is low. Last but not least, most teachers get low salaries struggle with financial problems, and so many of them report themselves as overburdened and hardly able to afford their living costs. How can these problems be dealt with? A narrative inquiry seems to be an effective way to help us get all in-depth understanding of them, as stories may offer insights of and reflections on teachers' identity and their professional development.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Teacher Professional Development

Teacher professional development has long been a hot topic and the focus of the improvement of teaching practice. Professional development, in a broad sense, refers to the development of a person in his or her professional role. More specifically, "Teacher development is the professional growth a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and examining his or her teaching systematically" (Glatthorn, 1995, p.41). "Professional development includes formal experiences (such as attending workshops and professional meetings, mentoring, etc.) and informal experiences (such as reading professional publications, watching television documentaries related to an academic discipline, etc.)" (Ganser, 2000, cited in Vellega-Reimers, 2003, p.11).

For years the only form of "professional development" available to teachers was "staff development" or "in service training", usually consisting of workshops or short-term courses that would offer teachers new information on a particular aspect of their work. This was often the only type of training teachers would receive and was usually unrelated to teachers' work. Only in the past few years has the professional development of teachers been considered a long term process that includes regular training and experiences planned systematically to promote growth and development in the profession.

Development recalls change and growth. Teacher development is the process of becoming "the best kind of teacher that I can personally be..." is a continuous process of transforming human potential into human performance, a process

that is never finished. In this process of professional development, it is based on constructivism rather than on a "transmission-oriented model". As a consequence, teachers are treated as active learners (Lieberman, 1994; McLaughlin and Zarrow, 2001) who are engaged in the concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation and narrative inquiry and reflection.

Evidence shows that professional development has an impact on teachers' beliefs and behavior. With regard to the effect of teachers' professional development on students' learning, a number of studies report that the more professional knowledge teachers have, the higher the levels of student achievement. Borko and Putnam (1995) offer evidence to support the fact that professional development plays an important role in changing teachers' teaching methods, and the these changes have a positive impact on students' learning.

B. Narrative Inquiry

In recent years, narrative inquiry has been put much attention to, which is considered as a way to carry out research.

Narrative inquiry is the interdisciplinary study of the activities involved in generating and analyzing stories of life experiences (e.g., life histories, narrative interviews, journals, diaries, memoirs, autobiographies, and biographies) and reporting that kind of research. Clandinin (2000) note that, "Humans are storytelling organisms who, individually and collectively, lead storied lives. Thus, the study of narrative is the study of the ways humans experience the world." (p.23) In other words, people's lives consist of stories. According to Cormelly (2000), narrative inquiry is a way of understanding experience. It is collaboration between researcher and participants, over time, in a place or series of places, and in social interaction with milieus. Counelly's ideas about narrative inquiry is agreed by Gudmundsdottir (1991) that stories are part of a narrative way of knowing that is basis to the ways in which human beings understand the world and communicate with others. And he further observed that narratives were constructed through the story schema and reflection.

Narrative inquiry, or narrative research, is a research methodology that is growing in acceptance and practice in such disciplines as nursing, medicine, and law, and especially organizational studies, therapy in health fields, social work, counseling, psychotherapy, and teaching (Clandinin, 2007, pp. xi-xii). Like other methodologies used by social science researchers, narrative inquiry "inquires" into--or asks questions about and looks for deeper understanding of--particular aspects of life experience.

Narrative inquiry has also found its way into the educational field of China. In 1998 Professor Ding Gang initiated a special magazine called Chinese Education: Research and Review for its further research. Zhou Yong(2004)gave a brief account of the development of narrative inquiry in educational field in China. However, on a whole, narrative inquiry as a research method in China is still new and most of the researches mentioned above were concerned with the perception of teachers and their daily lives.

III. THE RESEARCH

A. Research Questions

The research aims to seek answers to the following questions: (1) What is the present situation of the professional development of young college English teachers? (2) Is narrative inquiry effective in the professional development of teachers?

B. Subjects

The study involves 30 teachers of English Departments coming from Ocean University of China, Qingdao University and Qingdao University of Science and Technology respectively. All the subjects are around the age of 35.

C. Research Methods

The study mainly employs narrative inquiry about the events, beliefs, thoughts, feelings and attitudes concerning the situation and the characteristics of the professional development of teachers. The author performs this narrative study because she believed telling stories of experiences within teachers' own professional worlds will arouse their inner desire to understand that experience to reconcile what is known with that which is hidden, to confirm and affirm, and to construct and reconstruct understanding of themselves as teachers and of their own teaching.

D. Data Analysis

1. From all the subjects

The interpretation of the data began with listening to and rethinking stories of the subjects. Based on the stories told by the subject, the current situation of young college English teachers is as follows. Most of the subjects are eager to develop themselves from every aspect but they feel very depressed facing great pressure of giving lectures, preparing lectures, checking students' homework and dealing with financial problems.

2. From the author's narrative inquiry

During her 6 years in teaching, she struggled to find her identity as a teacher. Her story of professional growth and development as a teacher represents a highly complex, emotional, and personal roller coaster ride. The author's inquiry combined the methodologies of action research and self-study as a means of examining her practice. The following

themes emerged from the inquiry and inquiry analysis: fear, responsibility, contradictions between her beliefs and practices and closed-mindedness. Fear was a recurring theme that impacted her attitude and behavior. Fear of idiocy and fear of failure prevent her from confronting problems and asking mentors or colleagues for help. In addition to fears, she was unable to take personal responsibility for her problems. She blamed others for her difficulties (students, counselors, parents, mentor teachers, colleagues). Another factor that emerged was the contradiction between her beliefs and teaching practice. Although she knew her mentor teacher was there to give help, she acknowledged that her pride and fear of looking stupid got in the way. Last, she relied on the way she was taught and was not open to taking risks. Her prior experiences as a student and her personal practical theories influenced her beliefs about teaching and learning.

E. Findings and Implications

From the study, it is clear that all of the subjects wanted and tried their best to be good teachers. But as time went by, they gradually became disappointed by many, many things such as the test system, promotional system, the environment in the school, the salary they get, the response of their students to their enthusiasm and hard work.

In this process of development, teachers must learn to keep on changing and growing, not only on the ways they teach, but also on the opinions about teacher, about teaching, about the students and the relations with them. Otherwise, teachers will feel heartbreaking. Just as Parker Palmer said: "Many of us become teachers for reasons of the heart, animated by a passion for some subject and for helping people learn. But many of us lose heart as the years of teaching go by....And teaching tugs at the heart, opens the heart, even breaks the heart-and the more one loves teaching, the more heartbreaking it can be"(Palmer,1998, p.17).

Teacher development is a long-term and continuous program which develops and changes teachers in many aspects, whether their professional knowledge, their opinion about teaching and students or their relation with students. Teacher change is also a never-finished process that would continue in teachers' whole lives. The success of school improvement efforts will depend on the professionals within those schools.

IV. CONCLUSION

This study can help future young college teachers and teacher educators gain insight into the complex process of learning to teach. First, the insights gained tell young teachers that they must learn to assume personal responsibility for their actions and performance and not blame the students or others for their problems. Moreover, the insights gained from this study can encourage teacher educators to be sensitive to the range of experiences and emotions young teachers confront as they move from being a student to a teacher.

REFERENCES

- [1] Borko, H.; Putnam, R. T. (1995). "Expanding a teacher's knowledge base: a cognitive psychological perspective on professional development". In: Guskey, T. R.; Huberman, M. (Eds.), *Professional development in education: new paradigms and practices*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- [2] Ding Gang, (1998). Education inquiry: the truth of daily education. *China Education*. Feb.19.
- [3] Clandinin, D.J., & Connelly, F.M. (2000). *Narrative inquiry: Experience and story in qualitative research*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- [4] Clandinin, D. J. (Ed.). (2007). Preface. In *Handbook of narrative inquiry: Mapping a methodology* (pp. ix-xvii). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- [5] Connelly, F.M. & Clandinin, D.J. (1990). Stories of experience and narrative inquiry. *Educational Researcher*,19(4):2-14
- [6] Glatthorn, A. (1995). Teacher Development. *International Encyclopedia of Teaching and Teacher Education* (second edition). Oxford: Elsevier Science Ltd.
- [7] Lieberman, A. (1994). "Teacher development: commitment and challenge". In: Grimmer, P.P.; Neufeld, J. (Ed.), *Teacher development and the struggle for authenticity: Professional growth and restructuring in the context of change*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- [8] McLaughlin, M. W.; Zarrow, J. (2001). "Teachers engages in evidence-based reform: trajectories of teachers' inquiry, analysis, and action". In: Lieberman, A.; Miller, L. (Eds.), *Teachers caught in the action: professional development that matters*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- [9] Palmer, Parker J. (1998). *The courage to teach: exploring the inner landscape of a teacher's life*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- [10] Villegas-Reimers, E. (2003).The professional development of teachers: an international review of the literature. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning.
- [11] Zhou Yong, (2004). Postmodernism—educational narrative inquiry. *Outlook of Global Education*. Vol. 10. 27-29.

Jing Ma was born in Taian, Shandong Province, China in 1979. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Shanghai Jiaotong University, China in 2005.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Language, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China. Her research interests include language testing, translation and interpretation.

Suzhen Ren was born in Qingdao, China in 1960. She received her B.A. degree in English from Shandong Normal University, China in 1983.

She is currently a professor in Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China. Her research interests include Second Language Acquisition and Higher Education.

Online Interactional Feedback in Second Language Writing: Through Peer or Tutor?

Khalil Motallebzadeh

Islamic Azad University, Torbat-e-Heidareih Branch, Iran
Email: k.motalleb@iautorbat.ac.ir; kmotallebz@gmail.com

Somaye Amirabadi

Islamic Azad University, Bojnourd Branch, Iran
Email: Somaye_amirabadi@yahoo.com

Abstract—The purpose of this study is to investigate whether the implementation of e-collaboration and e-tutoring will have any effect on students' writing proficiency. It is argued that interactional feedback (peer or tutor) including negotiation and recasts can facilitate writing skill development in L2 (Lynch, 2002). 83 male and female EFL students, taking English courses in a language school in Bojnourd-Iran, formed the participants of this quasi-experimental intact-group study. The participants were assigned into experimental and control groups. A couple of instruments were employed to collect data: the TOEFL Writing Test, researchers-made pre and post tests, and an Information Technology Questionnaire (2009). Data analysis through one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences between e-partnering and e-tutoring groups ($p < 0.05$). The results also showed that though both e-partnering and e-tutoring enhanced writing proficiency, learners in e-partnering group outperformed those in e-tutoring group. The study findings indicate that e-collaboration/e-partnering can improve learners writing skill if integrated into the EFL curriculum designed for pre-intermediate level.

Index Terms—e-collaboration, e-tutoring, e-partnering, writing proficiency, negotiation

I. INTRODUCTION

Online communication tools have been recently employed by more and more foreign language teaching communities. According to Motallebzadeh & Ghaemi (2009), the internet is a global network which enables all kinds of computers to communicate and share services around the world. They pointed out the internet is so valuable that it is considered as a global resource of information, knowledge, and means for collaboration and cooperation among different communities. "For many internet users, electronic mail (e-mail) has practically replaced the postal service for short written transactions. Besides, as Motallebzadeh & Ghaemi, (2009) maintain, "Electronic mail is the most widely used application on the net" (p. 66).

As it is stated by Harless et.al (1999) computer programs offer students opportunities for interaction and help learners begin to use the language more effectively and consider how to use the language in real environments. The present study examines whether asynchronous CMC is able to provide an interactional forum for learners to expand such skills than a traditional interactive writing task.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Computer-mediated Communication and Collaborative Learning

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) has been taken up to allow foreign language learners to interact with each other in target language (Lee, 2001). He maintained that learners get input, attend to feed-back, and produce output. During online interaction learners take modification devices, such as comprehension, confirmation and clarification checks, requests for help, and self-repairs to clarify unclear messages.

As Pena-Shaff & Nicholls (2004) report, CMC has been employed in a variety of contexts to replace face-to-face communication. They believed that in schools, colleges and universities all around the world, CMC has been employed by teachers as electronic exchanges, e-mails, bulletin boards and real time chats in communication.

CMC can be divided into synchronous and asynchronous modes. In synchronous communications all participants work online at the same time. Synchronous discussion includes the use of programs, such as chat rooms, instant messengers or audio and video programs, in which all participants exchange messages in real time. Messages appear on the screen immediately after they are typed, and many threads can occur at the same time. In asynchronous discussions students can take part at any time and from any location, with nor regard to what other discussants are doing. Asynchronous CMC allows participants to contribute to the discussion more equally because none of the customary limitations enforced by an instructor or class schedule apply. Asynchronous discussions, which can happen via e-mail or

threaded Web discussion, provide more time for considered ideas (Kaye, 1992) and are more useful for deeper discussion of ideas (Smith, 1994) (As cited in Ingram, 2004, p. 219).

Kiatde (2008) pointed out:

Asynchronous computer-mediated communication (ACMC) enables language learners to actively engage in interactions with a wider range of interlocutors because the interactions are both place-independent and time-independent. In addition to the accessibility for learners' engagement in real online communities, the unique interactional features of ACMC are considered to facilitate second language (L2) learning. (p.64).

As Brody (1995) and Bruffee (1995) believe, literature on collaborative learning suggests it be a social-intellectual exercise related to the creation of new knowledge. In addition, according to Torres and Vinagre (2007) collaborative language learning is supported by a pedagogical framework that can be traced back to Vygotsky's (1981) sociocultural theory. As it is suggested by various authors (e.g., Bruner, 1996; Dewey, 1916; Piaget, 1973; Vygotsky, 1978) it has roots in social constructivism and is related to creating new knowledge and the teacher is able to help as a facilitator (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998) or guide (Dewey, 1916) to the social process of discovery.

There are many studies based on Long and Robinson's (1998) interaction hypothesis in the online environment. "Computer Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL) is aimed at facilitating knowledge sharing and enhancing the interaction of students engaged in group work" (Prinsen, Monique & Fakkert, 2008, p. 133). Researches (Ware & O'Dowd, 2008) have investigated that how online interaction can play a part in learners' grammatical competence and syntactic complexity comes from the literature foundation of task-based learning, focus on form, and negotiation of meaning in second language acquisition. Ware & O'Dowd (2008) report that "this hypothesis proposes that negotiation of meaning in interaction exposes learners to input that is both linguistically and interactionally modified" (p. 44).

According to various authors (O'Sullivan, 1987; Goldstein & Conrad, 1990; Strasma & Foster, 1992; Reinertsen & Wells, 1993; Arredondo & Rucinski, 1994; Leppänen, & Kajala, 1995), one form of interactive learning is group writing. It has been used to teach ESL, train teachers, and promote literacy skills in composition courses. These researchers found that during interactive learner-to-learner writing, students expressed their ideas more freely and extensively in L2, negotiated meaning more effectively, produced more output and more discourse functions, and negotiated a more equalized power-distribution than during face-to-face interactions (Abrams, 2001, p. 491).

B. Feedback in Online Environment

In online environment, feedback may be more important than in traditional classrooms (Lynch, 2002). Ko & Rossen, (2001) claimed that students in online courses are more interested in disconnecting from the material or environment than students attending face-to-face courses. Teacher feedback is often mentioned as the catalyst for student learning in online environments and lack of feedback is most often cited as the reason for withdrawing from online courses.

A number of recommendations have been made for boosting its usefulness due to the vitality of feedback in online environments. Notar, Wilson, and Ross (2002) call for feedback that is "diagnostic and prescriptive, formative and iterative, and involving both peers and group assessment" (p. 646). As Schwartz and White (cited in Mory, 2004) report, students expect feedback in an online environment to be: 1) prompt, timely, and thorough; 2) ongoing formative (about online discussions) and summative (about grades); 3) constructive, supportive, and substantive; 4) specific, objective, and individual; and 5) consistent.

Meanwhile, Ertmer & Stepich (2004) found that the use of constructive feedback can increase the standard of student discussion responses that is direct, consistent, and continuous. However, instructors must spend a noteworthy amount of time and effort to reach this level of feedback in online courses. Dunlap (2005) has argued that in order to meet students' needs for direct and continuous feedback an instructor would have to be online almost continually.

Ertmer et al. (2007) argue:

One possible solution is for instructors to focus on peer feedback as an instructional strategy, requiring students to provide feedback to one another while at the same time encouraging greater levels of interaction. Depending on how the peer feedback process is structured, instructors could be spared from assessing large numbers of student postings, yet still provide enough instances of formative and summative feedback. Students, on the other hand, would get the feedback they require in order to evaluate their progress in the online environment (p. 10).

C. Electronic Communication for Teaching Writing

Olshtain (2001) believes that within the communicative framework of language teaching, the skill of writing enjoys special status- it is via writing that a person can communicate a variety of messages to a close or distant, known or unknown reader or readers. Such communication is extremely important in the modern world, whether the interaction takes the form of traditional paper-and-pencil writing or the most technologically advanced electronic mail. Writing as a communicative activity needs to be encouraged and nurtured during the language learners' course of study. He adds:

Viewing writing as an act of communication suggests an interactive process which takes place between the writer and the reader via the text. Such an approach places value on the goal of the writing as well as on the perceived reader audience. Even if we are concerned with writing at the beginning level, these two aspects of the act of writing are of vital importance; in setting writing tasks, the teacher should encourage students to define for themselves the message they want to send and the audience who will receive it, (p. 207).

