Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

The Role of Foot Structure in Teaching Vowel Length Distinctions in Japanese

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Abstract—The present study explores the possibility of using foot structure as a cue to teach vowel length distinctions in Japanese. While it has been said that the primary cue to such distinctions is duration (Fujisaki *et al*, 1975), Hirata (2004) has found that the duration of short vowels and that of long vowels overlap significantly across various speaking rates, implying that duration does not provide a reliable cue. The present study first demonstrates that different vowel lengths in minimal pairs correlate with different foot structures, and suggests that we use the difference in foot structure in order to correct learners' pronunciation errors. This approach is then applied to words that are not in minimal pairs.

Index Terms—vowel lengths, foot structure, Japanese

I. INTRODUCTION

Distinguishing vowel lengths can be very challenging for learners of Japanese (Oguma, 2000; Toda, 2003). At the same time, this is a challenging task for those who teach Japanese as well. The main objective of this study is twofold: (i) to understand what makes it difficult for learners to distinguish vowel lengths in Japanese; (ii) to suggest a way to practice vowel length distinctions effectively based on theory. I will illustrate in this paper that qualitative distinctions, more specifically foot structure, give more reliable cues than quantitative distinctions (i.e., duration). I will therefore suggest that we turn our attention to foot structure, rather than focusing on duration when teaching vowel lengths in Japanese.

II. PRELIMINARIES

A. Vowel Lengths in Japanese

There are five vowel phonemes in Tokyo Japanese: /a, i, u, e, o/, which have long vowel counterparts (Shibatani, 1990, p.160-162). In particular, it is important to note that the length distinctions among vowels are contrastive in Japanese, as the minimal pairs in (1) illustrate.

(1) Vowel lengths in Japanese

	Short Vowels	Long Vowels
a. /a/ vs. /a:/	obasan 'aunt'	obaasan 'grandmother'
b. /i/ vs. /i:/	ojisan 'uncle'	ojiisan 'grandfather'
c. /u/ vs. /u:/	tsuchi 'soil'	tsuuchi 'notification'
d. /e/ vs. /e:/	sekai 'world'	seekai 'correct answer'
e. /o/ vs. /o:/	hosoku 'supplement'	hoosoku 'law'

The only apparent difference in each pair is the length of one vowel. For example, *obasan* 'aunt' has short /a/ and *obaasan* 'grandmother' has long /a:/, but the rest of the words is identical. Phonologically, a long vowel is associated with two beats, technically called "moras" whereas a short vowel is associated with one mora. Therefore, *obaasan* 'grandmother' is longer than *obasan* 'aunt' by one whole mora: 5 mora long (o.ba.a.sa.n) vs. 4 mora long (o.ba.sa.n).[1]

Since vowel length distinctions are contrastive in Japanese, native speakers never have difficulty distinguishing them. However, learners, in particular those who do not have vowel length distinctions in their native language, tend to have significant difficulty discerning the difference (Tajima et al, 2008).

B. Moras

The mora is the smallest prosodic unit in Japanese. There are two major types of moras, as shown in (2): independent moras and special moras.

(2) Mora types in Japanese[2]

Types	Example Words
a. Independent: V	*i* 'stomach'

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[1] The mora boundaries are indicated by periods.

[2] As a convention, 'R' is often used to indicate the lengthened part of a long vowel (Koizumi, 1978, p.121); alternatively, 'H' is used by others (Vance, 2008, p.58).

b. Independent: CV   *ki* 'tree'
c. Special: R   *i.i* 'good'
d. Special: N   *ki.n* 'gold'

An independent mora is made up of either a single short vowel (V) as in (2a), or a consonant followed by a short vowel (CV) as in (2b). The independent mora is so called because it can construct a foot independent of other moras (the foot is the next smallest prosodic unit as we will discuss more in detail in Section III). On the other hand, a special mora cannot make a foot on its own; it always leans on an independent mora to make a foot. Examples of special moras include the lengthened part of a long vowel (R), and the so-called moraic nasal (N) as illustrated in (2c) and (2d), respectively. A long vowel is thus made up of an independent mora (V) followed by a special mora (R).

Japanese is said to be a "mora-timed" language, where each mora is pronounced with approximately the same duration (Ladefoged and Johnson, 2011, p.251-252). This generalization holds whether it is an independent mora or a special mora. For example, since the lengthened part of a long vowel counts as one mora, a long vowel has two moras in total (i.e., VR) while a short vowel has only one (i.e., V); therefore, the former is pronounced approximately twice as long as the latter. In fact, phonetic experiments have shown that the difference in duration is even greater; long vowels are pronounced 2.4-3.2 times as long as short vowels in Japanese (Han, 1962; Ueyama, 2000).

C. Sources of Difficulty

Despite the seemingly significant difference in duration (i.e., 1:2.4-3.2), studies have shown that learners have difficulty distinguishing vowel lengths in both perception and production (Oguma, 2000; Toda, 2003). One source of the difficulty stems from the fact that the difference in duration is affected by factors, such as speaking rate (Hirata, 2004; Tajima *et al*, 2008). In fact, Hirata (2004) observes that the duration of short vowels and that of long vowels overlap each other considerably across various speaking rates. Hirata's observation thus implies that it is virtually impossible to distinguish vowel lengths based on absolute duration alone. Given her observation, I suggest that we turn our attention to "qualitative" cues, rather than "quantitative" cues.

In languages, such as Arabic, long vowels are distinguished from their short vowel counterparts not only in terms of quantity (i.e., duration) but also in terms of quality.[3] In the present study, I argue and illustrate that foot structure gives us more reliable cues than duration to distinguish vowel lengths in Japanese.

III. QUALITATIVE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LONG AND SHORT VOWELS

A. Foot Structure

As mentioned above, the mora is the smallest prosodic unit, and the foot is the prosodic level immediately above it. In other words, moras are grouped together into feet. The ways in which moras are combined into feet are constrained by several principles. First, there are no more than two moras in each foot in Japanese (i.e., either one mora or two moras in each foot). More specifically, since an independent mora can stand alone as discussed earlier, a mono-moraic foot consisting of a single independent mora (IM) as in (3a) is well formed; in contrast, a foot consisting of a single special mora (SM) as in (4a) is not well formed. Instead, a special mora always leans on an independent mora to make a foot, as shown in (3b). Furthermore, as part of a foot, a special mora always follows an independent mora, as the contrast between (3b) and (4b) shows. Finally, a bi-moraic foot consisting of two independent moras as in (3c) is well formed; however, one consisting of two special moras as in (4c) is ill formed.

(3) Well-formed feet[4]
    Types   Examples
    a. (IM)   V, CV
    b. (IM.SM)   VR, VN, etc
    c. (IM.IM)   CVCV, VCV, etc
(4) Ill-formed feet
    a. *(SM)
    b. *(SM.IM)
    c. *(SM.SM)

Keeping in mind the way in which feet are constructed in Japanese, let us now see how foot structure allows us to help distinguish vowel lengths in Japanese.

B. Proposal: Foot Structure as a Cue to Distinguish Vowel Lengths in Japanese

Let us examine the minimal pairs in (1) again. This time, we pay attention to foot structure, which is indicated in (5).
(5) Vowel lengths in Japanese with foot structure indicated
                Short Vowels   Long Vowels
    a. /a/ vs. /aː/   (o.b<u>a</u>)(sa.n) 'aunt'   (o)(b<u>a.a</u>)(sa.n) 'grandmother'

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b. /i/ vs. /i:/   (o.<u>ji</u>)(sa.n) 'uncle'   (o)(j<u>i.i</u>)(sa.n) 'grandfather'
c. /u/ vs. /u:/   (ts<u>u</u>.chi) 'soil'   (ts<u>u.u</u>)(chi) 'notification'
d. /e/ vs. /e:/   (s<u>e</u>.ka)(i) 'world'   (s<u>e.e</u>)(ka.i) 'correct answer'
e. /o/ vs. /o:/   (h<u>o</u>.so)(ku) 'supplement'   (h<u>o.o</u>)(so.ku) 'law'

One will immediately notice that the number of feet is different in most of the minimal pairs: (5a) through (5c). For example, *obasan* 'aunt' has two feet whereas *obaasan* 'grandmother' has three feet, as illustrated in (5a). More importantly, different moras are grouped in different feet between the members of each minimal pair. Observe that the first two (independent) moras are put in the same foot in the words with short vowels whereas they are put in different feet in the words with long vowels. For example, in the word *ojisan* 'uncle,' the first two moras (i.e., *o* and *ji*) are footed together. On the other hand, in the word *ojiisan* 'grandfather,' *o* and *ji* are in separate feet; *o* constructs its own foot (i.e., first foot), and *ji* is in another foot (i.e., second foot). Furthermore, even in pairs like (5d) and (5c), where there is no difference in the number of feet, there is an asymmetry in foot structure. For example, as shown in (5d) *se* and *ka* are footed together in *sekai* 'world' whereas *se* is footed as part of the first foot and *ka* is footed as part of the second foot in *seekai* 'correct answer.'

The examples in (5) thus illustrate that minimal pairs contrasting vowel length can be distinguished in terms of foot structure. What does this mean for teaching vowel length distinctions in the classroom? I suggest that instructors first make their students be aware of the boundaries within words (i.e., foot boundaries) in practicing vowel lengths. For example, since *o* and *ba* are footed together in *obasan* 'aunt,' they are pronounced together as a unit in the same way as the remaining moras (i.e., *sa* and *n*) are pronounced; in contrast, since *o* and *ba* are in separate feet in *obaasan* 'grandmother,' they are pronounced separately; in particular, *o* is pronounced alone, and *ba* and *a* are pronounced as a unit in the same way as *sa* and *n* are pronounced.

Furthermore, with the foot structure indicated, words, such as *(o)(ba.a)(sa.n)* 'grandmother' and *(se.e)(ka.i)* 'correct answer' are particularly easier to practice since there are two bi-moraic feet in them. For example, in *obaasan* 'grandmother,' the last two feet (i.e., *ba.a* and *sa.n*) are both bi-moraic. What this means is that both of them are pronounced with the same rhythm. Since most learners have much less difficulty pronouncing a foot like *san* than *baa*, instructors can use *san* as the reference point, and have their students practice pronouncing *baa* in the same rhythm as *san* since they are both bi-moraic.