In the 1980s, the use of electronic communication started to become popular in the United States in the teaching of

composition. This was based on claims that it (1) provided more writing practice (DiMatteo, 1990; DiMatteo, 1991); (2) encouraged collaborative writing (Barker & Kemp, 1990); and (3) facilitated peer editing (Boiarsky, 1990; Moran, 1991). In addition, composition teachers also found computer-mediated communication to have the same kind of equalizing effects mentioned above. Flores (1990) and Selfe (1990) report that computer networking served to equalize women's participation in courses they taught. Mabrito (Mabrito, 1992) found that students who were more apprehensive about writing tended to benefit most from peer critique conducted electronically (As cited in Warschauer, 1996, p.8). Accordingly, this study pays particular attention to how peer feedback through online collaboration can contribute to writing skill development.

As mentioned previously, this quasi-experimental study aims to shed light on the effect of e-collaboration on writing proficiency of EFL learners by addressing the following major questions:

Q1. Does e-collaboration have any effect on writing proficiency of the EFL learners?

Q2. Is e-partnering effective in writing proficiency of EFL learners?

Q3. Is e-partnering more effective than e-tutoring in writing proficiency?

To come up with a reasonable result on the basis of the aforementioned research problems, the following null hypotheses were developed:

H01. E-collaboration has no effect on writing proficiency of EFL learners.

H02. E-partnering is not effective in writing proficiency of EFL learners.

H03. There is no statistically significant difference between effectiveness of the two approaches (e-partnering and e-tutoring).

III. METHOD

A. Participants

A group of 83 EFL students were selected from pre-intermediate EFL learners in Zabansara English Language School in Bojnourd, northeast of Iran. Both male (N=37) and female (N=46) students participated in this project, so the role of sex was not considered a distinctive variable. The average age of the participants was 22.13 years old, all being Farsi speaking students learning English as a foreign language.

B. Instrumentation

To collect the required data, several instruments were employed in this study:

1. Test of Writing Proficiency. To be sure of the homogeneity of the participants in terms of writing proficiency, a TOEFL Writing test was selected from Longman Complete Course for the TOEFL Test Book published by Addison-Wesley Longman, Inc (2001). Participants' writing performance was assessed according to TOEFL writing scoring guidelines published by ETS available in www.ets.org. The participants had 30 minutes to plan and write a paragraph for a given topic.

2. Information Technology Inventory. An information technology (IT) inventory was employed to identify participants' computer and internet literacy required for electronic collaboration (e-collaboration). This blended questionnaire consisted of 28 items and was developed by Motallebzadeh & Ghaemi (2009) and Paran, Furneaux and Sumner (2004).

3. English Writing Assessment Test (EWAT). This instrument, consisting of 20 items, was a writing test battery developed by the researchers to measure the effect of treatment. EWAT included several tasks as content (4 items), accuracy (3 items), language (6 items), organization (2 items), vocabulary (5 items), as well as items measuring process writing including outlining and revising. The results for the piloted EWAT showed an acceptable reliability ($r=.719$) estimated through Cronbach's Alpha.

4. Analytic Scoring Guide. A five-criterion rubric was used for grading participants' final English writing test papers. This was an adaptation from the rubrics proposed by Jacobs et al. (1981). The selected rubrics included content (30 points), organization (20 points), language use (25 points), vocabulary and accuracy (20 points), and mechanics (5 points). To control bias, two raters were employed to rate the papers in both pretest and posttest.

C. Procedures

To be sure of the homogeneity of participants in terms of writing proficiency at the outset of the study, a TOEFL Writing test (PBT version) was administered. Out of 102 participants, 83 were found proficient enough to be included in this study. The inter-rater reliability of the test of homogeneity was estimated as .922 which showed a high correlation between the two raters. In addition, an information technology literacy (IT) inventory was employed to distinguish between IT literate and illiterate participants. Those who could not show required literacy (N=30) were assigned as the member of control group.

The treatment lasted 8 weeks, two sessions per week. Participants (N=83) were divided into 3 groups: control group (N=30), e-tutoring group (N=23), and e-partnering group (N=30). In control group, students had a topic to write about and got teacher's written feedback the next session. In the e-tutoring group, the teacher assigned the participants a task to write about with a short discussion in class. The participants were asked to email their written tasks to their teacher on a scheduled plan. The teacher provided feedback to her participants via e-mail. In the e-partnering group, the

participants, as in the other groups, were assigned a similar task and were asked to email the assignment to their partner. E-partnering participants were required to provide corrective feedback to their partners' e-mails on language errors or, in the absence of errors, to provide suggestions for writing development. Participants in e-partnering group received one session training from their teacher on how to provide feedback and suggestions. The same writing assignments were presented to experimental and control groups. The three groups were taught by the same teacher who was trained on e-tutoring and e-collaboration before the treatment begins. As the last phase of the study, an English Writing Assessment Test (EWAT) was administered as the study posttest.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Having collected the required data based on the above mentioned data collection instruments and procedures, the researchers conducted the analysis of data and tested the hypothesis formulated for the present study.

A. Results for Test of Homogeneity

To check the homogeneity of the participants (N=102), A TOEFL Writing Test (PBT version) was administered. Table 1 illustrates the descriptive statistics of participants' scores.

TABLE 1:
RESULTS OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TOEFL WRITING TEST AS HOMOGENIZING TEST

| Test | Mean | SD | N |
|--------------------|------|-----|----|
| TOEFL Writing Test | 1.55 | .50 | 83 |

As the results in Table 1 indicate, mean is 1.55, and the standard deviation is .50. Here, only participants (N=83) whose scores fall within one standard deviation below and above the mean, i.e. between 1.05 and 2.05 were found valid to be included as the subjects of this study. The other participants (N=19) were found missing and were excluded from the study. As the results of this analysis indicated, mean (1.55), median (1.63), and mode (2.00) are almost similar indicating that the participants' scores on the homogenizing test enjoy an almost normal distribution.

B. Results for Inter-rater Reliability in Pretest

Due to the practicality issues, the inter-rater reliability index was calculated only for analytic scores given by raters for the pretest in this study. The researchers employed Pearson Correlation Coefficient to calculate any probable significant difference between the scores given by different raters. Tables 2, 3, and 4 show the inter-rater reliability results for control, e-partnering, and e-tutoring groups, respectively.

TABLE 2:
PEARSON'S CORRELATION MATRIX FOR PRETEST BETWEEN RATER 1 & RATER 2 IN CONTROL GROUP (N=30)

| | Rater 1 | Rater 2 |
|---------|----------|---------|
| Rater 1 | 1.00 | |
| Rater 2 | .973(**) | 1.00 |

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

As the results in table 2 indicate, there is a high correlation between the two raters, showing no significant difference between their ratings ($r = .973$, $p < .05$).

TABLE 3:
PEARSON'S CORRELATION MATRIX FOR PRETEST BETWEEN RATER 1 & RATER 2 IN E-PARTNERING GROUP (N=30)

| | Rater 1 | Rater 2 |
|---------|----------|---------|
| Rater 1 | 1.00 | |
| Rater 2 | .979(**) | 1.00 |

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

As table 3 illustrates, a high correlation exists between both raters which entails no significant difference between their ratings in e-partnering group ($r = .979$, $p < .05$).

TABLE 4:
PEARSON'S CORRELATION MATRIX FOR PRETEST BETWEEN RATER 1 & RATER 2 IN E-TUTORING GROUP (N=30)

| | Rater 1 | Rater 2 |
|---------|----------|---------|
| Rater 1 | 1.00 | |
| Rater 2 | .992(**) | 1.00 |

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

As table 4 shows, no significant difference is found between the two raters in their scoring for e-tutoring group ($r = .992, p < .05$).

C. Results for Pretest

A one-way between groups ANOVA was conducted to explore the homogeneity of three groups at the very beginning of the treatment. Table 5 shows the results of the ANOVA.

TABLE 5:
RESULTS FOR ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR WRITING SCORES IN PRETEST

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|------|------|
| Between Groups | 49.034 | 2 | 24.517 | .189 | .828 |
| Within Groups | 10382.622 | 80 | 129.783 | | |
| Total | 10431.657 | 82 | | | |

As indicated in table 5, there is no significant difference [$F(2, 80) = .189, p = .828$] among three groups with regard to writing ability at the outset of the study. Indeed, this result was quite predictable considering the homogenized groups.

D. Results for Posttest

To investigate the effect of study treatment, writing scores are tested in posttests via ANOVA and the Scheffe method. Table 6 and shows the results for this analysis.

TABLE 6:
RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR WRITING SCORES IN POSTTEST

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|------|
| Between Groups | 151.35 | 2 | 75.67 | 14.65 | .000 |
| Within Groups | 413.18 | 80 | 5.16 | | |
| Total | 564.54 | 82 | | | |

As the results of table 6 indicate, there is a significant difference [$F(2, 80) = 14.65, p = .000$] among three groups. This finding shows that the participants in e-partnering group performed better than the other groups.

To ensure the differences among means and provide specific information on which means are significantly different from each other, the researchers employed a post hoc test, here a Duncan's Multiple Range test. Table 7 presents the results for Duncan's test.

TABLE 7:
RESULTS OF DUNCAN'S MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR WRITING SCORES IN POSTTEST

| Group | N | Subset for alpha = .05 | | |
|--------------------|----|------------------------|---------|---------|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Control group | 30 | 11.8500 | 11.8500 | 11.8500 |
| E-tutoring group | 23 | 13.1957 | 13.1957 | 13.1957 |
| E-partnering group | 30 | 15.0167 | 15.0167 | 15.0167 |
| Sig. | | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 27.237.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Also, the results of table 7 illustrate, e-partnering group ($M(Ep) = 15.01$) was rated as the highest in writing proficiency. The e-tutoring group ($M(Et) = 13.19$) received the second rank and the control group ($M(CG) = 11.85$) received the lowest ranking in writing proficiency. In other words, while e-partnering seems more effective than the e-tutoring in developing writing proficiency of EFL learners, both approaches are significantly different from the conventional approach.

V. CONCLUSION

As the data in this study illustrated, the e-partnering group benefited remarkably more from the study treatment than e-tutoring and the control groups. It is also concluded that e-tutoring group outperformed the control group in their scores on writing proficiency test. In other words, after 8 weeks of treatment, the participants in e-learning groups showed significant improvement in writing ability. Meanwhile, it can be concluded that integrating cooperation and collaboration, as in e-partnering group, can enhance writing skill development compared to e-tutoring approach.

Based on the findings of the present study, it can be concluded that using e-learning (e-partnering and/or e-tutoring) can be a practical approach for teaching writing to Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners provided that they are familiar with the basics of IT. Moreover, while lack of interaction has been claimed as a major drawback in internet-based L2 classroom activities, the results of this study contrastively indicate that receiving feedback from the instructor via e-tutoring can develop a more interactive context in web-enhanced language learning modes. The results of this study may also emphasize on the role of teacher's and peers' feedback via the Internet as a source of developing L2 writing

proficiency.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank three anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments on the earlier draft of this paper.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abrams, Z. (2001). Computer-mediated communication and group journals: Expanding the repertoire of participant roles. *System Journal*, 29, 489-503.
- [2] Arredondo, D.E., Rucinski, T.T. (1994). Using the workshop approach in university classes to develop student metacognition. *Innovative Higher Education*, 18, 273-288.
- [3] Barker, T., & Kemp, F. (1990). Network theory: A postmodern pedagogy for the written classroom. In C. Handa (Ed.) *Computers and community: Teaching composition in the twenty-first century*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- [4] Belz, J. A. (2003). Linguistic perspectives on the development of intercultural competence in telecollaboration. *Language Learning & Technology*, 7(2), 68-117. Retrieved December 19, 2010, from <http://ilt.msu.edu/vol7num2/belz/>
- [5] Boiarsky, C. (1990). Computers in the classroom: The instruction, the mess, the noise, the writing. In C. Handa (Ed.) *Computers and community: Teaching composition in the twenty-first century*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- [6] Brody, C. M. (1995). Collaboration or cooperative learning? Complimentary practices for instructional reform. *The Journal of Staff, Program & Organizational Development* Winter 1995, 133-143.
- [7] Bruffee, K. (1995). Sharing our toys: cooperative learning versus collaborative learning. *Change*, 1995, 12-18.
- [8] Bruner, J. S. (1996). *The Culture of education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- [9] Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education*. New York: Macmillan.
- [10] DiMatteo, A. (1990). Under erasure: A theory for interactive writing in real time. *Computers and Composition*, 7(S.I.), 71-84.
- [11] DiMatteo, A. (1991). Communication, writing, learning: An anti-instrumentalist view of network writing. *Computers and Composition*, 8(3), 5-19.
- [12] Dunlap, J. C. (2005). Workload reduction in online courses: Getting some shuteye. *Performance and Improvement*, 44 (5), 18-25.
- [13] Ertmer, P. A., & Stepich, D. A. (2004, July). Examining the relationship between higher-order learning and students' perceived sense of community in an online learning environment. Paper presented at the proceedings of the 10th Australian World Wide Web conference, Gold Coast, Australia.
- [14] Ertmer, P. A., Richardson, J., C., Belland, B., Camin, D. Connolly, P., Coulthard, G. Lei, K., & Mong, C. (2007). Using peer feedback to enhance the quality of student online postings: An explanatory study. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication* 12 (2), article 4. Retrieved January 6, 2011, from <http://jcmc.indiana.edu/vol12/issue2/ertmer.html>
- [15] Flores, M. (1990). Computer conferencing: Composing a feminist community of writers. In C. Handa (Ed.) *Computers and community: Teaching composition in the twenty-first century* (pp. 107-139). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- [16] Goldstein, L., & Conrad, S. (1990). Student input and the negotiation of meaning in ESL writing conferences. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24, 443-460.
- [17] Harless, W. G., Zier, M. A., Harless, M.G., Duncan, R. C. (1999). Virtual Conversations: An interface to knowledge. *Journal of Computer Graphics*, 23 (5), 46-52.
- [18] Ingram, A. L., & Hathorn, L., C. (2004). Methods for analyzing collaboration in online communications. In T. S. Roberts (Ed.), *Online collaborative learning: Theory and practice*. Australia: IGI
- [19] Jacobs, H. L., Zingraf, S., Wormuth, D., Hartfiel, V., & Hughey, J. (1981). *Testing ESL composition: A practical approach*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- [20] Kaye, A. (1992). Learning together apart. In A. Kaye (Ed.), *Collaborative Learning Through Computer Conferencing* (pp. 1-24). Berlin Heidelberg, Germany: Springer-Verlag.
- [21] Kitade, K. (2008). The role of offline metalanguage talk in asynchronous computer-mediated communication. *Journal of Language Learning and Technology*, 12, 64-84.
- [22] Ko, S., & Rossen, S. (2001). *Teaching Online: A Practical Guide*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- [23] Lee, L. (2001). Online interaction: negotiation of meaning and strategies used among learners of Spanish. *ReCALL*, 13(2), 232-244.
- [24] Leppänen, S., & Kajala, P. (1995). Experimenting with computer conferencing in English for Academic Purposes. *ELT Journal*, 49 (1), 26-36.
- [25] Long, M., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 15-41). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- [26] Lynch, M. M. (2002). *The Online Educator: A Guide to Creating the Virtual Classroom*. New York: Routledge Falmer.
- [27] Mabrito, M. (1992). Computer-mediated communication and high-apprehensive writers: Rethinking the collaborative process. *The Bulletin* (December), 26-30.
- [28] Miao, Y., Badger, R., & Zhen, Y. (2006). A comparative study of peer and teacher feedback in a Chinese EFL writing class. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15, 179-200.
- [29] Moran, C. (1991). We write, but do we read? *Computers and Composition*, 8(3), 51-61.
- [30] Mory, E. H. (2004). Feedback research revisited. In D. H. Jonassen (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Educational Communications and Technology* (pp. 745-783). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- [31] Motallebzadeh, K., Ghaemi, H. (2009). On the relationship between online reading strategies and the choice of offline reading strategies of intermediate EFL learners. *Iranian EFL Journal*, 3, 64-81.
- [32] Notar, C. E., Wilson, J. D., & Ross, K. G. (2002). Distant learning for the development of higher-level cognitive skills. *Education*, 122, 642-650.