C. Extension: Vowel Lengths in Words without Minimal Pairs

While the examples that we have examined so far are all in minimal pairs, the above proposal can be extended to vowel lengths in words without minimal pairs. Given the fact that there are not many minimal pairs contrasting vowel lengths in Japanese (Vance, 2008, p.56-57), this extension adds significantly to the proposal.[5]

Let us start with a brief discussion of why different vowel lengths result in different foot structures. The answer lies in the idea that a short vowel involves an independent mora whereas a long vowel involves a special mora as well as an independent mora. Recall that a special mora cannot construct a foot on its own so that it leans on the independent mora before it. With this restriction in mind, let us look at the word *ojiisan* 'grandfather' in (5b) one more time. Suppose we try to foot the word *ojiisan* 'grandfather' in the same way as we foot the word *ojisan* 'uncle.' It would result in *(o.ji)(i.sa)(n). There are two problems with this foot structure. First, a special mora is preceding an independent mora in the second foot, which has the ill-formed structure illustrated in (4b). Second, the third foot is made up of a special mora alone, which has the ill-formed structure in (4a). To avoid these ill-formed structures, *ji* and *i* are footed together before *o* is footed, as is shown in the steps in (6).

(6) Footing of Words Containing a Special Mora
a. o.ji.i.sa.n
b. o(ji.i)sa.n
c. (o)(ji.i)(sa.n)

Because a special mora (e.g., *i*) is always footed with the independent mora that precedes it (e.g., *ji*), an independent mora that would otherwise be footed with that independent mora (e.g., *o*) is "bumped" to a separate foot. In other words, since special moras only fit in a specific position in the foot, independent moras "move" to different positions in order to accommodate the need of special moras, which in turn results in a difference in foot structure.

Let us now discuss how foot structure can help us correct learners' mistakes on vowel length distinctions even in the absence of minimal pairs. The examples in (7) and (8) represent words on which learners often make length mistakes, in particular, in production; the left column shows the correct pronunciations and the right column shows the incorrect pronunciations.[6] More specifically, the examples in (7) are words that learners often mistakenly pronounce with a long vowel; those in (8) are words that contain long vowels, which learners often pronounce them with a short vowel by mistake.

(7) Common mistakes in words with short vowels

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[5] Using minimal pairs to teach vowel length distinctions is understandably common in textbooks (e.g., Tanaka and Kubozono, 1999). However, due to the number of available minimal pairs, minimal pairs used in textbooks often involve "obscure" words, such as *yookan* 'western style building' (as opposed to *yokan* 'anticipation'). This is not a desirable situation at least for beginning learners.
[6] The author thanks Madoka Kusakabe for sharing examples of errors that she observed in her own classrooms.

a. (su.k<u>o</u>)(shi) 'a little'   *(su)(k<u>oo</u>)(shi)
b. (shu.k<u>u</u>)(da.i) 'homework'   *(shu)(k<u>u.u</u>)(da.i)
c. (to.sh<u>o</u>)(ka.n) 'library'   *(to)(sh<u>o.o</u>)(ka.n)
d. (o.k<u>i</u>)(ru) 'to get up'   *(o)(k<u>i.i</u>)(ru)
(8) Common mistakes in words with long vowels
a. (i)(m<u>o.o</u>)(to) 'little sister'   *(i.m<u>o</u>)(to)
b. (o)(n<u>i.i</u>)(sa.n) 'big brother'   *(o.n<u>i</u>)(sa.n)
c. (ky<u>o.o</u>)(ka.sho) 'textbook'   *(ky<u>o</u>.ka)(sho)
d. (ch<u>i.i</u>)(sa.i) 'small'   *(ch<u>i</u>.sa)(i)

For example, the word *sukoshi* 'a little' in (7a) has a short vowel in the second mora (i.e., *ko*); however, a common error is to pronounce it as long (i.e., *ko.o*). On the other hand, the word *imooto* 'little sister' in (7a) has a long vowel (i.e., *o.o*); a common mistake is to pronounce it as short (i.e., *o*).

We saw with the minimal pairs in (5) that the number of feet is different whether the word contains a short vowel or a long vowel. Something parallel is observed here with words without minimal pairs: the number of feet is different between the correct pronunciation and the incorrect pronunciation in most of the cases above: (7a) through (7d), and (8a) and (8b). For example, in the word *shukudai* 'homework' in (7b), there are two feet with the correct pronunciation whereas there are three feet in the incorrect pronunciation. More importantly, the correct pronunciation and the incorrect pronunciation also involve distinct foot structures in all of the instances. For example, in the word *toshokan* 'library' in (7c), the first two moras (i.e., *to* and *sho*) are separated in different feet in the incorrect pronunciation whereas they are in the same foot in the correct pronunciation.

The difference in foot structure in (7) and (8) can be also utilized to help correct learners' mispronunciations. For example, when a learner mistakenly lengthens the second mora of *okiru* 'get up' as in (7d), instructors can help them correct the mistake by having them practice pronouncing the first two moras (i.e., *o* and *ki*) together as a unit to the exclusion of the third mora (i.e., *ru*). In a parallel way, when a learner fails to lengthen the first mora of *chiisai* 'small' in (8d) for example, instructors can have their students practice pronouncing the final two moras (i.e., *sa* and *i*) as a foot to the exclusion of the initial two moras (i.e., *chi* and *i*).

IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Vowel length distinctions trouble both learners and instructors of Japanese. While there is a significant difference in duration between long and short vowels at least at a fixed speaking rate, studies have demonstrated the duration of short vowels and that of long vowels across various speaking rates overlap each other significantly. Since learners cannot use duration as a reliable cue, I suggested that we pay attention to a qualitative cue associated with vowel lengths, more specifically, the foot structure. I first demonstrated that minimal pairs contrasting vowel lengths could be clearly distinguished in terms of the number of feet and asymmetries in foot structure. I then illustrated how foot structure would allow us to help learners practice vowel length distinctions in minimal pairs as well as in words without minimal pairs.

While I do not claim that foot structure provides cues to solve all the difficulty that learners have with vowel length distinctions, I would like to emphasize the following three points. First, the difference in vowel lengths results in different foot structures in a systematic way due to the properties of independent and special moras. In addition, the differences in foot structure associated with vowel lengths are very clear. Second, since studies have shown that duration is not a reliable cue, the role of non-durational cues become more important. In particular, given the robustness of differences, the role of foot structure becomes even more significant. Last but not least, I would like to point out the fact that, while moras are discussed in a number of Japanese language textbooks (e.g., Banno, Ohno, Sakane, and Shinagawa, 1999; Tohsaku, 2006), feet are rarely, if at all, mentioned.[7] Furthermore, feet are in fact discussed to a great degree in some Japanese phonetics/phonology textbooks (e.g., Tanaka and Kubozono, 1999; Vance, 2008); however, they are not discussed as they relate to vowel lengths.

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[7] While it is not accurate, the term "syllables" are used in place of "feet" in most Japanese language textbooks.

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Syntactic Analysis of pro in Independent Clauses in Arabic Syntax

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Abstract—The objective of this work is to investigate the syntactic properties of the empty category pro in Modern Standard Arabic syntax with reference to Chomsky's (1981-1995) on TGG and Jalabneh's (2007) Verb -movement. The syntactic properties are represented by the nominative case, case markers, requirement of Extended Projection Principle (EPP), substitution of expletives and deletion at the logical form. The study concludes that pro is assigned the nominative case at S-structure by INFL. It fulfills the requirement of EPP at all levels because of rich Agrs. There are various Agrs markers for pro; it cannot be replaced by expletive entities. It is obligatorily deleted at LF.

Index Terms—pro, V-movement, expletives, Extended Projection Principle, nominative case

I. INTRODUCTION

Arabic has various types of pronouns that have the structure of a noun phrase. They are classified into three types, namely, (i) the overt attached personal pronouns, (ii) non-attached overt personal pronouns and (iii) the covert personal pronouns. (i) and (ii) are not included in this analysis; however, the focus of analysis is on the third category. The null subject though occupies the subject position of a finite clause but they are covert. It is obvious that finite clauses are visible by the overt or covert occurrence of the tense, namely, the present and the past in which agreement is rich to illustrate the null subject as Arabic is an inflectional language and it is rich in its morphological realizations. However, non finites lack tense properties though they are rich in agreement features.

In the domestic literature, Fehri (1987) argued that there are two types of affixes in Arabic Language, namely, pronominal and non pronominal affixes. The pronominal affixes are referential with a grammatical function. They are assigned the grammatical function subject i.e. they are attached subject pronouns. The non pronominal affixes are non referential affixes but agreement markers whose sole function is to encode the subject gender on the verb. The difference between male and female null subject is obvious with the agreement features attached to the verb.

Maghalsih (2007) argued that the null subject occurs with certain markers prefixed to the verb in Arabic syntax if it is in the imperfective. In such situations, it can be the first person singular masculine and feminine with the marker [?u] as in *?uwaafiqu* ' I agree', first person plural masculine and feminine with the marker [na] as in *naf^c alu* 'we do', second person singular masculine/feminine with the marker [ta] in *tashkuru* 'you thank', third singular masculine with marker [ya] in *ya?kulu* 'he eats' and third singular feminine with the marker [ta] in *ta?kulu* 'she eats'. The occurrence of the null subject in Arabic language is not restricted to the present tense; however, it can occur in structures in which the verb is in the perfective tense but with different markers. For instance it can be third person singular and masculine with the zero markers as in *raja^c a- ϕ* 'he came' and third singular and feminine with the zero markers as in *raja^c-a-t ϕ* 'she came'. However, the subject in both tenses can be replaced by an overt annexed or separate pronoun

Alghalayini (2006) argued that there is only one situation in which the null subject can occur in the imperative type of sentences in Arabic syntax with zero markers as in *?uktub-0- ϕ* 'write!'. The null subject in the imperative form is not realized phonetically but it is easily figured out to be *?anta* 'you' because of the zero markers attached to the verb *?uktub* 'write'.

In foreign literature, Rizzi (1982) argued that Italian can drop the subject but it is visible with a clitic marker as it has a rich system of inflections. The null subject occurs either in a main clause; it is governed by the verbal inflection. This point means that the null subject is specified by the agreement features with the feature [+ pronominal]. When the inflection of the verb has the feature pronominal, it absorbs the nominative case because of case filter and governs the empty subject. Depending on this theoretical point, the null subject must occur in a context of nominative case assignment of a finite clause. Pro in Italian receives its nominative case by tense.