- [33] Olshtain, E. (2001). Functional tasks for mastering the mechanics of writing and going just beyond. In Celce-Murcia (Ed), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp.207-217). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- [34] Ornstein, A. & Hunkins, P. (1998). Curriculum evaluation. In A. Ornstein & P. Hunkins (Eds.) *Curriculum: Foundations, Principles, and Issues* (3rd Edition). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- [35] O'Sullivan, M. (1987). The group journal. *Journal of General Education* 38, 288–300.
- [36] Paran, A., Furneaux, C., Sumner, N. (2004). Computer-mediated communication in distance MA programmes: The student's perspective. *System*, 32, 337-355.
- [37] Pena-Shaff, J. B., & Nicholls, C. (2004). Analyzing student interactions and meaning construction in computer bulletin board discussions. *Computers & Education*, 42(3), 243-265.
- [38] Philips, D. (2001). Longman complete course for the TOEFL test. New York: Addison-Wesley Longman, Inc.
- [39] Piaget, J. (1973). The child and reality: Problems of genetic psychology. New York: Grossman Publishers.
- [40] Prinsen, F., Monique, J. T. & Fakkert, M & V. (2008). Feedback and Reflection to Promote Student Participation in Computer Supported Collaborative Learning: A Multiple Case Study. In R. M. Gillies, A. Ashman, & J. Terwel (Eds.). (2008). *Computer-supported collaborative learning: The teacher's role in implementing cooperative learning in classroom*. Switzerland: Springer.
- [41] Reinerstein, P. S., Wells, M.C. (1993). Dialogue journals and critical thinking. *Teaching Sociology*, 21, 182–186.
- [42] Selfe, C. (1990). Technology in the English classroom: Computers through the lens of feminist theory. In C. Handa (Ed.) *Computers and community: Teaching composition in the twenty-first century*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- [43] Smith, F. (1994). Understanding reading. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- [44] Strasma, K. & Foster, G. (1992). Collaboration within writing classes: an ethnographic point of view. *The Writing Instructor* Spring/Summer, 111–127.
- [45] Schwartz, F., & White, K. (2000). Making sense of it all: Giving and getting online course feedback. In K.W. White & B. H.Weight (Eds.), *The online teaching guide: A handbook of attitudes, strategies, and techniques for the virtual classroom* (pp. 57–72). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- [46] Thorne, S. L. (2006). Pedagogical and praxiological lessons from internet-mediated intercultural foreign language education research. In J. A. Belz & S. L. Thorne (eds.), *Internet-Mediated Intercultural Foreign Language Education* (pp. 2-30). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- [47] Torres, I. P., & Vinagre, M. (2007). How can online exchanges be used with young learners? In O. D. Robert (Ed.), *Online intercultural exchange: An introduction for foreign language teachers*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters LTD.
- [48] Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in society: The Development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- [49] Vygotsky, L. S. (1981). The development of higher forms of attention in childhood. In J. V. Wertsch (Ed.), *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology*. Armonk, N.Y.: Sharpe.
- [50] Ware, P., O'Dowd, R. (2008). Peer Feedback on Language Form in telecollaboration. *Journal of Language Learning and Technology* 12, 43-63.
- [51] Warschauer, M. (1996). Comparing face-to-face and electronic communication in the second language Classroom. *CALICO Journal*, 13, 7-26.

Khalil Motalebzadeh, assistant professor of TEFL, English Department, Islamic Azad University (IAU), Torbat-e-Heidareih Branch, Iran. His areas of interests are language testing, teacher education, and e-learning. He is especially interested in language testing, teacher education, and e-learning. He is a member of IATEFL and an accredited teacher trainer of the British Council since 2008 and is currently Iran representative of Asia TEFL.

Somaye Amirabadi, M.A in TEFL, English Department, Islamic Azad University (IAU), Bojnourd, Iran. She has recently graduated from MA program in Islamic Azad University, Iran. Her areas of interests are E-learning and ESP.

Micro-study on Travel Process of ‘Identity’ in Postcolonial Theory in Chinese Context

Jun Tong

Zhengzhou Institute of Aeronautic Industrial Management, Zhengzhou, Henan, 450015, China
Email: tj@zzia.edu.cn

Abstract—The realization of travel process of word ‘identity’ chiefly depends on the contact, negotiation and understanding between different cultures. The meanings of the word are not so much ‘transformed’ when concepts pass from one language to another as invented within the local environment of the latter. This paper mainly discusses the traveling process of the word. In the traveling processes or in the process of adaptation, translation, introduction and domestication, it experienced the process of cultural negotiation and cultural conversation and this kind of process represents as the loss, gain and even changes and transformation of the meaning of the word in the initial cultural backgrounds.

Index Terms—translation, travel, translatology, postcolonial theory

I. THE INITIAL STAGE

In translingual practice, we must pay attention to the concrete issues of cultural difference, of context and of the discursive possibilities and options available at a specific historical moment. However, when the focus is directed toward the cultural and historical specificities of translation, attention is drawn toward the way how meaning can be and how do they constructed in translation. Therefore, the ‘identity’ is one of the most essential subjects in post-colonial theory. As we know, only by re-writing one’s cultural identity, can one culture identifies its real cultural trait and spirit. Professor Wang Yuechuan also remarked: “By comparing one’s own cultural identity with other cultures, ‘identity’ becomes one nation’s collective unconsciousness and centripetal force in spirit, which is the premise to reject cultural hegemony existed between East and West.” (Wang, 1999, p.147) Therefore, it is of vital importance to discuss the key word on issues of ‘identity’.

However, in Chinese context, before the year of 1999, there are few translational versions of the works which belong to post-colonial theory. And the understandings of the term ‘identity’ still not clear. But great changes happened in the year 1999. Two collection theses about the classical theses in post-colonialism in western world got published. One is edited by scholar Zhang Jingyuan called *Post-colonial Theory and Literary critics* and another is edited by scholar Luo Gang and Liu Xiangyu which named *Literary Theory of Post-colonialism*. These two books are the earliest translational version of post-colonial theory. Shortly afterwards, Said’s masterpiece *Orientalism* which is also the most classical text in post-colonial theory was translated and published by scholar Wang Yugen. In these books, the most famous critics in post-colonial theory have been introduced into China. Therefore, as one of the most important key words in this theory, ‘identity’ is also been translated and introduced into China.

In these translated works, the word ‘identity’ begins its ‘traveling’. Different translations such as *shenfen*, *zhengzhishenfen* and *bentushenfen* appeared. The most common translation is *shenfen*. For example, when translating Liloyd’s thesis *On the Discourse of Minority: What Should We Do?*, the translator translates ‘identity’ as *shenfen*:

“一个人可能是一个教授、女性中的一员、一个房客、一个黑人雇员、一个女同性恋者等等。少数者批评话语在这种情形下可以得到的收获是在于认识到这种身份既不能简化，也是不能相互渗透……” (Luo Gang and Liu Xiangyu, 1999, p.368)

This kind of translation can also be found in the translated version of Bell Hooks’ thesis *Revolutionary Black Women: Making Ourselves Subject*:

“所有这些作品都表现出对权力的一种反应。所有结构都是一次探索，一次完成和一次实现自我的旅程；所有的一切都涉及到企图挣脱加于黑人和女性身份之上的希冀，所有作品都反对宣称‘我’的奇谈怪论。” (Luo Gang and Liu Xiangyu, 1999, p.399)

This thesis also finds such translation in the translated book *Orientalism* which is probably the most influential works in Chinese literary circle:

“人类身份不是自然形成的稳定不变的，是人为建构的，有时甚至是凭空生造的。

However, some other translators would like to translate the term as *bentushenfen*. Such kind of translation can be found in Helen Tiffin’s thesis *Post-colonialism and Counter-Discourse*:

“对文化自我认可 (self-ratification) 及其本源的民族追求，复制了宗主国的认知过程，在企图构建独立身份的过程中，再次激活了这些过程的价值和实践。” (Luo Gang and Liu Xiangyu, 1999, p.316-317)

Besides, there exists another translation, that is, *zhengzhishenfen*. It is not common but still can be found in

Mohanty's paper *Under The Western gazing: Feminism and Colonial Discourse*:

“可见，为自身建构反抗的政治身份的策略性联盟可以基于普遍化的、暂时性的联合，不过对这些团体身份的分析却不能基于普遍化的、非历史化的范畴。”(Luo Gang and Liu Xiangyu, 1999, p.436)

As we know, translation shapes our knowledge of other cultures and should be viewed as a complex set of practices. In such practices, each step such as the selection of the text, the production, circulation and acceptance is governed by wider cultural, social and economic factors. Therefore, no matter these translations are suitable or not, they introduced the original text and help Chinese scholars to understand 'identity'. Through the initial introduction, 'identity' becomes a word connected with politics, culture and race in Chinese literary circle.

II. THE UPSURGE STAGE

In and after the year of 1999, with the introduction and translation of Edward W. Said's *Orientalism*, and the publish of the two translated theses collections we mentioned in previous section, many scholars translated, introduced or interpreted the western theory of identity. The word 'identity' was translated and interpreted as *shenfen*, *shenfenrentong*, *wenhuashenfen* or *shenfenzhengzhi*. This thesis will mainly discuss several most influential works concerned with the translation, interpretation or introduction of the word 'identity'.

In the year of 1999, in the preface of the book *The Literary theory of Post-colonialism*, scholars Luo Gang and Liu Xiangyu interpret the word 'identity' as *wenhuashenfen* and *minzuwenhuashenfen*:

“后殖民理论研究涉及到众多的问题，如文化与帝国主义，殖民话语与西方对东方的文化再现、第三世界的文化抵抗、全球化与民族文化身份，以及种族、阶级、性别的关系等等。”(Luo Gang and Liu Xiangyu, 1999, p.2)

In the same year, scholar Wang Yuechuan introduced Gayatri C. Spivak's (1942-) theory in his book *Literary Theory of Postcolonialism and New Historicism*. In it, he interprets 'identity' as *wehuaquanlishenfen* and *wenhuashenfen*:

“后殖民理论是一种多元文化理论，主要研究殖民时期之‘后’，宗主国与殖民地之间的文化话语权力关系，以及有关种族主义、文化帝国主义、国家民族文化、文化权力身份等新问题。”(Wang Yuechuan, 1999, p.1)

“在抹去‘臣属’殖民化色彩以恢复本民族‘历史记忆’的过程中，如何重新书写自己的文化身份呢？在斯皮瓦克看来...”(Wang Yuechuan, 1999, p.56)

Although the translations are different, it can be seen that when the issue of identity travels to China, the power systems in it were immediately emphasized by Chinese scholar. According to these introductions, after the year 1999, there appears a climax of the discussion about the issue of 'identity'. This thesis will illustrate the various translations of this word which translated by some famous scholars in Chinese critical literary circle or literary commentary from the year 2000 to 2006 so as to clear out the translation trace of the term.

| Year | Translations | Translators |
|------|-------------------------------|---------------------|
| 2000 | <i>wenhuashenfen</i> (文化身份) | Liu Shuang (刘双) |
| | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Chang Qie (昌切) |
| | <i>shenfen</i> (身份) | Guo Jun (郭军) |
| 2001 | <i>wenhuashenfen</i> (文化身份) | Wei Jiahai (魏家海) |
| | <i>wenhuashenfen</i> (文化身份) | Liu Chuanxia (刘传霞) |
| | <i>wenhuashenfen</i> (文化身份) | Ling Cheng (凌晨) |
| 2002 | <i>wenhuashenfen</i> (文化身份) | Wang Ning (王宁) |
| | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Sheng Anfeng (生安锋) |
| 2003 | <i>wenhuashenfen</i> (文化身份) | Wang Yuechuan (王岳川) |
| | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Fei Xiaoping (费小平) |
| | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Wang Qian (王倩) |
| 2004 | <i>wenhuashenfen</i> (文化身份) | Wu Xiaorong (吴晓蓉) |
| | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Fei Xiaoping (费小平) |
| | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Li Jian (李建) |
| | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Tao Jiajun (陶家俊) |
| 2005 | <i>shenfenzhengzhi</i> (身份政治) | Chen Taisheng (陈太胜) |
| | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Zhang Deming (张德明) |
| | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Wu Xiaoli (巫小黎) |
| 2006 | <i>wenhuashenfen</i> (文化身份) | Wang Ning (王宁) |
| | <i>wenhuashenfen</i> (文化身份) | Yan Jia (阎嘉) |
| 2008 | <i>shenfenzhengzhi</i> (身份政治) | Pu Ruoxi (蒲若茜) |
| | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Yang Chunshi (杨春时) |
| 2009 | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Wang Bingbing (王冰冰) |
| | <i>shenfenrentong</i> (身份认同) | Li Chunqin (李春青) |

From the form we can see that the most common translations are *wenhuashenfen* and *shenfenrentong*. Difference translators use different translations according to their necessities of discussion and their backgrounds of education. The following section will illustrate some dilation of the translations.

Some critics, such as Wang Ning holds that the two translations are the same. Both of the translations *wenhuashenfen*

and *shenfenrentong* suit to the word 'identity' which refers to the initiative characteristics of a nation in literature or literary study:

“将‘身份(identity)’概念当作一系列独特的或有着结构特征的一种变通的看法，实际上是将身份的观念当作一种‘建构(construction)...’”

“文化身份在不同的场合又可译作文化认同，主要诉诸文学和文化研究中民族本质特征和带有民族印记的文化本质特征。” (Wang Ning, 2002, p.4)

While some others such as Qian Chaoying thinks that there is some misunderstanding in the translation of *shenfenrentong*. He remarks that although *rentong* is a quite popular word in recent Chinese literary circle, it is not suitable to the translation of the word 'identity'. The reason is that the word *rentong* contains the meaning of trying to seek sameness with the others while the word 'identity' emphasis the meaning of internality of a person or a nation. Thus, there is no connection between the two words *renting* (认同) and *shenfen* (身份):

“身份”(identity,在我国文献中有时被译作“认同”)是近年我国文化研究的重要议题。(Qian Chaoying, 2000, p.89)

“使用认同这个中文译词，就其给人一种“有求于外”或“向外求同”的印象...(Qian Chaoying, 2000, p.90)

And what is more, scholar He Qing (河清) even thinks that there are serious misunderstandings about the word 'identity' in the translated version of the works *The Clash of Civilizations* (《文明的冲突》) written by Huntington (亨廷顿). He views that it is wrong to translate the term 'cultural identity' as *wenhuaarentong* (文化认同) and holds that the suitable translation should be *wenhuahexing* (文化个性).

It can be seen in the following writing:

“首先，中译本把原著全力强调的‘文化个性’都误译为‘文化认同’，英文‘identity’意思很明确，是指一个人一件事物区别于他人他事的内在属性：‘个性’，‘己性’，‘特征’，‘身份’等，无论如何都与‘认同’风马六不相及，因为‘认同’是人们对外在事情表示‘认可赞同’。(He Qing, 1999, p.100-101)

Scholar He Qing views that the translation of *shenfenrentong* (身份认同) is the action of following the fashion of using the word *renting* (认同). However, this thesis holds that the translation *wenhuahexing* (文化个性) is also an ill-defined concept and difficult to achieve most people's agreement.

Although there exists many different opinions, from the form this thesis list above, it can see that most literary scholars agree to scholar Wang Ning's (王宁) opinion and use the translations interchangeably in literary criticism and comment without choosing.

III. THE DEBATABLE STAGE

Since there are various voices about the understanding of the word 'identity', we may need to trace back to the original debate of the word both in western context and in Chinese context.

Originally, in western context, the connotation meaning of the word 'identity' is the confirmation and agreement between individual and specific social culture while the denotation meaning of the word is one cultural subject's collective option between the stronger and the weaker culture. In today's literary circle, there are two groups holding different opinions concerned with the origin of 'identity'. One group thinks that 'identity' can be traced back to The Age of Reason. In that period of time, the importance of human's reason had been highly lightened; therefore, enlightenment means the act of rethinking everything including human being itself. People began to rethink the relations between society and oneself as well as the existence of oneself. Another group holds that 'identity' is a newly born idea in popular culture studies. "English scholar Barker suggested that the study of politics, philosophy and linguistics promote the idea of identity as the central subject of culture studies in 1990" (Zhao Xifan, 2004, p.465). They also view that post-modernism is a typical representation of the concept of identity. The concept of 'identity' develops along with the dominant discourse in western society. Mainly, there are three steps worth mention in the evolution. Firstly, subject-centered enlightenment identity. It originated from the subject theory proposed by Rene Descartes (1596-1650). Ultimately, declares Descartes, the only thing one cannot doubt is one's own existence. Certainty and knowledge begin with the self. "I think, therefore I am" thus becomes the only solid foundation which knowledge and a theory of knowledge can be built. For Descartes, the rational essence from superstition, from human passions, and from one's often irrational imagination will allow humankind to discover truth about the physical and one's identity. Later, Immanuel Kant (1724-1804) and Hegel (1770—1831) develops Descartes' thought of identity. They holds that human is the master of reason, and one can realize the combination of one's spirit and identity. Secondly, social-centered social identity. From 19th century, influenced by European sociology and socio-psychology, there appears a new concept of identity. The essential concept is that human and society are two different parts in which society plays a more important role. Ultimate reality is material not spiritual. What we know beyond any doubt is that human being exists and lives in social groups. All of our actions and responses are related in some way to our culture and society. Karl Heinrich Marx (1818-1883) and Michel Foucault dedicate a lot to this kind of thinking. The core principles thought is that reality itself can be defined and understood, society shapes our consciousness, social and economic conditions directly influence how and what we believe and value. In a word, one's identity is also determined by society which he or she involves in. Thirdly, decentering post-modern identity. As Friedrich Nietzsche's (1844-1900) *Zarathustra*, the protagonist of *Thus*

spake Zarathustea, proclaims the death of God, the death knell begins to sound for objective reality and ultimate truth. From Nietzsche to the present, the voice of many scholars declare univocally the death of objective truth and the main stream of western thought turned from entitativism to relativism. "For those post-modern thinkers, there is no such point of reference, for there is no ultimate truth or inherently unifying element in the universe and thus no ultimate reality." (Bressler, 1998, p.119) Since all is difference, each person shapes his or her own concepts of identity. Identity becomes a human construct that is shaped by each individual's dominant social group. Thus, identity is a changing process which is hard to define. The meaning of identity becomes a sort of fragment thinking. After the collapse of colonial system, cultural aggression becomes the main measure, therefore, it is natural that the concept of identity attracts most post-colonialists' attraction. Echoed with post-modernism, they also believe that identity cannot be a fixed concept, so they take an anti-entitativism attitude. Till now, the concept of post-colonial identity includes three aspects in western literary circle: ethnic identity which concentrated on the difference of various races; national identity which is absorbed in cultural ideology or its hegemony between the dominant nation and the weaker nation; diaspora identity focus on the identity of a heterogeneous groups who born in the Third world and now lives or works in the First world.