Suner (1983) mentioned that pro, in Spanish, has arbitrary reference. In case the null subject is co-indexed with the agreement, it still has its arbitrary interpretation. Thus, the interpretation of pro in Spanish is indefinite even if it refers to a number of unknown people.

Picallo (1984) conducted his study on Catalan language in which he found that INFL is the proper governor and assigns the nominative case pro of a tensed clause. He further confirmed that pro is an empty non-anaphoric pronominal element which receives a case, and it is recoverable in feature specification by means of inflection of the verb.

Huang (1984) argued that it is not only the idea of a rich inflectional morphology system that determines the pro-drop languages; some languages that do not have any inflectional systems at all like Chinese and Japanese; still, they permit pro. However, in these languages, a zero subject pronoun is identified by a noun phrase in a super-ordinate finite clause.

Hyams (1986) argued that the main difference between the pro-drop languages and the non-pro-drop languages is that inflection of the verb in the former is pronominal. He assumed that the head of the pronominal inflection is the agreement which governs and assigns the nominative case to the null subject. The null subject in pro-drop languages acts as the lexical pronouns in receiving the case.

Haegeman (1994) argued that null subject has the properties [+pronominal, –anaphoric]. She emphasized that the rich inflections of a verb is the only property that allows and identifies the absent subject. The most important part that recovers the features of the dropped subject is the agreement features which must be co-indexed with the element it recovers.

Anders (2005) argued that pros are specified but unpronounced pronouns that assign a case by the misinterpreted features of Agrs. Null bound pronouns and null generic pronouns in partial null subject languages like Finish are D-less and so are pros in consistent null subject languages with Agrs such as Spanish and Greek. First and second person pros are deleted in Finish. Null pronouns in languages without Agrs such as Chinese and Japanese are only true instances of pros that is a minimally specified null noun.

Radford (2009) argued that, in null subject languages, any finite verb can have either an overt subject or a null subject. Even though English has the ability to drop the subject in imperative sentences, it is not regarded a null subject language. He assumed that expletive pronouns are originated internally within the verb phrase.

Rezac (2010) argued that agreement is the displacement of pro like terminal containing interpretable φ-features to the agreeing head, or D-agreement. Agreement becomes the value of uninterruptable φ-features on an independent terminal, Agree. Here, a new argument for the Agree model is developed from floating quantifiers. Agreement is the right analysis for pro in pro drop languages.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

There are certain syntactic properties of the empty category pro in Arabic finite independent clauses that need to be checked. Such properties include the question of government, nominative case, deletion, substitution with expletives, overt N" and filling the gap of Extended Projection Principle (EPP).

III. OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are to check the syntactic features of pro that occur as the subject of independent clauses in Modern Standard Arabic with reference to Chomsky's (1981, 1982 and 1986) views of the Theory of Government and Binding. For such reasons, to achieve the objectives, the following questions are proposed: (i) Is pro governed by a governor? (ii) Does it have a case? If yes what is it? (iii) Does it fulfill the requirement of Extended Projection Principle at all levels of syntax? (iv) Are there special markers attached to the verb that syntactically indicate the number, person and gender of pro? (v) Can pro be replaced by expletives arguments in Arabic syntax? (vi). Is the deletion of pro optional or compulsory in Arabic syntax?

IV. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES (METHODOLOGY)

Chomsky's (1981-1995) theoretical views are important to the extent that they are regarded as universal properties applied to all human languages. He focused on the native speaker's internal power rather his/her performance. He argued that there are many principles and parameters among all languages that they cannot be taught because they are already acquired. He called these principles Universal Grammar (UG). Still some languages have their own features that may differ between a language and another; they are called Parameters. A correct sentence basically consists of a subject and predicate whether the subject N" is visible or not. There is no correct sentence without a subject. However, its occurrence is based on a parametric variation between one language and another. This principle is called in syntax "Extended Projection Principle" (EPP) (c.f. Chomsky, 1982, p. 17). He (1981-1995) categorized noun phrases (N"s) in a language into (i) overt (N"s) and (ii) covert (N"s). The former includes R-expressions; however, the latter includes pro, PRO, and trace. Pro is always the subject of a finite clause, PRO is always the subject of non-finite clauses, and a trace is the result of either NP-movement or wh-movement and is always governed. He (1981) argued that not all languages have pro; however, Spanish, Japanese, Italian, Arabic … etc have because it is dropped at the LF. He also argued that the choices in universal grammar (UG) are restricted to the question of whether the subject is or is not obligatory overt. For this reason, he assumed that the rule S→NP INFL VP for those languages in which the subject is obligatory as is the case in English and French; he assumed the rule S→ (NP) INFL VP in which case the subject is optional though INFL remains overt as in pro-drop languages, namely Italian and so on. Thus, the pro-drop parameter entails that with 'weather verbs', in English, the subject has to be filled with the expletives 'it' or 'there' to fulfill the word order of English; however, this case is not available in Arabic, in such case, the sentence remains grammatical though the subject is covert and cannot be replaced by any equivalent element (p. 24-29).

He (1986) explained that the element pro is a pure nominal element with the sense of he and they and so forth, or an expletive 'it' and 'there'(p. 164). It is an element that cannot be visible in English but only in the null subject languages. Pro is regarded in universal grammar as a kind of language variation of parameters between languages. There are certain languages that have the ability to drop the subject of the finite matrix sentence without being affected.

Chomsky (1981) argued that the empty category principle (ECP) is a mechanism in syntax proposed to account for properties of empty category pro: (i) A subject of a tense clause. (ii) It is assigned a case though it is covert because it is rich in Ø –agreement features, namely, number, person and gender as well the verb inflection as case assignors. And (iii) it does not have [+ anaphoric] reference with another N" in the structure. For instance, let us look at the Italian example [e mangia '- is eating']. In it, though the subject is not visible in the verb mangia ' is eating', it is still grammatical in the Italian language and represented by [e]. This due to the fact that Italian is a pro –drop language and accepts the subject to be covert in the sentence. It can be figured out as third person singular and masculine 'he' from the inflection and the agreement features which are inflected in the primary verb mangia (p.256). It is evident that the subject pro 'he' in the sentences is assigned the nominative case. This kind of subject i.e. pro does not have any [+ anaphoric] relation with another NP as that of PRO because it is free in syntax as that of reference expressions. This element is different from PRO in the sense that pro checks the nominative case by either inflection (INFL) or agreements (AGRs). It is similar to PRO as they both are missing subjects and are assigned a theta role.

Chomsky (1986) stated that Extended Projection Principle (EPP) is defined as "Each finite clause must have an external element i.e. each clause must have a subject" (p.116). It means that every sentence must contain a syntactic subject whether overt or covert in syntax. This subject succumbs to the requirements of case theory. The subject must be assigned the nominative case, in particular. It is evident that if a language is a non pro-drop language like English, the subject position sometimes cannot be filled with any N", in this situation, it can be filled with the pleonastic 'it' and 'there' as a requirement of the EPP. However, in pro-drop languages, the subject can be filled by pro (ps. 115 and 86). The point is to see the relation between pro and the pleonastic elements in connection to EPP. Pro can be replaced by an expletive in non- drop languages as English as a specimen of the analysis. The only purpose for the existence of this kind of subject is only to satisfy the (EPP). Such subjects appear basically with 'weather' verbs as in the specimens (i) [it is raining] and [there is a man in the room.]. In them, the expletives 'it' and 'there' are used to fulfill the requirement of EPP because the sentences can not stand without subjects. Chomsky (1986) argued that Spanish and Italian languages allow the subject to be missing at PF but they require it whether as an argument, an expletive or as an empty category at the all levels. He gave the following example from the Italian language to indicate that the empty category [e] is an expletive pro [e [parla Giovanni 'e Giovanni speaks'] (ps. 116 and 178). In Italian the pleonastic element is permitted to be missed phonetically when the subject is postponed after the predicate as in the specimen. However, the null subject pro appears in the subject position of a finite clause which has no overt subject. The empty expletive [e] is in an A-position but not in a theta position.

Chomsky (1982, p. 81) argued that the term pro refers to the missing subject. He identifies pro as the null counterpart of the lexical pronouns and appears as the subject of a tensed clause with specific reference or as an expletive. There is a syntactic relation between pro and an expletive in English language and other languages in the sense that expletives are subjects of finite clauses. They are not normal ones because they have no identical identities at all. They have no meaning and no theta roles are assigned to them though they check the nominative case by [INFL]. As far as the case theory is concerned, it is one of the fundamental issues that was Case theory expresses the relationship between N"s and their governors, namely, INFL, verbs and prepositions. In pro –drop languages mostly N"s are visible with certain nominal declension markers as the language is rich in its morphological realizations as that of Arabic. It is the syntactic relation between the governors and the elements they govern that decide the type of case. Each N" must get a case in a case position. The case filter principle emphasizes the importance of case for every overt lexical element N". Chomsky (1986) stated that "every phonetically realized NP must be assigned (abstract) Case" (p.74). Case assignment is based on the government relation between the two entities. The case and the governor must be next to each other in the same maximal projection. And stated that "If the category α has a case to assign, then it may assign it to an element that it governs" (p.187). The concepts of c-command and government play an essential role all through the case theory. However, the case is determined by the governor that governs the N". According to X- bar Syntax, the functional INFL of the maximal projection I" constituent commands (c-commands) and governs the subject position. Whether this position is an argument or non argument, it needs to be checked the nominative case by INFL. The government relation that is established between INFL and the N" is stated by Chomsky (1981, p, 15) as in (1):

1. "[β…γ…α…γ…], where
(i) α= X0
(ii) Where Ø is a maximal projection, if Ø dominates γ then Ø dominates α
(iii) α c-commands γ"
This definition of government is further simplified in Chomsky (1991, p. 50) as in (2):
2. "α governs β if α c-commands β and there is no category that "protects" β from government by α. γ protects β in this sense if it is c-commanded by α and either
i) γ is a barrier dominating β
ii) γ intervenes between α and β

The concept of government and command must be local for case assignment. The element α and β must be in a liner order to agree with value of the head parameter of a language. The relation between INFL and its subject is local in I''. Thus, as the subject is governed, it must be c-commanded by the same governor as shown in the c-command relation in (3):

3. "[γ……α…… β…],
"[γ…… β …… α …]
(c.f. Chomsky, 1981, p. 36)

The c-command relation is substituted for the same purpose by maximal command (M-command) and government as in (4).