As we mentioned previously, in western context, there are three steps of the issues of identity in western context while it is easy to understand that although *shenfen* (身份) has already existed in classical Chinese, it is greatly different from the modern western meaning we now refer to. In Chinese context the meaning of the word *shenfen* (身份) can not only refer to the status, dignity or identity as we usually think and clearly it contains great differences with the word 'identity' in western context.

In order to illuminate different meanings of the word 'identity' before and after 'travel', this paper mainly take the historical and environmental contexts from 1950s to 1990s into consideration. From 1950s to 1970s, due to the leadership of chairman Mao, *shenfen* (身份) means different classes in society in China. Just as Professor Xu Ben said, the partition of *shenfen* (身份) determined by political power instead of economic status at that time. Meanwhile, it is gradually inclined to have more relations with people's political standpoint. (Xu Ben, 1996, p.192-196) Therefore, the partition of classes was mainly determined by the special political ideology at that moment. *Shenfen* (身份) possessed strong political color. There were strict borderlines among varying kinds of *shenfen* (身份). Some kinds of *shenfen* (身份), such as workers, farmers, and soldiers, are superior to other kinds of *shenfen* (身份), such as intellectuals and businessmen. This kind of guide line can be found in chairman Mao's writing:

"这时，只有在这时，我才根本地改变了资产阶级学校所教给我的那种资产阶级和小资产阶级的感情，这时，拿未改造的知识分子和工人农民相比，就觉得知识分子不干净了，最干净的还是工人，农民，尽管他们手是黑的，脚上有牛屎，还是比资产阶级和小资产阶级知识分子干净。"

Thus, before 1980s, the problem of *shenfen* (身份) is always determined by political powers and everybody's *shenfen* (身份) is prescripted by society. Nobody needs to ask the question: "who am I?" because the society already answered the question for everybody. It is merely impossible and unnecessary for individuals to think and try to answer the question.

However, from 1980s, due to the political and economic reform and opening policy, the old opinion of *shenfen* (身份) faced great challenges. Although the issue of *shenfen* (身份) was still bound to political powers, it became more fluid and changeable. We can see this change in the following statement:

"在中国，自八十年代以来，人们的社会身份认同开始面临前所未有的危机。这种危机在九十年代进一步深化和复杂化……一方面，在这个时期，身份的分辨和确定从前年代形式向现代形式转变，它表现为社会身份开始具有前所未有的建构性、流动性和变化性……另一方面，身份仍然和官方政治对社会的控制紧密地联系在一起……" (Xu Ben, 1996, p.193)

Among these changes, the intellectuals felt they are facing *shenfen* (身份) crisis for they gradually lost their safety in economy after the reform. Therefore, more and more intellectuals try to modulate their *shenfen* (身份) by their knowledge. Identity becomes a human construct that is determined by each individual's dominant social groups. Just at that time, western theory of identity has been introduced to China and acted as the instruments by Chinese intelligentsia. The word identity was borrowed into Chinese and *shenfen* (身份) began to take up the English connotation. As we know, in western theory, the issue of identity has a deep philosophical root and post-colonial identity mainly includes three aspects: ethnic identity, national identity and diasporic identity, so the two words 'shenfen (身份)' and 'identity' have totally different connotation and denotation in respective cultural context, then why did Chinese scholars equals identity with *shenfen* (身份), *wenhua shenfen* (文化身份) or *shenfen rentong* (身份认同)?

Obviously they carried out such act intentionally not mistakenly. The reason is that "Identity, is a kind of historically constructed artifact... in a word, identity is closely related to power relations in every society and definitely not a pure academic wolgathering." According to his or hers necessities of discussion, each scholar chooses a kind of translation. For example, scholar Wang Ning holds that the function of the term 'identity' in post-colonial theory mainly lies in comparing different texts between east and west. It should be work for the comparative literature:

"在文化身份在不同的场合又可译作文化认同，主要诉诸文学和文化研究中民族本质特征和带有民族印记的文化本质特征。比较两种不具有任何事实上影响的文本时，学者们完全可以侧重于比较这种本质的差异而寻找某

种具有共性和本质特征的相同点，当然这种认同主要是审美上的认同。”(Wang Ning, 2000, p.4)

Thus, according to his writing, since the issue of identity mainly belongs to literary discussion, it is not of great importance whether the translation should be *shenfen* (身份), *wenhuashenfen* (文化身份) or *shenfenrentong* (身份认同).

However, scholar Qian Chaoying (钱超英) thinks that the term identity introduced from post-colonial theory should be used in diaspora study.

“身份”概念尤其便于用来考察和研究那些在明显不同的‘文化历史设定’的裂缝之间漂移运动的‘主体——移民’、‘问题群体’，在全球化中经历急具社会转型的民族——所必然面临的身后重建经验。(Qian Chaoying, 2000, p.90)

Therefore, he views that the translations such as *shenfenrentong* (身份认同) and *shenfengexing* (身份个性) are not suitable although he doesn't propose his translation. All in all, the issue of identity has been among the forms of Chinese intellectuals' probe into their selves and their literary discussions.

There is some common feature among these various translations in Chinese context. That is, when the theory traveled to China, the philosophical base has been neglected and Chinese scholar paid most attention to only one aspect of post-colonial identity, that is, national identity. So let's go deep to find out reasons for such phenomenon. Being a semi-colonial country, China has its peculiar features when facing western theory of identity. Firstly, being a semi-colonial country, Chinese has no explicit favor for ethnic identity. Secondly, being the weaker side of the cultural hegemony, Chinese scholars admire as well as envy and resist western theory. Naturally, nationalist identity awakened by the stimulation of western theory. Therefore, when the theory traveled to China, the philosophical base has been neglected and Chinese scholar paid most attention to national identity. We can see this phenomenon from scholar Tao Jiajun's (陶家俊) remarks, in his words:

“讨论后殖民认同就要涉及到国家和民族的概念...作为政治共同体，民族国家一方面依靠国家机器维护其政治统一，另一方面，作为想象共同体，它又需依赖本民族的文化遗产，确保其文化统一。”(Zhao Xifan, 2004, p.469)

Nowadays, many critics became aware of this tendency. Such as Lan Aiguo (蓝爱国) pointed out: “Whenever we Chinese taking about the problems of identity, the first thing came to our mind is the opposition of the East and the West.” Thirdly, it is popular in literally circle to emphasis on the power relations between east and west. All these reasons can explain why Chinese scholars emphasized national identity particularly.

There are also historical and environmental reasons behind the surface. At that time, due to the political system, intellectuals were far from the dominant power relations. If they want to enter the main discourse which dominated by political circle, they must find some other discourse to support them. Then, they used the empowerment of western theory of identity and paid special heed to national identity so as to enter the main discourse and raise their self-esteem as well as social status. We can find some supports in Professor Xu Ben's writing:

“一些知识分子发现了‘本土’这个民族身份对于处于身份危机之中的中国知识分子的‘增势(empowerment)’作用，并有意识地运用这种身份来提升他们的自尊和社会地位。”(Xu Ben, 1996, p.199-200)

The theory of Foucault's knowledge archaeology helps explain the changes in the discourse around identity. For Foucault, “history is the complex relationship of a variety of discourses or the various ways-- artistic, social, political--that people think and talk about their world.” (Bressler, 1988, p.242) Seen from Foucault's point of view, the travel process can also act as a form of power. The traveling process ultimately determines what takes place in each culture or society. Therefore, the traveling process of the word ‘identity’ is a process full of contact, complement and negotiation among the history, context and the intellectuals. Seen from the traveling process of the term ‘identity’, we can find that there are complex relations between the concept between East and West as well as national and global. It is true to say that: “the complex relations influence the essential issue of Chinese ideological system, that is, the understanding and construct of Chinese own cultural studies. The study of identity is also the study of national culture.”

REFERENCES

- [1] Bressler, Charles. (1998). *Literary Criticism: An Introduction to Theory and Practice*. Houghton: Houghton College.
- [2] Foucault, Michel. (1972). *The Archaeology of Knowledge*, trans. A. M. Sheridan Smith. New York: Pantheon Books.
- [3] He Qing. (1999). The Character and Identity of Culture. *Journal of Reading Books*, Issue 4.
- [4] Liu, Lydia H. (1995). *Translingual Practice: Literature, National Culture, and Translated Modernity--China, 1900-1937*, California: Stanford University Press.
- [5] Lin, Dajing. (2008). *Studies on Inter-culture Translation*. Fujian: Fujian People's Press.
- [6] Luogang & Liu, Xiangyu. (1999). *Post-colonial Cultural Theory*. Beijing: China Social Sciences Publishing House.
- [7] Luogang & Liu, Xiangyu. (2001). *Papers on Cultural studies*. Beijing: China Social Sciences Publishing House.
- [8] Nida, E. (2001). *Language and Culture: Context in Translating*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [9] Qian Chaoying. (2000). Concept and Consciences of Identity. *Journal of Shengzhen University*, Issue 4.
- [10] Said, Edward. (1979). *Orientalism*. New York: Vintage.
- [11] Venuti, Lawrence. (1995). *The Translator's Invisibility: A History of Translation*. London and New York: Routledge.
- [12] Wang Ning (2002). The Construction of Cultural Identity and Chinese Literary Crisis. *Journal of Gansu Social Sciences*, Issue 4.
- [13] Wang, Yuechuan. (1999). *Post-colonial Theory and New Historical Criticizes*. Jinan: Shandong Education Publishing House.

- [14] Williams, Raymond. (1983). *Keywords: A Vocabulary of Culture and Society*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- [15] Xuben. (1996). *On Post-modernism and Post-colonialism*. Beijing: China Social Sciences Publishing House.
- [16] Zhao Xifang. (2004). *Translation and Dialogue in New Era*. Beijing: China Social Sciences Publishing House.

Jun Tong was born in Henan, China in 1980. She received her M.A. degree in English language and literature from Guizhou University, China in 2008.

She is currently a lecturer in English Department of Zhengzhou Institute of Aeronautic Industrial Management, Zhengzhou, China. Her research interests include English literature and translation.

The Effect of Contextualizing and Decontextualizing Techniques on Lexical-oriented Knowledge of Persian EFL Language Learners

Kamal Heidari Soureshjani

Young Researchers Club Member, Islamic Azad University, Shahrekord Branch, Shahrekord, Iran
Email: k_tefl_h@yahoo.com

Abstract—Taking a pretest posttest control group design, the present study served as an attempt to compare the effects of two vocabulary teaching techniques (contextualization and decontextualization techniques) on the elementary Iranian EFL learners. To achieve such a purpose, 190 male and female language learners were randomly selected and assigned into two groups, a control group and an experimental group. In the control group, the new English words were presented in word lists associated with their Persian meanings and students were supposed to memorize them (a decontextualizing technique). In the other group, the new English words were presented in model sentences (a contextualizing technique). The data were collected using two reliable and valid tests as pretest and posttest: Each of them consisted of 15 equivalent multiple-choice items of vocabulary. The result of the study revealed significant differences between the two groups of the study. The experimental group outperformed those in the control group quite significantly on vocabulary memorization test. The experimental group also had a better performance on a sentence-making test than the control group though the differences were not significant.

Index Terms—contextualizing, de-contextualizing, rote memorization, sentence-making technique

I. INTRODUCTION

It is a truism and has also been repeatedly mentioned by different researchers that assessing vocabulary is necessary. They support this claim by arguing that words are the basic building blocks of language and it is the units of meaning from which larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs and whole texts are formed (Read, 2000; Schmitt, 2000). Considering the crucial role of vocabulary learning in second or foreign language learning contexts, one can make aware of the importance of vocabulary teaching as well. In the past, vocabulary teaching and learning were often given little priority in second language programs, but recently there has been a renewed interest in the nature of vocabulary and its role in learning and teaching (Richards & Renandya, 2002). Furthermore, some studies have shown lexical problems of language learners indicating that lexical problems frequently interfere with communication. In fact, communication breaks down when people do not use the right words (Allen, 1983). Therefore, there is an increased interest in vocabulary as a component of every language.

There have been proposed different techniques for teaching vocabulary items in methodology textbooks. Generally speaking, there are three approaches to vocabulary teaching: incidental, or indirect learning (learning words as a by-product of doing other things such as reading or listening), explicit or direct learning (diagnosing the words learners need to know, presenting them to the learners and elaborating on their word knowledge) and independent strategy development (practicing by guessing meaning of the words from content and training learners to use dictionaries) (Hunt & Beglar, 2000). As to the first two approaches to vocabulary teaching, a number of techniques can be employed. One is to use contextualizing techniques such as memorizing word lists or using flashcards. While adopting the indirect approach, one way is using contextualizing techniques such as reading and listening practice and speaking and writing practice (Oxford & Crookall, 1990).

Regarding all these studies and findings, however, there is a controversial issue based on which whether the direct approach is superior to the indirect approach. Most of the studies in this regard have shown mixed results. Read (2004) for instance asserted that although learners certainly acquire word knowledge incidentally while engaging in various language learning activities, more direct and systematic studies of vocabulary is required.

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Assorted studies have dealt with the effects of the direct and indirect approaches of vocabulary teaching on learning vocabulary some of which are presented in this section. Lawson & Hagen (1996) for example investigated the behavior of the university students attempting to learn the meanings of new Italian words using a thinking aloud procedure. The

procedures involved repetition of the new words and their meanings. There was little use of the physical or grammatical features of words, or elaborative acquisition procedures. This lack of acquisition between use of content and recall of word meaning is contrasted with the stress placed on content by some researchers. Even when the subjects used the cues in the sentences to generate possible meanings for the target words, it didn't help them establish representations for the meanings of the words.

Khuwaileh (1995) also investigated the effect of contextualization techniques on vocabulary learning of the intermediate-level Jordanian university students ($N = 40$). There were two lists, each containing twenty new words. List one was presented with English meaning and discussed in Arabic, the words of list two were in a text for silent reading with vocabulary questions. After 12 weeks, the students were tested on both groups of words. The results showed a clear advantage of contextualization for comprehension, learning and recall.

It is often heard that most words are learned from context and it is a very useful and productive way to learn words, however the usefulness of this method of vocabulary learning for all learners at different levels of proficiency is questionable. Waring (1955), for example, argued that beginners need a basic vocabulary before they can even start to learn from contexts as they have insufficient knowledge and the text is too dense with unknown and known words. In fact, they do not also have enough knowledge of grammar and cannot make use of grammatical contextual clues to guess meaning from the context. He then suggested that guessing from context be left to a later stage when the learners have enough knowledge base.

Language learning process is not complete without vocabulary. It is impossible to learn a language without vocabulary. The important role of vocabulary has been emphasized in all different methods in language teaching. Rivers (1981) stated that vocabulary cannot be taught. It can be presented, explained and included in all kinds of activities however it must be learned by the individuals. She then goes on by saying that language teachers must arouse interest in words and a certain excitement in personal development in this area. She finally suggested that language teachers must help their students by giving ideas on how to learn vocabulary.

On the whole, with regard to the afore-cited studies, most of studies support the point that decontextualizing vocabulary learning techniques are superior to contextualized techniques. Just one study (Khuwaileh, 1995) supported the use of contextualizing techniques for vocabulary learning. In addition, some other studies like Qian's (1996) one that made a comparison between the learning of second language words in lists and contexts, failed to show any significant effects for one method over the other. These different results highlight the necessity of conducting more studies in different contexts to get more reliable findings.

Although vocabulary has been the subject of many studies, few researchers have revealed the effective techniques of vocabulary teaching. Therefore, it is very important to find the most effective technique for vocabulary teaching. All experienced language teachers confirm the important role of words and know that the lack of them leads to feeling of insecurity. Besides, teachers use different vocabulary teaching techniques such as lists, synonyms, antonyms, etc.

The present study aimed to show the effects of two vocabulary teaching techniques, that is, rote memorization of word lists (a de-contextualizing technique) and sentence-making practice, (a contextualizing technique) on learning English vocabulary as a foreign language. Totally, the study tries to cast light on the following research questions:

1. Is there any difference between the performance of the students on vocabulary memorization test and sentence-marking test?
2. Is there any significance difference between students' vocabulary learning via contextualizing and decontextualizing techniques?

The study findings can add to the body of knowledge as to finding the most effective vocabulary teaching methods and making language learners be more efficient in their learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Altogether 90 male and female language learners were randomly selected (from among almost 190 learners) to take part in the study. They aged from 17 to 23 and all were taking beginning courses in two of language institutes in Shiraz, Iran. Having confirmed their homogeneity, they were randomly assigned to two groups, an experimental group and a control group, each consisting of 45 students. The experimental group received the treatment that is, teaching vocabulary items contextually. And the control group received vocabulary items through word lists in English along with their translations in Persian.

B. Materials

In order to conduct the study two tests were constructed: a pretest and a posttest. These tests were standard and valid tests based on the book *New Generation* by Colin Granger and Digby Beaumont (1987) which has been used at the institutes for several years. The pretest was a vocabulary test prepared by the researcher involving 30 vocabulary items all in the multiple-choice format and then did a pilot study on a smaller group ($N = 25$). During the pilot study some of the items were found out to be changed or completely omitted and finally the number of items reduced to 20 valid and standard items. The reliability of the pre-test and post-test were calculated to be 0.81 and 0.77 respectively using KR-21

formula. The reliability of the sentence-making test was also computed through the same formula and it turned out to be 0.77 which is an acceptable index of reliability.

C. Data Analysis

As it was already mentioned, the participants were randomly assigned into two groups. One group served as the experimental group in which students worked on the vocabulary items through sentence-making practice both in written and spoken form (a contextualization technique). The point needs to be raised here is that this method is the most common way of teaching vocabulary in the institutes. The other group served as the control group in which students tried to learn the words through rote memorization of word lists. The researcher asked the students to elicit the meaning of the words appearing in the wordlists both in English and Persian.

The vocabulary pretest was administered to both experimental group and control group. The time allotment for the test was forty minutes. The correct answer to each item received one point, and there was no penalty for wrong responses. The whole research project took place in almost 60 days and the students were taught five units of the book. During the project, the new words of each unit were presented to the students through two methods of contextualization and de-contextualization. In the experimental group the words were used in some model sentences. In control group, the new words were presented through definitions and synonyms. At the end of the sessions, vocabulary development of the students in both groups was tested using the posttest. On the basis of these tests the efficacy of two methods of vocabulary teaching was then determined.

IV. RESULTS

In order to begin the study and in order to make sure about the homogeneity of the students, the researcher administered a pretest to both control and experimental groups unexpectedly in the second session. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of this pretest.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRETEST

| No | Min | Max | Mean | SD |
|----|-----|-----|-------|------|
| 90 | 5 | 27 | 19.22 | 8.30 |

Tables 2 and 3 also represent the descriptive statistics for the two tests given to the students at the beginning and end of the course.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE ROTE MEMORIZATION TEST

| No | Min | Max | Mean | SD |
|----|-----|-----|-------|-------|
| 90 | 16 | 58 | 35.50 | 12.30 |

And finally, based on Table 4, Beta values indicates that one standard deviation unit change in the score for autonomy will result in 0.52 unit of change in GPA. However, one standard deviation unit change in the score for motivation will result in 0.34 unit of change in GPA. Thus, on the whole, it can be inferred that autonomy scores are better predictors of GPA than motivation:

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SENTENCE MAKING TEST

| No | Min | Max | Mean | SD |
|----|-----|-----|-------|------|
| 90 | 4 | 18 | 11.50 | 3.40 |

Then in order to make a comparison between the two groups to see if there is any statistically significant difference between the two groups, the obtained raw scores were subjected to two separate independent t-tests. As table 4 indicates, the experimental group had a remarkably better performance than the control group on the rote memorization test.

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST COMPARING THE PERFORMANCE OF THE TWO GROUPS ON ROTE MEMORIZATION TEST

| Variable | No | Mean | SD | S.E. of mean | DF | 2-tail sig. |
|----------|----|-------|-------|--------------|----|-------------|
| EXP | 15 | 38.94 | 12.70 | 2.750 | 35 | 0.02 |
| Cont | 15 | 31.95 | 10.34 | 2.176 | | |

Table 5 also reveals that with regard to sentence-making test the two groups performed very similarly however, the experimental group was minimally better than control group performance.

TABLE 5.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST COMPARING THE PERFORMANCE OF THE TWO GROUPS ON THE SENTENCE MAKING TEST

| Variable | No | Mean | SD | S.E. of mean | DF | 2-tail sig. |
|----------|----|-------|------|--------------|----|-------------|
| EXP | 45 | 11.65 | 3.30 | .736 | 45 | 0.95 |
| Cont | 45 | 11.55 | 3.50 | .724 | | |

Finally with the end of the course, the posttest was administered to both experimented and control groups. The descriptive statistics of this test are shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE POST-TEST

| No | Min | Max | Mean | SD |
|----|-----|-----|-------|------|
| 90 | 8 | 22 | 32.05 | 7.22 |

Then in order to see whether the treatment given to the experimental group had caused any significant change in their performance; another independent t-test was run. Table 7 well shows that the experimental group outperformed the control group but not significantly.

TABLE 7.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST COMPARING THE PERFORMANCE OF THE TWO GROUPS ON THE SENTENCE MAKING TEST

| Variable | No | Mean | SD | S.E. of mean | DF | 2-tail sig. |
|----------|----|-------|------|--------------|----|-------------|
| EXP | 45 | 33.30 | 6.50 | 1.370 | 46 | 0.27 |
| Cont | 45 | 30.86 | 7.90 | 1.550 | | |

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The main purpose of the current study was to ascertain the probable effects of decontextualizing and contextualizing teaching methods on the performance of Iranian EFL elementary language learners on lexical tests. To put another way, the study tried to find which one of these two methods is more effective, appropriate, and useful for elementary-level language learners in their lexical performances.

The results of the study which were obtained from the analysis of data pertaining to the pretest and posttest made clear that although the differences between the means of the experimental and control group was not statistically significant, the treatment given to the experimental group had affected this group performance to some extent.

The results of the sentence-making test also revealed that the experimental group did better on this test as compared to the control group, though this difference was again marginal. The significance of the results doubles when one pays attention to the fact that the students in the control group had a lot of sentence-making practice both in written and spoken form in the class while the students in the experimental group did not have such practice. It can be inferred that good recall of the meaning of the vocabulary items might have helped students in the experimental group to make appropriate sentence and that the students in the control group did not perform as well as they were expected to on this test simply because they could not recall the meanings of the words which is a basic requirement for making sentences using such words. Another reason for the low performance of the subjects in the control group is that these students usually copy sentences from dictionaries when they are asked to make sentences based on vocabulary items. In fact, they do not actually make sentences to have real practice in sentence-making.

The results of this study support that of Qian (1996) who suggests that for some language learners de-contextualized second language vocabulary learning with feedback is more effective than contextualized vocabulary learning without feedback. He also challenges the assumption that contextualized vocabulary learning always leads to better recall. Another support for the results of the study comes from a research project undertaken by Laufer and Shumueli (1997), based on which words glossed in first language were shown to be always better retained than those glossed in second language. The results of this study can further be supported by Waring (1995) who has questioned the appropriateness of contextualized method of vocabulary learning for all learners. He concludes that beginners requires a body of basic vocabulary items before they can start learning from context since they do not have enough knowledge of the words and the text is too difficult for them.

The appropriateness of the use of word lists, as employed in the experimental group of this study, is also recommended by Meara (1995, reported in Critchley, 1998) who maintains that presenting vocabulary items in list form is on efficient study method in which students can learn many words in a short time. The results of this study suggest that presenting vocabulary items in word lists rather than in context is better for beginning learners. Consequently, attempts should be made to provide beginners with English textbooks in which English words associated with their Persian meaning are presented.

One of the most notable implications which can be inferred from this study is that since a good knowledge of vocabulary has a great effect on the learners' improvement of other aspects of language such as reading comprehension, listening comprehension, speaking and writing, specially at beginning levels, more attention should be paid to choosing and implementing appropriate vocabulary teaching learning techniques in language classes. Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that rote memorization of word lists as a de-contextualizing or direct technique of vocabulary teaching/learning is more useful than sentence-making practice as a contextualizing or indirect technique, and it can play an important role in teaching vocabulary items particularly for learners at the beginning level of language instruction.

APPENDIX A PRETEST OF VOCABULARY

1. I can ----- in water.
a) drive b) cook c) climb d) swim
2. Kate's father can -----a car.
a) work b) drive c) study d) run
3. There is a hole. You should....
a) eat b) jump c) write d) read
4. I am going to France.
Have you got a ---- ?
a) magazine b) notebook c) passport d) piano
5. It is very dark. Have you get a ---- ?
a) ball b) torch c) newspaper d) ladder
6. There is a high ----. You should climb it.
a) mountain b) zebra c) sack d) tap
7. You can ski, because there is a deep ---- .
a) bucket b) snow c) magazine d) watch
8. He was killed in a car.
a) accident b) net c) light d) magazine
9. There is a lot of ---- at 8 o'clock in the morning. There are many cars in the street.
a) kite b) cinema c) restaurant d) traffic
10. A. ---- is a large strong car for carrying things.
a) lorry b) gun c) motorbike d) taxi
11. There are four ----- in a year.
a) days b) months c) hours d) seasons
12. Which one can be used for swimming?
a) bat b) goggles c) gloves d) towel
13. There is no cloud in the sky. It is -----.
a) snowy b) clear c) rainy d) windy
14. It is too far to the post office. Let's ----- a taxi.
a) go b) take c) make d) run
15. I can not talk to you now. I have many things to do. I am really -----.
a) relaxed b) old c) busy d) glad

APPENDIX B. POST-TEST OF VOCABULARY

1. What is your father's job? He mends cars. He is a -----.
a) journalist b) pop singer c) waiter d) mechanic
2. That man carrying the letters is a-----.
a) postman b) teacher c) singer d) footballer
3. Harry can ----- the mountain.
a) climb b) put c) wash d) ride
4. My brother can ----- when there is snow.
a) open b) wash c) ski d) cook
5. There is a snack. You should -----.
a) run b) clean c) swim d) do
6. Bert can row a----- in the sea.
a) cup b) boat c) coat d) poster
7. Allen's father can fly a ----.
a) bicycle b) car c) house d) plane
8. There is a -----, You can swim in it.
a) lake b) park c) road d) mountain
9. It is cold. Have you get a -----?
I want to make fire.
a) key b) map c) lighter d) desk
10. I have got a -----, Aren't you hungry?
a) ring b) sandwich c) drink d) passport
11. Please ----- a circle on the board.
a) make b) jump c) take d) draw
12. There is no taxi. I think we have to -----.
a) drive b) walk c) ski d) jump

13. Can you bring me a ----- of water for me?
 a) can b) battle c) glass d) tube
14. I think Ali is late. I should ----- him.
 a) call b) shout c) go d) see
15. The sky is clear. I see many ----- in the sky.
 a) moons b) clouds c) stars d) lights

APPENDIX C. SAMPLE VOCABULARY ITEMS PRESENTED THROUGH CONTEXTS

Lesson One

1. Monkeys can climb the trees well. They go up the trees very fast.
2. A: Can you drive a car?
 B: No, I can't. But my father can drive. He is a taxi driver.
3. Look! The children are very happy. They are jumping up and down.
4. He is late for the bus. He is running very fast to the bus-stop.
5. Your hands are dirty. You should wash them before lunch.
6. Allen's mother is in the kitchen. She is cooking pizza for dinner.
7. Bob's father was not a good driver. Last year, he was killed in a car accident.
8. When the cars come to crossroads, they should stop to let the other cars pass.

Lesson Two

1. If you want to keep the food cold, you should put them in the refrigerator.
2. There is a net in the garden and the children are playing volleyball.
3. Look! There are two rackets and a net here. Let's go to play tennis in the yard.
4. I want to play tennis with my friend. But I can't find my racket.
5. Michael and Allen played chess with each. At the end, Michael checkmated Allen's king.
6. Harry is swimming across the river. He is swimming on his back.
7. A child fell into the river. Her father dived into the water to save her.
8. What Kind of car have you got?

REFERENCES

- [1] Allen, V. F. (1983). *Techniques in teaching vocabulary*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- [2] Critchley, M. P. (1988). Reading to learn: Pedagogical implications of vocabulary research. *The Language Teacher*, 22(12), 15-19.
- [3] Granger, C. & Beaumont, D. (1987). *New generation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [4] Hunt, A., & Beglar, D. (2000). *Current research and practice in teaching vocabulary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [5] Khuwailah, A. A. (1995). Words and context in EFL. *Grazer Linguistics Student*, 44, 27-36.
- [6] Laufer, B., & Shmueli, K. (1997). Memorizing new words: Does teaching have anything to do with it? *RELIC JOURNAL*, 28(1), 89-106.
- [7] Lawson, M. J., & Hogben, D. (1996). The vocabulary- learning strategies of foreign- language students. *Language learning*, 46 (1), 101-135.
- [8] Oxford, R., & Crookall, D. (1990). Vocabulary learning: A critical analysis of techniques. *TESL Canada Journal*, 7(2), 9-30.
- [9] Qian, D. D. (1996). ESL vocabulary acquisition: Contextualization and decontextualization. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 53(1), 120- 142.
- [10] Read, J. (2000). *Assessing vocabulary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [11] Read, J. (2004). Research in teaching vocabulary. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 146-161.
- [12] Richards, J. G., & Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [13] Rivers, W. M. (1981). *Foreign language skills*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- [14] Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [15] Waring, R. (1995). *Second language vocabulary acquisition: Linguistic context and vocabulary task design*. Retrieved December 10, 2008 from <http://www.harenet.ne.jp/~warign/papers/BC.html>.

Kamal Heidari Soureshjani holds an M.A. in TEFL from Shiraz University. He has published papers in different journals including TPLS. He has also taught English courses and IELTS at different institutes in Shiraz and is presently the academic member of Islamic Azad University, Shahrekord Branch.

Culture Integration in Translating

Xiao Geng

Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China

Email: gxdonna@126.com

Abstract—Nowadays, with the development of the society, culture communication becomes more and more frequent. Different languages come into contact with each other. Since every language is a part of culture, it can not but serve and reflect culture needs. But culture also exerts a strong influence on language, especially in translation. When we translate, we should not only focus on the distinction between the foreign language and our mother tongue. We should also pay attention to the numerous features shared by the two languages. Not only differences exist in different languages, but also a great deal in common between them. Translation is affected by customs habits, history, etc. Culture plays an important part in translation. Culture should be integrated in translating.

Index Terms—culture, integration, translating

I. INTRODUCTION

It is a flat fact that cultural factors play a crucial role in the efficiency of human communication and that the importance of culture integration with foreign language translation has been realized by more and more people, especially by linguists and experts in the foreign language teaching world at home and abroad. And there have been, both in theory and practice, quite a number of findings or insights on this subject since 1990s, which is encouraging and significant. However, to our regret, there are some different views on this subject and there do exist such people who take English as a culturally neutral instrument or a purely linguistic code. A new model for the successful integration of culture into the foreign language teaching practice has not yet been constructed.

From my teaching experience and study on this subject I had come to realized that language and culture are inseparable and that the relationship between language and culture is dynamic rather than static. We Chinese must be aware that “the variety generally used for international communication is characterized by minimal use of metaphorical and idiomatic expressions, and neutralization of regional difference”(Saville-Traike,1982:105)At the same time, we should not pursue the possibility of finding a culture-free variety of English which can be used by English Speakers or non-English speakers for international communication. In other words, “A language might remain culture-free if its users were also outside any culture; but since it seems unlikely that such persons exist, we can say that in practice a language could be culture-free only if it remained unused, since once it was explain for communication between people it would inevitable be used in accordance with one or another set of culture norms.” English has never been culture-free, no matter whether it is used by scientists, by people in different English speaking countries or by people in Non-English speaking countries. English is indeed a rich source, providing information about cultures in many countries. Besides, learning and using English seems to be a process in which native culture and the culture to which English originally relates are brought tighter to interact. This interaction takes place both internally and externally.

Academic translating competence comprises attitudes, knowledge, skills, and strategies that enable one to produce right translation in accordance with the expectations of the academic discourse community. The translation of words and phrases is more difficult to master than article translation. Sometimes even a word and a phrase takes much time to establish in translation. Translation of words and phrase should obey thee translation criteria “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance.”(Luxun). These standards are useful to the translation.

But sometimes we cannot translate words and phrases only according to the above stands. There is one more important thing we should not neglect: culture influence upon the translation of words and phrases. There are several ways of translation, such as pure translation, pure semantic translation etc. Culture factor is an important part we should consider. So in the translating, culture should be integrated in translating.