4. "[β …… γ …… α … γ…], where
(i) α= X0
(ii) Where Ø is a maximal projection, if Ø dominates γ then Ø dominates α
(iii) α c-commands γ"
Then α and γ are contained in all the same maximal projection"
(c.f. Chomsky, 1981, p. 165)

Chomsky (1981) started his study to pro by mentioning the two properties of the category pro. The two properties are: (i) missing subject and (ii) free inversion in simple sentences. As AGR is very strong in pro- drop languages, the missing subject receives its case from it. Here emerges the problem of the empty category pro insofar as case is concerned. As mentioned ahead case filter is very much concerned with every phonetically realized N''. However, pro is an empty category; then how case is assigned to it? The answer is theoretically given by Chomsky (1982) who assumed that there is no reason why pro should not be governed at S- structure. The category pro is governed by I and AGR and has the nominative case. He said "In the pro- drop languages the EC subject governed by AGR is pro with case" (p. 86). He also said "In a pro-drop language, pro with case can be left in subject position governed by AGR, since its content can be determined by AGR with case" (p. 86). Chomsky (1986) further argued that at D- structure, AGR is part of INFL, governs the subject position. In the S- structure INFL governs the subject if INFL does not move to the main verb. If AGR is specified at D- structure for case then it is a pro. After that there will be a tendency to spell out AGR in the S-structure and PF component. As a matter of fact the realized case in some languages, particularly Italian appears as diacritics or agreements on the verb. The connection between agreement features and pro is strong and Italian has the ability to drop the subject as in (5).

D- Structure
5a. pro parlo
I   spoke
S- Structure
5b. pro parlo
I   spoke
PF
5c. parlo
spoke
'I spoke'
(Chomsky, 1982, p. 78)
(5d) is the tree diagram representation for (5a and b)
5d.
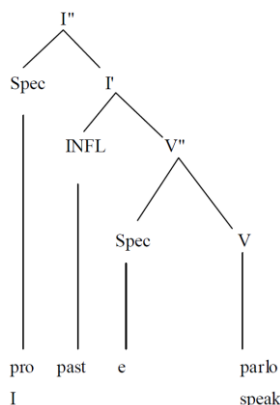
In (5d), the functional category 'past' governs the empty pro 'I' to which the nominative case is assigned under local government under I'' in Italian. In short, the Chomsky's views will be used to analyze the Arabic data regarding the properties of pro. GB style of tree-diagrams will be used in this work.

V. THE ANALYSIS OF PRO IN ARABIC SYNTAX

The following analysis covers a detailed of pro that occurs as the covert subject of merely independent clauses in an attempt to check the concept of government, nominative case, requirement of EPP, Agrs markers and deletion of pro in Arabic syntax.

A. *Government and the Assignment of Nominative Case of pro*

Depending on the previous theoretical perspectives, Chomsky (1981 and 1995) argued that pro in pro-drop languages must be governed by a governor. The governor must be the INFL, more strictly the Agr element. The result of the government is the nominative case assigned to it at the S-structure. The c-command relation is the corner stone for the government relation. He means by c- command that node A c- commands node B if every branching node dominating A also dominates B and neither A nor B dominates the other in X-bar theory. X-bar theory specifies the actual structure of all phrases and their relations in a sentence. The hierarchical structure of a sentence expresses the pair relations i.e. the relations between a governor and a governee that is pro in this work. Pro must be available in the sentence to satisfy the requirements of the EPP by which its grammaticality is determined. Arabic is a pro-drop language and pro is covert at LF and the sentence remains good. This category must be governed to get the nominative case by a case assignor, namely INFL/ Agrs as in (6).

LF

6a.   ?u -   hibb-   u-   al-   cilm-   a
      1st, sg, masc./fem   love   pres.   det   knowledge   acc
      'I love knowledge'

(6b) is the D-structure representation for (6a)

6b .   pro   ?u -   hib-   u-   al -   cilm-   a
       I   1st, sg, masc./fem   love   pres   det   knowledge   acc
       'I love knowledge'

(6c) is the S-structure representation for (6b).

S- structure

6c .   pro   ?u -   hib-   u-   al -   cilm-   a
       I   1st, sg, masc./fem   love   pres   det   knowledge   acc
       'I love knowledge'

The processes of government and case assignment of the nominative case are performed in the tree diagram as in (6d) of (6c):

6d.