II. CULTURE INFLUENCE UPON TRANSLATION IN PRACTICE

A. *The Same Words Have Different Meaning and the Different Words Have Same Meanings in Different Cultures.*

Since culture is a particular system of part, though, and customs of a society, the heated argument has been further extended to the relationship between language and culture. Indifferent cultures, the same word may have different meaning and different words may have the same meaning. So, in the course of translation, whether a translator’s understanding to a word or a phrase is right or not largely depends on his understanding to the future.

Examples as follows:

The word ancient has different meaning in different cultures Both Chinese and Europe have the word. But in China

we mean Qin and Han dynasties while in Europe they usually mean ancient Greece and Roman times. China and Europe have different history. "Ancient" means different periods in history. So that the reader can have the exact understanding.

B. *Unequivalence of English Original Works and Chinese Translation*

"Faithfulness" is the most important criterion for translation. Faithfulness also includes the keeping of the original work. But because of different cultures, English original works and Chinese translation cannot always be equivalent. In this case, we should avoid word-for-word translation.

We can translate the English metaphor "She is a fox" word by word, but we cannot translate "She is a cat" from the literal meaning. In many different cultures, including English and Chinese cultures, we often connect "fox" with "sly". This is the common trait in many different cultures. But it is not the outcome of Chinese culture to connect "cat" with "a woman with evil intent". Because the semantic meanings are not corresponding, the original work and translation cannot be entirely equivalent.

How to translate "pig" and "fig"? if we translate them respectively into "zhu" and "wuhuaguo", we will make the readers perplexed. "Zhu" has no connection with "wuhuaguo". So when we translate "fig", we can use a Chinese character "shu" which has the same rhyming word with "zhu". This keeps the flavor of the original work and there is no need to explain.

C. *English and Chinese—the Individual and Distinct System of Two Entirely Different Languages*

English and Chinese are two entirely different languages. Each has an individual and distinct system. There are lots of dissimilarities between them. Because of this, we have to be familiar with both the language and the different cultures.

(1) different meanings of "peasant" and "farmer"

Nowadays, we often translate "nongmin" into "peasant". In fact, "peasant" in modern English has a strong derogatory sense. In dictionary, the meaning of "peasant" is: a) one of a chiefly European class that tills the soil as small free landowners or hired labors b) a rascally person c) a rather uneducated, uncouth person in the low income group. Now people in the English speaking countries call people who work for agriculture farmers or farm workers. Farmer is a person who cultivates lands or crops or raises live stocks. Farmer is a proper name for our Chinese "nongmin", though "peasant" has been used for a long time by a number of Chinese people. A translator should not only translate the works but also impact the thought of people through translation and change their wrong ideas formed years ago.

(2) over-literal translation in "breakfast" and "white hands"

There are many words and phrases which we cannot translate over-literally. We must consider the culture factor. For example, there are two ways of translating the English word "breakfast". One is "the first meal of the day" which is an interpretation of the word in terms of its actual referent. And the over-literal way of translating it will result in "the meal which breaks a period of fasting". Though this looks much more faithful to the original meaning, it is surely misleading. The phrase "white hands" is "baishou" in Chinese if we use word-for-word translation. It means "start from scratch" or "build up from nothing". But in English "white hands" means "pure", "unsullied". When we say "He has white hands", we cannot understand this sentence as "His hand is white". In English it means "He is unstained".

(3) the translation of "restroom"

Take "restroom" for another example, we translate the word "rest" into "xiuxi" and "room" into "shi". So many people take it for granted that "rest-room" is "xiuxishi". But in English "rest-room" is a lavatory in a public building. Suppose a foreign teacher went into a Teacher's rest-room to get relieved. How disappointed and embarrassed he will be when he finds there is no toilet.

(4) misunderstanding of "wine" and "spirits"

Out Chinese people like to translate "baijiu" into "white wine". In China "baijiu" is distilled out of water. The ethyl alcohol degree is usually above 50. but in English white wine is brewed out of grapes. The ethyl alcohol degree is only about 15. "spirits" or "liquor" should be used to the liquid distilled and "wine" is general name for the liquid brewed out of grapes.

(5) disparity between cultures

There are more other translation of words and phrases influenced by culture. We use "huangseluxiang" while the American use "blue video". We use "hongyanbing" while they use "green-eyed monster". No translation can exist without culture. No translation can be separated from culture. Even though we say "shaitaiyan" in Chinese, no one of us will admit that we think that it is people who bathe the sun rather than the sun bathing people. The translation is affected by the way of thinking in the culture of different languages. There seems to exist some disparities between what people actually think and what is conveyed in the over-literal translation.

(6) necessary explanation in translation of "dragon"

Different cultures make it necessary for the translator to make some explanation after translation. For example, there are two ways of translating "wangzichenglong"⁸. One is "long to see one's son succeed in life. Another is "long to see one's son become a dragon (i.e. win success in the world)". The first is liberal translation and the second is literal translation with explanation. The explanation is necessary because dragon has different meanings in English and Chinese. In the Bible, dragon is the symbol of evil. It is formidable for Englishman and American. But for our Chinese

dragon is the symbol of emperor.

III. GLOBALIZATION AND RECOGNITION OF SOME TRANSLATION

A. *Loanwords and Globalization*

In the recent ten years, the contact between China and other countries become more and more frequent. More and more translation works appear in many fields, such as in economy, politics, trade and tourism. Culture communication is becoming more and more frequent. Different culture phenomenon is familiar to different people. There are some words and phrases being accepted by other cultures and popular in other cultures. Cases in point are qigong, kungfu, etc. These words have been accepted by English speaking countries. Some words like “CD”, “VCD”, “OK” and “E-mail” are used directly instead of being translated into Chinese.

B. *Recognition of Some Translation like “Telephone”*

In 1930s and 1950s, “telephone”, “laser” appeared. But at that time, people did not know what they were. As years passed, people know more about these things and change their names that were not right many years ago. The translator is intelligent to combine the euphony with the mellowness of the wine and hospitality of welcoming the guest. All these examples show the culture influence upon the translation of words and phrases.

IV. CONCLUSION

Learning a language is a kind of learning the culture and habit of the country where the language is spoken. Translation, we should learn the different cultures, including its tradition, habits, social customs, morals and so on. Culture exerts strong influence on language. In the translation of words and phrases, culture background is essential. A translator without understanding the culture cannot translate well. We should take the culture factor as an important part in translation and translate words and phrases according to the rules of translation so as to get rid of unreasonable translation.

REFERENCES

- [1] Guo Zhzhang, li Qingsheng. (1996). English and Chinese Translation. Wuhan: The Press of Wuhan University.
- [2] Hu Zhuanglin, Liu Runqing, Li Yanfu. (1988). The Language Teaching. Beijing: The Press of Beijing University
- [3] Lin Huangtian. (1988). Chinese Translation. Beijing: The Post Office of Beijing.
- [4] Silva, Tony, and Colleen Brice. (2004). Research: The Student's Guide to Writing Research Papers. New York: Pearson Education, 4th edn.
- [5] Vygotsky, Lev S. (1978). Mind in Society: the Development of Higher Psychological Processes. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- [6] Warschauer, Mark. (1997). 'Computer Mediated Collaborative Learning: Theory and Practice'. *The Modern Language Journal* 81: 470-81.
- [7] Weissberg, Robert, and Suzanne Buckner. (1990). Writing Up Research: Experimental Research Report Writing for Students of English (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall).

Xiao Geng was born in Weihai, China in 1970. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Qufu Normal University, China in 2004.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of science and Technology, Qingdao, China. Her research interests include teaching methods and the Second Language Acquisition.

Prof. Geng is a member of the Institute of Linguistic Study.

The Impossibility of Verifying Reality in Harold Pinter's *Old Times*

Noorbakhsh Hooti

English Department, Faculty of Arts, Razi University, Kermanshah, Iran

Email: nhooti@yahoo.com

Abstract—This study is an attempt to show the unreachable depth of reality in Pinter's *Old Times*. Pinterian dramatic dialogue proceeds deliberately through a serpentine terrain with scattered boulders of disturbing, menacing questions-without-answers, leading invariably to further awkward repetitions, pleonasms, non-squits, gaps and potholes of uneasy pauses and of heavily loaded silences. In *Old Times*, it has been brilliantly dramatized that the distinction between real and unreal or true and false can hardly be determined with certainty. What, therefore, Pinter projects is not an imitation of reality, but a theatrical extension of reality. Conversations that take place in a Pinter's play are quite different from those of real life. Pinterian actors require a specialized know-how for putting in exact theatrical expression to the sub-textual language. The study further tries to show that behind the expressed vocabulary, there looms large the unexpressed hidden territory. The characters must probe beneath the apparent, to get at the inner stream of images—horizontally, vertically, diagonally.

Index Terms—Old Times, reality, territory, Pinterian, study

I. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to illuminate the notion of Reality in Pinter's *Old Times* through the oscillating journey of the characters from past to present and vice versa, which seems vague and complicated. This journey is vividly introduced through the typical Pinterian dialogue.

Joseph and Roberts (2004) believe:

The most fundamental conviction for any form of realism is a belief in the independent existence of a real world. The particular way that critical realism understands this is through the distinction between transitive knowledge and the intransitive mind-independent objects that this knowledge is of. Our transitive knowledge is embodied in theories, practices, discourses and texts. Critical realism argues that this transitive knowledge is socially and historically located and engendered.(p.2)

Old Times is no less distinguished by pauses and silences that invest the Pinterian dialogue with strange ambiguous meaning. The play, underlining the subtle struggle for psychological power, steeped in an atmosphere which blends everyday reality with dream- images. The play also introduces an intruder, as do the earlier plays, who threatens the prevailing peaceful mode of life, and registers similar battle for territory for possession of an individual. Besides, the play has a strong undercurrent of sexual overtones. In *Old Times* Pinter's dialogue creates the appropriate dramatic tone which is new and poetically compelling. The shifting perspectives on the past, the inadequate grip characters have on truth and reality give rise to a threatening world in which the desire for verification, the need for all knowledge and genuine communication is necessarily frustrated. Through the dialogue *Old Times* divulges the malignant element usually hidden in human life, a common Pinter theme.

In *Old Times* Pinter shows us that a play in its broadest definition is a personal, direct impression of life. Its value is greater or lesser in accordance with the intensity of the impressions of the individuals. The playwright knows that physical performance expresses inner conflicts and resolution. He uses a theatre language capable of carrying forward these sense impressions. There is the colloquially based verbal game people play in their social interchanges. The dialogue of the three characters raises the question whether the characters tell lies to one another. Can they make the audience aware that they are lying? The answers may emanate out of the accentuation and intonation, giving a clue either of assertion or neutrality. The significant aspect of dramatic dialogue happens to be its latent heat or the various degree of suggestiveness. From this standpoint it may be said that Pinter's play is a dramatic text which defines its own context through its dialogue.

Old Times through its placid dramatic language gives us a deep sense that life escapes, a sense that Virginia Woolf wanted to convey: "Look within and life, it seems, is very far from the beginning of consciousness to the end" (Kettle, 1953, p. 91). *Old Times* is made as a picturesque tableau chiefly through its dialogue having multidimensional connotations.

Dialogue works through specially chosen words culled out, with an acute observation, from the mannerisms, repetitions and clichés of the English vernacular as spoken in real life. Between the characters of *Old Times* words are exchanged as potent weapons of dominance and subservience. Pauses and silences are awfully meaningful in the

literary sense. What resembles tape-recorded vocabulary is nevertheless, highly stylized. In *Old Times* (1981, henceforth *Pinter*) Pinter shows his total capability in approximating human reality with that artistic attempt to capture the given moment and set it above the uncertainties which time brings all the way through its passage:

Anna: Why don't you try her yourself?

Deeley: Would you recommend that?

Anna: You'd do it properly.

Deeley: In her bath towel?

Anna: How out?

Deeley: How out?

Anna: How could you dry her out? Out of her bath towel?

Deeley: I don't know.

Anna: Well, dry her yourself, in her bath towel.

(Pause) (pp. 50-51)

Old Times has a very satisfying shape, structure and an overall dramatic unity, all of which are of a very different kind from those of the conventional plays. The play is basically a series of conversation between three characters, Anna, Kate, Deeley, who form a clear love triangle. Their dialogue, woven mostly around the episode of the past, attempts to define the nature of the relationship which existed and gradually came to stay in between them. Their conversation in bits and pieces leads to an awareness of the distance by which they have been alienated. Bryden, the reviewer of the first night of *Old Times*, comments pertinently on the dialogue by referring to "the value of each word and silence which exposes every layer of the text like the person of a three-dimensional chess-board" (Bryden, 1971, p. 179).

An audience with an ear for Pinter's dialogue recognizes the territory upon which *Old Times* stands. The complex rhythm of the dialogue strikes the note of a conflict for dominance and possession. The combat ground indeed is Kate; the two contenders to possess her are Anna, her one-time room-mate and only friend, and Deeley, her husband. The ammunition used in the skirmish is indeed dramatic dialogue. Language of innuendo and ambiguous menace abounds in the play. As in "The Homecoming", the winner here will be the one who would ultimately impose his or her language upon the other in getting the upper hand.

In *The Homecoming* Ruth and Lenny exchange blows; in *Old Times* it is between Anna and Deeley that blow follows blow and parry in terms of the skilled game of lingual gambits and manoeuvres. Whereas Deeley, Kate's husband, wields crude power with Kate under his physical control, Anna has a patient finesse, the authority of money and culture, a cold determination. Kate's vague, smiling passivity appears to be on Anna's side. The dialogue of the play "participates in the new Pinter world of maximum compression and austere poetry first heard in *Landscape and Silence*" (Baker and Tabachnick, 1973, p. 137).

The dramatic action of *Old Times* takes place in a converted country frame house of Deeley and his wife Kate, who are waiting the arrival from Sicily in Italy of Kate's old friend Anna whom Kate has not seen for the last twenty years. Her arrival subtly menaces the marriage of Kate as she tries calculatedly to recreate her very close friendship with Kate, which Deeley has got into as an intruder by marrying Kate. Anna enters the secluded household of Deeley and Kate to struggle for a position of dominance. It recurs with an insidious force superbly manifested through the masterly fashioned dialogue with verbal variations cut out for the individual characters:

Deeley: Yes, I remember you quite clearly from *The Wayfarers*.

Anna: The what?

Deeley: The Wayfarers Tavern, just off the Brompton road.

Anna: When was that?

Deeley: Years ago.

Anna: I don't think so.

Deeley: Oh yes, it was you, no question. I never forget a face. (Pinter, pp. 44-45).

The combat for territory between Deeley and Anna for the possession of Kate with all her individuality emerges gradually from their glib conversation and soon explodes into the uncomfortable, rather surrealist, memories of the past. *Old Times* upholds the usual male-female scuffle found in Pinter's world and endemic to human race as well. Deeley, a successful, widely travelled film maker, uses masculine power and blunt coarseness to encounter Anna's indirect and sly attack. The dramatic dialogue in *Old Times* weaves the pattern of attack and defence in which all the three characters are locked.

Old Times deals with the element of time, space and the related concept of memory of the dim distant past. The play attempts to capture the past, to co-relate eternal time with spatial time and to recreate the effect of the past on the present through memory lane. Its dialogue relates to the past of all the three characters, and is broken up by extended stories which in their turn relate again to the past with reference to space in time. Almansi and Henderson aptly comment that, "the characters in *Old Times* enter a sort of time-machine" (1983, p. 91). Kate confronts her girl friend Anna from the hazy past, and thereupon hidden and shelved memories start spilling out once again though it is difficult to ascertain the truth.

A close examination of the dramatic dialogue reveals that there is a strong undercurrent of suggestion that Kate and Anna could well have been involved in a lesbian relationship. It is also suggested that there could have been a close touch

between Anna and Deeley in the past. Gradually, as the play unfolds its net, Deeley the single man of the triangle is left with a sense of separation from both women. Their conversation shows that Pinter, being quite intent on mystification, withholds essential information. In this context, Nightingale's observation is quite relevant: "Most playwrights' reputations depend on what they reveal about their characters; one has left that his (Pinter's) depends on what he (Pinter) does not reveal" (1982, p. 180).

Old Times begins imaginatively with a strong visual metaphor that evokes the central theme of the play. The strange, paradoxical, almost invisible backstage presence of Anna, who is actually being awaited by the couple as an expected guest, behind the two on-stage characters Deeley and Kate, and the triangle of the characters thus formed gives out an instant symbolic meaning. It is thus the past exists in the present through memory, and as such past is capable of exercising palpable and potential impact on the present. This visual metaphor having introduced us to the Pinter's territory of Old Times' dramatic dialogue steadily pursues the theme that has been explored all through the action of the play. So the past is already gathered into the present through the shadowy figure of Anna silhouetted against the window. At the given moment Anna comes forward the dimly lit backstage area into the middle of the conversation going on between Deeley and Kate. Anna's sudden surfacing is an excellent example of Pinter's effective theatre. Though Anna was physically present on the stage, the dramatist alerts the audience to her presence only at the cross-section when the present meets the past, and Anna step into the limelight to make both Kate and Deeley aware of herself.

II. ARGUMENT

Old Times reflects Pinter's concern with poetic, cosmic truths. It is concerned with the basic human condition rather than with mere factual details about people. Such details, being highly relative in nature, can never be really trusted. As Pinter observes.

I suggest there can be no hard distinctions between what is real and what is unreal, nor between what is true and what is false. A thing is not necessarily either true or false; it can be both true and false (1986, p. 11).

According to Lowe (2006):

If we are to talk about truth, we must make some decisions about the nature of truth-bearers. But we needn't be monistic about truth-bearers: we needn't maintain that all truth-bearers belong to a single, unified ontological category. We can be pluralistic and allow that, in their own ways, such diverse entities as sentences, beliefs, and propositions may qualify as truth-bearers. But isn't there then a danger of truth itself being fragmented—a danger that we shall have to operate with different conceptions of truth when speaking of the various different kinds of truth-bearer? Not necessarily, so long as we can maintain that one kind of truth-bearer has primacy: that there are 'primary' as well as 'secondary' truth-bearers. For then we can regard truth in the primary sense as a property of the primary truth-bearers and define truth in various secondary senses in terms of primary truth. For instance, we can say that truth in the primary sense is truth of a proposition and define the truth of a sentence as the truth of the proposition that it expresses and the truth of a belief as the truth of the proposition that constitutes its intentional content. (p. 178)

This is what we may term as Pinter's poetic quest for the essence as against superficial factual particularities of mundane events. He has used poetic techniques along with cognate phrases and has put maximum pressure on every word. He tends to be poetic in the deeper sense. No specific and vivid literal meaning can be abstracted from his plays, such as Old Times. How the full effect of Pinter's dramatic dialogue is absorbed in the theatre is clearly stated by the first night reviewer. He refers to the important moments which become dramatically relevant and meaningful on the stage: "Do you drink brandy? Asks Deeley. Vivien Merchant's pause before replying that she would love some is just sufficient to remind you that on Pinter territory, every question is an attempt to control and every answer a swift evasion" (Bryden, 1971, p. 27).

Pinter's mistrusts what is often naively taken for granted as a true confession of past actions, events or motives. Anna's words to Deeley confirm this mistrust: "There are some things one remembers even though they may never have happened" (Pinter, pp. 27-28). What Anna says to Deeley finds a close parallel in Pinter's monologue: "You often act as if the Balls pond Road and the lovely ebony lady never existed, as if the rain in the light on the pavements in the twilight never existed, as if our sporting and intellectual life never was" (p. 273).

Whatever the playwrights of the conventional realistic plays wish to convey, is conveyed through words which do not normally have any sub-textual undercurrent. In Pinter, however, the sub-text is of utmost importance, for he believes: "language...is a highly ambiguous business. So often, below the words spoken, is the thing known and unspoken" (Pinter, 1986, p. 13). The dialogue of Old Times shows that the playwright exploits fully the ambiguities and deceptions inherent in spoken language, and thereby achieves his own kind of realistic effect. Between Pinter's "lack of biographical data [about his characters, Deeley, Kate and Anna]...and the ambiguity of what they say lies a territory which is not only worthy of exploration but which is compulsory to explore" (p. 13).

Pinter uses words "meticulously and with constant awareness of the other language that can be locked underneath the spoken words" (Brown, 1972, p. 51). This is a remarkable exercise in Old Times in the light of this awareness of the other language kept crucially confined beneath the words Deeley, Anna or Kate use. It is, therefore, interesting to see how Pinter's dramatic dialogue in Old Times serves the purpose of explaining the submerged ground behind

Pinter's characters for whom truth is a variable, intangible thing. The vital issue for Pinter is the unverifiability of the past.

In a Pinter play there has always been a fundamental concern for the visualization of characters on the stage. Their gestures and movements greatly add to the significance of the dramatic dialogue between them. As Pinter observes:

What is so different about the stage is that you're just there, stuck, there are your characters stuck on the stage, you've got to live with them and deal with them... I find myself stuck with these characters who are either sitting or standing' (Bensky, 1972, pp. 22-23).

The dialogue at Anna's first appearance well serves its purpose:

Queuing all night, the rain, do you remember?...the Albert Hall, Convent Garden, what did we eat? To look, half the night, to do things we loved...to work in the morning, and to a concert, or the opera, or the ballet, that night, you haven't forgotten? And then riding on top of the bus... and the bus conductors, and then dashing for the matches' for the gas fire and then I suppose scrambled eggs, or did we? Who cooked? Both giggling and chattering, both huddling to the heat, then bed and sleeping, and all the hustle and bustle in the morning, rushing for the bus again for work...innocent girls, innocent secretaries, and then the night to come, and goodness knows what excitement in store, I mean the sheer expectation of it all, the looking-forwardness of it all, and so poor, but to be poor and young, and a girl, in London then...and the cafes we found, almost private ones, weren't they?...and does it still exist I wonder? Do you know? Can you tell me? (Pinter, pp. 13-14).

Anna is reconstructing the past by reminiscing about the past episodes of her living together with Kate in London as working girls decades ago. By doing so she provokes Kate to remember things, to dig up the memories of Kate's past from oblivion. The passage has nine notes of interrogation and not a single period. This characteristic of the dialogue signifies the impetuosity of Anna's verbally-manipulated provocation. The tension is well discerned and implies that the menace of the past is to run its course through the action of the play, and that by stirring the skeletons in the cupboard Anna shall exercise considerable influence over the present. The patterning of the dialogue, as Almansi and Henserson rightly point out, 'has the effect of diachronic time, since, from the outset, past and present are both manifest on the stage simultaneously, though with a different status (light versus dark; centre of the room versus windows; foreground versus background)' (1983, p. 86).

Anna's dialogue at once establishes by its perceptibility whining overtone that it is dealing subtly with the synchronic. It seeks to describe the existing events, as against the diachronic or historical aspect of time. To elaborate this in proper perspective it may be said that for Kate, Anna represents a U-turn to past with emotional strings attached.

Anna refers to some very particular moments in the time-pocket as they did exist. Footfalls of those moments echo still in the memory. Kate's husband Deeley represents the immediate present with all its here-now-now appeal. As such *Old Times* does not expand the idea of the historical flux of time. In this play Pinter has put the space of the past as against the space of the present.

As the action of the play unfolds itself systematically through the dialogue which the three characters exchange between them, we find that Anna, Kate and Deeley too start delving, not mere nostalgically, but with some cautious moves, into the past by way of recollecting choicest episodes. As it gradually transpires, the audience discover that Deeley also knew both Anna and Kate as and when they lived and moved and shared an apartment house together in London of that time. Deeley says to Anna, 'I wish I had known you both then' (Pinter, p. 16). This is cunningly ambiguous and false in view of his, Thompson rightly says that Pinter 'exploits to the full the ambiguities and deceits inherent in spoken language and achieves his own kind of realistic effect' (1985, p. 42). After a while the dialogue between Deeley and Anna about having met at the Wayfarers is noteworthy. The remembrances and references to past events by Anna and Deeley register their battle for gaining ground, or in other words a struggle for territory, and the territory is no other than Kate's body and mind. Pinter's dialogue engages the words in combat to set the dramatic pattern of intensification which underlines the Pinterian theatre. Ionesco advocated this intensification, having repudiated the descriptive well-made play:

A play does not consist in the description of the development of ...a story...a play is a structure that consists of a series of states of consciousness, or situations which become intensified, grow more and more dense, then get entangled (1960, p. 231).

The dialogue between Deeley and Anna is serving this dramatic purpose as each measured utterance of both Deeley and Anna tends to intensify the action and to find means of expression beyond language. This may be said to be a battle between time past represented by Anna and time present represented by Deeley.

It has been contended, 'in Pinter, unlike in T.S. Eliot, there is no time future contained in the past,' and also that 'the characters... are cut off from their future by their unchristian despair' (Almansi and Henderson, 1983, p. 86). It is difficult to agree. In *Old Times*, we find that for Kate time past did contain time future in the sense that she will have a background movement to turn to merge her future with her past in the surrealist way, synthesizing the workings of her subconscious mind with the conscious one. On the other hand, the characters can hardly be said to be cut off from their future by their unchristian, non-religious despair. The dialogue with all its sub-textual pull establishes no much ennui or despair of life on the part of the trio, since they are not expressing ideas in terms of any realistic logicity. As regards Kate and Anna, no plausible despair may be traced. For Deeley it is defeat in retrieving and retaining Kate in the present with him. His is the abstention from movement. Gale observes that, 'in *Old Times* Pinter has given us the

dramatization of the famous opening lines of T.S. Eliot *Four Quarters: Time present and time past*” (1977, p. 188). It may, however, be pointed out that *Old Times* is not just the dramatization of these opening lines, but rather of the whole of *Burnt Norton* in which Eliot deals with the psyche of the unredemnable time, arriving at the realization. Only through time, time is conquered. In *Old Times* Pinter also deals with the same psyche of time as all the three characters appear to be caught in the form of limitation between un-being and being. This makes Hayman comment, “perhaps Pinter owes more to T.S. Eliot than has been recognized” (1968, p. 45). Accordingly, much of the theatrical impact of *Old Times* is due to the suspense in trying to get at what really happened in the past and what sort of relationship existed between Anna, Kate and Deeley. Pinter expresses his view thus:

We don’t carry labels on our chests, and even though they are continually fixed to us by others, they convince nobody. The desire for verification of the part of all of us, with regard to our own experience and the experience of others is understandable but cannot always be satisfied (1986, p. 11).

Old Times demonstrates through its dialogue that the search for the final truth about a character is likely to be an unfinished quest. Dialogue in the play fulfils a two-fold function: communicating the truth of the past, and the dramatic tension produced by the conflicting involvement of the three characters.

The entire dramatic dialogue of *Old Times* suggests that one can never be absolutely sure about the existence of the past in terms as one recapitulates it. The play is dominated by the past, being reminiscent of L.P. Hartley’s novel *The Go-Between* (1953) for which Pinter wrote the screenplay in January 1969. Its first line reads: “the past is a foreign country. They do things differently there”. It is significant that Pinter also wrote another screenplay in 1972—*Remembrances of Things Past*—for Proust’s epic novel *A la Recherche du Temps Perdu*. These two novels deal with the atmosphere of the past almost in the same manner as *Old Times*. Along with Proust and Hartley, Pinter concerns himself with mutability and the big question as to what past means to us. Pinter’s concern has been distinctly manifested through the verbal idioms he has used in the play.

The past is no longer within reach, it has vanished into eternity for ever, only the memories remain. Memories are seldom any accurate recordings of the past, nor can they ever be regarded as an authentic photocopy or negative print of any past happening. Memories, more often than not, redefine the past—man having acutely undergone various stages of transformation along with the inexorable passage of time. As such, over and above the phenomena situation that forgetfulness is a condition of mind, one either distorts the past to hide or avoid what is uncomfortable or threatening; or, one re-creates an altogether imaginary or unsubstantial past in order to satisfy one’s temporal psycho-moral needs.

It has been rightly said, “in Pinter words are...barbs to protect the weird enclosure of the self” (Almansi and Henderson, 1983, p. 12). Pinter himself strongly adheres to the idea, “the speech we hear is an indication of that which we don’t hear. It is a necessary avoidance, a violent, sly, anguished or mocking smokescreen...that what takes place is a continual evasion, desperate re-argued attempts to keep ourselves to ourselves” (Pinter, 1986, pp. 14-16). In *Old Times* what Anna says is in tune with this statement of Pinter: “There are some things one remembers even though they may never have happened. There are things I remember which may never have happened but as I recall them o they take place” (pp. 27-28). As the characters themselves are not sure of what has exactly happened in their past, the audience or readers to whom important information is being communicated through dialogue between these characters, are left in a state of uncertainty. However, the response of the audience to the play also centres round the synthesis of the bits and pieces of information it has been provided with by the dialogue exchanged by the dramatic persons so as to establish certain realities about the past.

Dramatic dialogue in *Old Times* spells out the imprecise, unexplainable, unknown and unremembered or less remembered past in a context that does not prompt audience or readers to ask what really happened but rather to understand and feel that certain matters do remain imprecise, inexplicable, unknown and unremembered in the life of a person in this world. Kate and Anna make guesses about their past; either they remember or try to remember it. However, the accuracy of the remembrance does not dramatically matter. What matters is what happens. Kate, Anna, and Deeley are required to try to ascertain the truth which in a Pinter play remains ambiguous, undetermined, distorted and untrue. In this context, it has been pertinently observed:

the only thing we know about Pinter’s characters is that they find communication not only difficult but terrifying... they continually try to evade the pitfalls of human intercourse, frequently resorting to a sort of bobbing and weaving in the face of all direct contact (Almansi and Henderson, 1983, p. 24).

So the characters do not like to come out of the maze of the past, as it happens in *Old Times*.

The tales remembered by the characters, one by Deeley and another by Anna, are of prime importance in creating the menace of the past palpably. These two reminiscences project the sharp angle of menace that has caused Kate to subdue her memories of her old and only friend, Anna. The information accruing from these memories suggests overtly that Anna and Kate have had a lesbian relation between them in the past. The dialogue involving Anna at many points in the play hints at this lesbian relationship. But there is no explicit dialogue refers to this possibility in more than one way.

Through his dramatic dialogue Pinter drops hints which can turn out to be clues in the mystery. Nevertheless, the trail of evidence ends in smoke without ever leading to any solution. Pinter knows how to bring his dialogue under control, making it mean exactly what he alone wishes it to mean or imply or insinuate. This is when Pinter’s drama reaches the point where the horizontal axis of content intersects the axis of form. As Styron significantly points out, “the playwright

knows that in the theatre he has our ears, and much of his appeal rests upon the feeling he wants us to hear in the voices of his actors, as distinct from the meaning of their words" (1985, p. 38).

Indeed, Pinter who is a consummate theatre personality as an actor, screenplay writer, director, knows that in the voice of the actors he has a most flexible instrument perfectly capable of communicating the sense. Bold aptly observes, "the rich verbal texture of Pinter's theatrical routine is inspired...by the experience of spending long hours in rehearsal where every utterance is under scrutiny and has to be delivered with dramatic impact" (1984, pp. 8-9). Character-actors accept the text as a theatrical challenge which they undertake to translate into vocal terms. When we read or listen to the dialogue of *Old Times*, we feel that it is not the words alone which make the play, but the vivid dramatic impressions which the words are capable of creating. Hall pertinently remarks, "There is a communication in the theatre which is beyond words, and which is actually concerned with direct feeling" (1986, p. 47). In *Old Times* the entire dialogue is feeling-oriented revolving round Deeley, Kate and the intruder, Anna.

Deeley is quite sensitive to Anna's innuendos and gets disturbed over her conscious attempt to shirk an avowal or a denial that she and Kate had been lovers. Consequently, as shown by the dramatic dialogue, he makes constant effort to extract some conclusive tell-tale information from her. As an example we may cite the following dialogue:

Anna: No one who lived here would want to go far, I would be afraid of going far, lest when I returned the house would be

Deeley: Lest?

Anna: What?

Deeley: The word lest. Haven't heard it for a long time [pause] (Pinter, p. 15).

The word "lest" used by Anna appears to have an indirect implication of a lesbian attachment, and its almost anagrammatized sound at once hits Deeley where it hurts. In the following dialogue the same thing happens again:

Anna: we used to plat them...late at night, lying on the floor....Sometimes I would look at her face, but she was quite unaware of my gaze.

Deeley: Gaze?

Anna: What?

Deeley: The word gaze. Don't hear it very often. (p. 15)

Again, the word "gaze" seems to have a homophonal association with the word "gay" which stands for homosexuality. On both these occasions, Deeley wants Anna to explain why she has chosen these particular words, which are for him rather awkwardly meaningful.

What strikes an attentive audience or reader is that Anna always makes use of her fig-leaf statements so much so that Deeley's suspense never ends, nor that of the audience. We do not learn unambiguously whether there had been any sexual tie between these two mysterious female characters. What the playwright himself has said in this context is noteworthy:

My characters tell me so much and no more, with reference to their experience, their aspirations, their motives, their history. Between my lack of biographical data about them and the ambiguity of what they say lies a territory...which it is compulsory to explore (1986, p. 13).

Before Pinter and other writers of the absurdist plays, what a character said on the stage was true for our purpose, unless we were given specific reasons for distrusting his words. Pinter, an absurdist playwright, rejects this convention of the well-made play. His characters are shot through with a very palpable indefiniteness. The impossibility of verifying reality becomes not only a source of dramatic suspense created and maintained through dramatic deliberately withholds information for which the audience craves, following his own theory, "The desire for verification is understandable, but cannot always be satisfied" (p. 11), the view may seem related to a metaphysical vision of the unity of opposites. But when Pinter elaborates that there are no hard distinctions between what is real and what is unreal, he is only saying that events reach us through our unreliable sense impressions.

The dialogue in Pinter's plays gives rise to uncertainties, doubts and contradictions. It shows that the ordinary and the realistic are inextricably intertwined with the irrational and the absurd. Esslin has underlined this subtlety with which a Pinter play works by pointing out that a Pinter audience gets confronted by the "images of the real world which are raised to metaphors of the human condition by a mysteriousness inherent in reality and the difficulties of drawing a line between the real, the imagined and the dream" (1986, p. 183).

III. CONCLUSION

In *Old Times* the dialogue is encased in a firm and stable monologic framework. It is established through verbal interactions between all the three characters that the reality of the past fades, and memory transforms real events into shadowy remnants of insubstantial experience. Pinter's dialogue quite deftly shows how contradictory are the lies which we tend to accept. Also by using a folded inconvoluted language pattern Pinter wants to make the meaning theatrically more luminous by provoking the audience to work out the implications so that it can recreate the meaning by carefully following the verbal exchanges. The characters in this play say nothing explicitly. Pinter finds people enigmatic, and his presentation of them, as an absurdist, remains an enigma. All the meanings of the play must be guessed only with the help of the clues which the dialogue provides. The dialogue requires the audience to read between the lines and grasps the meaning intuitively at the connotational level. Through the verbal exchanges between Anna, Kate and Deeley, Pinter

has endeavoured to expose the lies which the audience believe to be the truth. Thus, it can be concluded that Pinter's dialogical design is woven around the reality he himself has experienced. Dialogic course of Pinter's drama moves towards man's subconscious mechanism, and helps in a subtle way to examine human relationships from diversified angles. His dialogue rejects the stereotype, and effectively raises doubt about the language of alienation and obfuscation. It underlines a subconscious reality behind the façade and the mask. Pinter's dialogue design carefully works at, constantly refers to, and effectively mirrors the submerged level of human consciousness.

REFERENCES

- [1] Almanshi, G. & Henderson, S. (1983). *Harold Pinter: contemporary Writers Series*. London: Methuen.
- [2] Barker, W. & Tabachnick, S. T. (1973). *Harold Pinter*. Edinburgh: Oliver and Boyd.
- [3] Bensky, L. M. (1972). *Harold Pinter. An Interview, Pinter: A Collection of Critical Essays*, ed: Arthur Ganz. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- [4] Bold, A. Ed. (1984, RPT. 1986) *Harold Pinter. You Never Heard Such a Silence*. London: Vision and Barnes and Noble.
- [5] Brown, J. R. (1972). *Theatre Language*. London: Penguin.
- [6] Bryden, R. (1971). *Pinter's New Pacemaker*, *The Observer*, June 6, 1971. Qtd. *Plays in Review 1956-1980*, ed. Gareth and Barbara.
- [7] Lloyd Evans. (1985). *British Drama and the Critics*. London: Bastford Academic and Educational.
- [8] Esslin, M. (1986). *A Comparison to Post-War British Theatre*. London: Croom Helm.
- [9] Gale, S. H. (1977). *Butter's Going Up: A Critical Analysis of Harold Pinter's Work*. Durham, N.C: Duke University Press.
- [10] Hall, P. (1986). *Directing Pinter. Harold Pinter: A Selection of Critical Essays*, ed. Michael Scott. London: Macmillan.
- [11] Hayman, R. (1968). *Harold Pinter*. London: Heinmann.
- [12] Joseph, J and Roberts, J, M, edition. (2004). *Realism Discourse and Deconstruction*. London: Routledge.
- [13] Ionesco, E. (1960). "Pages de journal," *Nouvelle Revue Francaise*, Feb. 1960, p.231.
- [14] Lowe. E.J. (2006). *The Four-Category Ontology: A Metaphysical Foundation for Natural Science*. Oxford: oxford university press.
- [15] Kettle, A. (1953). *An Introduction to the English Novel*. London: Hutchingson.
- [16] Nightingale, B. (1982). *An Introduction to Fifty Modern British Plays*. London: Pan.
- [17] Pinter, H. (1986). *Writing for the Theatre, a speech made by Pinter at the National School of Drama festival in Bristol in 1962*. *Pinter Plays*: London: Methuen, p.11.
- [18] Pinter, H. (1981). *Plays: One, Two, Three and Four*. London: Methuen.
- [19] Stayan, J.L. (1985). *The Dramatic Experience*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [20] Thompson, D. T. (1985). *The Players' Playwright*. London: Macmillan.

Noorbakhsh Hooti is currently an Assistant Professor of English Language and Literature at Kermanshah Razi University, Iran. He is a member of the research committee of the College of Humanities and Literature, Razi University. His main interests of research are drama, Short Story and Novel. He has been engaged in teaching English language and Literature for more than fifteen years. He holds Ph. D. in English Language and Literature, M. A. in English Language and Literature, and B.A in English Language and Literature. He has published a number of books, Research Projects, and articles in his areas of interest in academic journals.

Jazz Chants in English Language Teaching*

Jin Zhang
Chuzhou University, Chuzhou, China
Email: angelica_zj@yahoo.com.cn

Abstract—In this paper, we introduce the theoretical background of Jazz Chants and its definition, and then discuss the application of Jazz Chants in English Language Teaching, esp. the methods, including the definition of Jazz Chants, the methods which could be applied in the teaching, how to teach different chants to the students in different ages, and its effects in language acquisition.

Index Terms—Jazz chants, English language teaching, content-based instruction, rhythm, SLA

I. CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has become the umbrella term describing both learning another (content) subject such as physics or geography through the medium of a foreign language and learning a foreign language by studying a content-based subject. In ELT, forms of CLIL have previously been known as Content-based instruction, English across the curriculum' and Bilingual education. These cross-curricular teaching methods could be in my opinion easily applied also to learning English through Music and vice versa learning Music through English which will be clear from the practical part of this work.

CLIL helps to: Introduce the wider cultural context; Prepare for internationalization Access International Certification and enhance the school profile; Improve overall and specific language competence; Prepare for future studies or working life Develop multilingual interests and attitudes; Diversify methods & forms of classroom teaching and learning; Increase learner motivation.

In the old course books there was paid very little attention to such additional materials like songs. Only now and then learners could find some largely known songs such as Jingle Bells or Oh, Christmas Tree.

Nowadays the situation with the textbooks is better although in my opinion not as good as it could be. There are songs usually connected to some special events or holidays (Christmas, Easter, and Valentine's Day) included in the books but children are often eager to sing and they cannot repeat the same song over and over all the time. Therefore there is a considerable need for more singing material in the English course books.

II. MUSIC IN ENGLISH LESSONS

Learning English as a foreign language is supported by Krashen's hypotheses as well. According to the first one, listening to songs along with the usage of pictures, photos or gestures is conformable to orally-read stories supported by different visual materials, which finally in both cases leads to language acquisition. In accordance with the second hypothesis, the Affective Filter hypothesis, the extent to which linguistic input is received from the environment depends mostly upon the learner's inner feelings and attitude. It means that if a learner is unmotivated or has little confidence, language acquisition will be limited and therefore the teacher must provide an environment with positive emotions. Music creates exactly this needed situation. Furthermore, it develops a sense of community and all that together brings about language acquisition.

There are many different types of music and teachers have to choose carefully the songs they want to use for their target group of children. What should be taken into consideration is mainly age of students, their level of English and interests.

As to the learners' age, the youngest children usually appreciate simple songs with many repetitions which are full of concrete nouns and verbs being easy to imagine and close to their range of vocabulary in their mother tongue. They like to see pictures or some objects while singing the songs, mainly during the learning stage, and they often love songs with possible movements (Head and Shoulders). The song lyrics for kindergarten and lower primary learners should have simple pronunciation and children should be able to acquire them quickly and naturally. Songs for older and more advanced students could be of course more difficult in pronunciation and the type of vocabulary but here very close attention must be paid to pupils' interests because if a chosen song is too childish or on the other hand too difficult as to its vocabulary, grammar structures or to its content, learners can feel ridiculous or confused and that would probably lead to motivation decrease and some kind of a lock up in their further learning.

III. JAZZ CHANTS

* The paper is supported by Chuzhou University, and the teaching research project ID is 2008jy013.

Carolyn Graham claims (2006) Jazz Chant is a rhythmic expression of natural language which links the rhythms of spoken American English to the rhythms of traditional American jazz. The rhythms, stress and intonation pattern of the chant should be an exact replica of what the student would hear from an educated native speaker in natural conversation.

Carolyn Graham discovered Jazz Chants only by accident while playing the piano in one bar. Her friend came to her said several words in which she could feel exactly the music beat she was playing. That way she found the connection between traditional American jazz and spoken American English.

The music for chants is often taken from some traditional English songs so the children can concentrate on the words and rhythm more because they already know the melody from the original songs, for instance melodies from *Twinkle, Twinkle Little Star* or *Are You Sleeping*. (Graham, 2006)

There are many types of Jazz Chants depending on what the teacher wants to practice. They can be divided into two main groups: topic Jazz Chants and grammar/structure Jazz Chants. The topic Jazz Chants are always connected to some specific theme such as holidays, family, nature, seasons, animals, food, transport, health, occupations, hobbies, days of the week etc., whereas the role of grammar/structure Jazz Chants is to teach or practise some English grammar or structure such as: different verbs, prepositions, tenses, questions, answers, imperatives, structures like *there is/are*, *to be going to*, or for example pronouns.

There is one more group and that is when the two mentioned types are combined together but that could be done by teachers themselves too and it does not have to be a specific Jazz Chant.

There are many methods how to use the chants for teaching English as a foreign language and probably one of the best ones is suggested by Carolyn Graham in her books with Jazz Chants.

A. *Method by Carolyn Graham*

STEP 1: Preview: Talking about the title of the chant, what the students think it is about, explain connection to cultural context. With young learners using about their mother tongue, with older ones simple English can be used. STEP 2: Listen: Familiarizing students with the chant, singing it or playing on a CD player, stressing the rhythm of the chant by using different rhythmic instruments (drums, tambourines or just hands, pencils or feet); STEP 3: Choral chanting: Students open their books or teacher writes the text of the chant on the blackboard so they can read it and repeat it after the teacher or recording. If the students have some difficulty to pronounce individual words or phrases, teacher can isolate them from the rest of the text and practice it with learners only with some small chunk of the text. STEP 4: Group/ individual chanting: First of all students try the chant as a whole class, then the teacher can divide them into several groups in order to practice different parts of it (for example questions and answers). Students can also pantomime or act the chants out while singing. Then children may get into pairs and sing and chants for the class in turns. After the students know the chants by heart an excellent method how to acquire naturally the language is to personalize it. This could be done in many ways. For instance substitutions (names, places, pronouns) and along with the substitution changing grammar structures (the 1st person changed into the 3rd person). Another possible method is role playing or moving the chant language into situational context. Finally, the teacher can create variety of exercises which would follow what the students have learned. (Graham, 2001)

B. *Why to Use Jazz Chants*

Jazz Chants considerably improve students' listening and speaking skills. This is probably the most important point. They practice stress and rhythm, are highly motivating and encourage role playing and pair activities. They strengthen language structures and the ability to speak every day spoken English. Chants are simple, provide the language children really use and are repetitive, which, mainly in case of very young learners, is quite necessary. They are suitable for all ages, teachers must only choose the right accompanying activities. They help students to remember difficult words or phrases. And last but not least, children are themselves while singing, clapping or shouting. (Loutfi, n.d.)

C. *Who to Use Jazz Chants with*

Chants are suitable for all students no matter what age they are and what level of English, learning strategies, intelligence, interests or learning problems they have. However, in my opinion, chant activities are best for children with some kind of disabilities whether they are learning, behavioural or health.

In case of the learning disabilities (dyslexia, dysgraphia, disorthographia) it could be a good way how to make them remember and understand for example vocabulary, which is usually the biggest problem together with pronunciation and rhythm of the English language and spelling. Regarding students with behavioural problems, here I would consider it as a solution because with all that clapping, jumping, hitting things and singing and often also creating objects they do not have time to be disturbing. And if a teacher has in his or her class some integrated students (for example sightless or physically or mentally handicapped) he or she can use chants to lead them in and to incorporate them into the class.

D. *Teachers and Learners can Make Their Own Jazz Chants*

Very motivating and interesting method is making teachers' or students' own chants. Here the process would be as follows: try several "ready-made" chants and use several different methods while working with them: take a text of some chant and try to adjust it according to your own imagination; try some methods on the adjusted chant and see if

others like it; think of an area (vocabulary, grammar, set expressions...) for which you would like to make your chant and then write something short and simple and rhythmical; read it to others and see if they like it and if it is easy for them to follow you in vocabulary and rhythm; if yes, you can start working with your new chant using any method and activity you like; **DO NOT FORGET TO RECORD YOUR WORK SOMEHOW** (write it into your exercise book, record it on a tape; for teachers: you can make a file with students' chants and use it for your portfolio.

IV. CONCLUSION

The aim of my work was to stress the importance of different additional materials such as Jazz Chants and other chant related activities in English lessons mainly with very young and young students.

Listening and speaking are probably the most important skills a person needs to be able to communicate and also the first ones to be acquired either in learning the mother tongue or any foreign language. In order to reach a reasonable level of those competences it is very important to use variety of methods and some of the most suitable ones are chanting and singing. In my thesis I also stressed the significance of the Krashen's hypothesis about singing and listening to songs for foreign language acquiring and connection of Jazz Chants to CLIL, which is being highlighted these days in the new school programs.

Music, rhyming and chanting combine two necessary phenomena for learning a language: the system of language and pleasure. This does not apply only to foreign languages but also to the mother tongues. Children must enjoy learning and through chants it is not only possible but even highly likely. Here I would stress the role of motivation as well. Students, excepting only some individuals, are usually markedly inveigled by such activities to work more and harder.

My thesis includes both, some theoretical support based on the works of specialists in language learning such as Harmer, Graham, Byrne or Murphey and an entirely practical part with detailed lesson plans full of ideas how to use Jazz Chants for specific groups of students and I even created three chants by myself being inspired by Carolyn Graham's books.

Music and rhymes are very entertaining and children love them, nevertheless, I would not suggest using only singing and chanting to learn a foreign language. However, as an additional material it is a perfect method how to make children motivated and involved in language lessons, especially the little children, slower students or students with some learning difficulties. I strongly suppose that by using such activities incorporated into usual lessons a teacher can reach significantly better study and also behavioral results and it can be also seen on the DVD which is one of the appendices to this work.

REFERENCES

- [1] Byrne, D. (1988). *Focus on the Classroom*. Oxford: Modern English Publications.
- [2] Doff, A. (1993). *Teach English: A training course for teacher*. Cambridge: CUP.
- [3] Graham, C. (2006). *Creating Chants and Songs*. Oxford: OUP.
- [4] Graham, C. (1999). *Holiday Jazz Chants*. Oxford: OUP.
- [5] Graham, C. (1979). *Jazz Chants for Children*. Oxford: OUP.
- [6] Graham, C. (2001). *Jazz Chants Old and New*. Oxford: OUP.
- [7] Harmer, J. (1994). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. New York: Longman Group UK Limited.
- [8] Murphey, T. (1992). *Music and Songs*. Oxford: OUP.
- [9] O'Grady, W. (2005). *How Children Learn Language*. Cambridge: CUP.
- [10] Phillips, S. (1993). *Young Learners*. Oxford: OUP.
- [11] Skoumal, P., & Votruba, J. (2000). *Humpty Dumpty Mother Goose Songs and Rhymes and Other More Grown-up Songs and Christmas Carols*. Praha: Angličtina Expres.
- [12] Ur, P. (2000). *A Course in Language Teaching (Practice and Theory)*. Cambridge: CUP.
- [13] Wajnryb, R. (1992). *Classroom Observation Tasks (A source book for language teachers and learners)*. Cambridge: CUP.
- [14] Wright, A., Betteridge, D., & Buckby, M. (1991). *Games for Language Learning*. Cambridge: CUP.

Jin Zhang was born in Chuzhou, China in 1980. She received his. degree in linguistics from Anhui Normal University, China in 2003.

She is currently a lecturer in the Foreign Languages department, Chuzhou University, Chuzhou, China. Her research interests include psycholinguistics and SLA.

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 10 to 15 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
 - Submission of extended version
 - Notification of acceptance
 - Final submission due
 - Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at <http://www.academpublisher.com/tpls/>.

| | |
|---|-----|
| Function-oriented Approaches in Commercial Advertisement Translation <i>Lu Wang and Guodong Zhao</i> | 521 |
| A Comparative Study of the Test Tasks and Target Use Tasks <i>Seyyed Ali Ostovar-Namaghi</i> | 525 |
| A Study of Professional Development of College English Teachers through Narrative Inquiry <i>Jing Ma and Suzhen Ren</i> | 530 |
| Online Interactional Feedback in Second Language Writing: Through Peer or Tutor? <i>Khalil Motallebzadeh and Somaye Amirabadi</i> | 534 |
| Micro-study on Travel Process of ‘Identity’ in Postcolonial Theory in Chinese Context <i>Jun Tong</i> | 541 |
| The Effect of Contextualizing and Decontextualizing Techniques on Lexical-oriented Knowledge of Persian EFL Language Learners <i>Kamal Heidari Soureshjani</i> | 547 |
| Culture Integration in Translating <i>Xiao Geng</i> | 553 |
| The Impossibility of Verifying Reality in Harold Pinter’s Old Times <i>Noorbakhsh Hooti</i> | 556 |
| Jazz Chants in English Language Teaching <i>Jin Zhang</i> | 563 |