(c.f. Jalabneh 2007 V-movement and treatment of Arabic SVO at spell out)
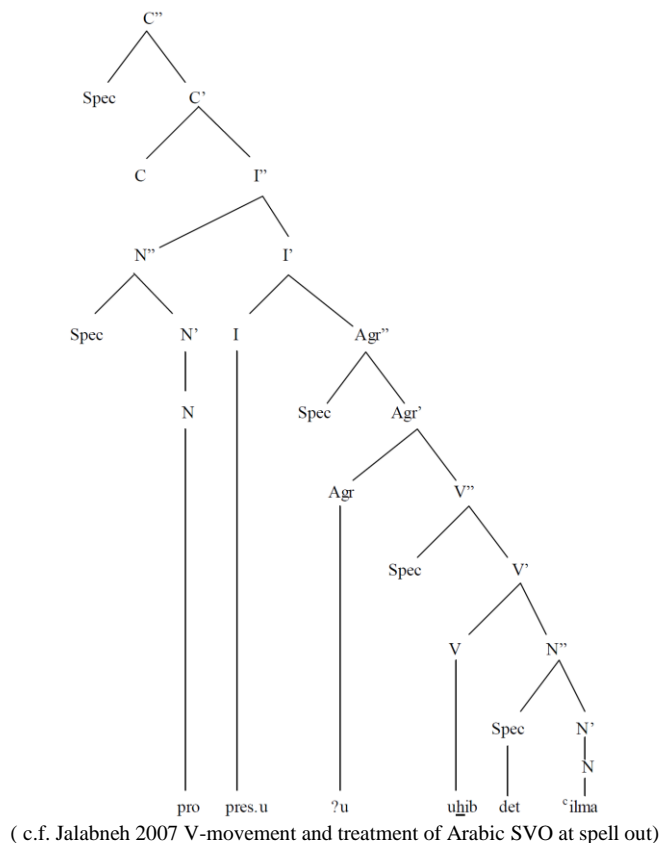
In (6d), pro 'I masc / and fem.' is governed by INFL under the maximal projection I''. The second step is the V-movement of hib 'love'. It moves to the node Agrs to check the agreement feature available in the structure as first person feminine and masculine and it becomes ?uhib 'love'. Then, it must move to the node INFL to check the present tense of [u] and becomes ?uhibu 'love'. In a final movement, the same verb has to move to the node [C, C'] to initiate the clause at LF without disturbing other internal arguments. This subject is to be dropped at the interface level to meet the logical form. It is evident that if any other pro be used in a sentence when the verb is present, the same case assignment of the nominative is applied but pro is visible with different Agrs at the S-structure. For example, it can be [nu] 'we' first plural masculine and feminine as in nu-hibu, [tu] 'you singular and masculine' as in tu-hibu, [yu / or ya] 'he' as in yu-hibu and ya-hibu, and [ta] 'she' as in ta-hibu.

Not only does pro occur as a subject if the verb is in the imperfective, but also if it is in the perfective form as in (7).

LF

7a. lacib-   a-   ø-   bi   al   kurat-   i
    play   past   3rd,sg,masc with   det   ball   inst
    'He played with a ball'

(7b) is the D-structure representation for (7a)

D- Structure

7b. pro lacib-   a-   ø-   bi   al   kurat-   i
       he play   past   3rd,sg,masc with   det   ball   inst
    'He played with a ball'

(7c) is the S-structure representation for (7b).

S- Structure

7c. pro lacib-   a-   ø-   bi   al   kurat-   i
       he play   past   3rd,sg,masc with   det   ball   inst
    'He played with a ball'

The processes of government and case assignment of the nominative case are performed in the tree diagram as in (7d) of (7c).

7d.
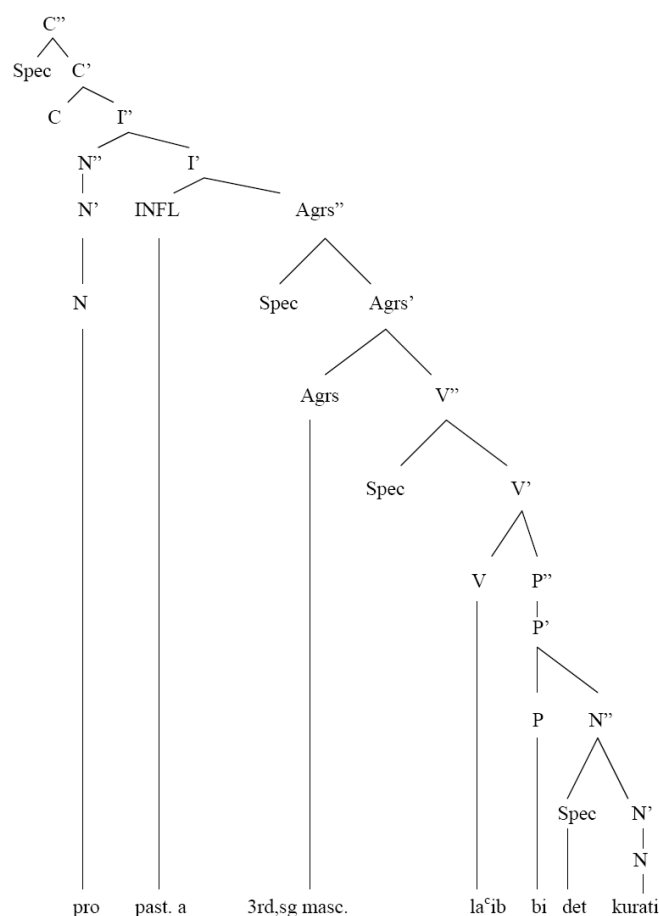
In (7d) pro 'he' is governed by INFL under the maximal projection I''. The second step is the V-movement of lacib 'play'. It moves to the node Agrs to check the ø- agreement feature represented as third person and becomes lacib 'play'.

Then it must move to the node INFL to check the past tense of [a] and becomes laciba 'played'. In a final movement, the same verb has to move to the node [C, C'] to initiate the clause at LF without disturbing other internal arguments as in (7e). This subject is to be dropped at the interface level to meet the logical form of this clause.

7e.
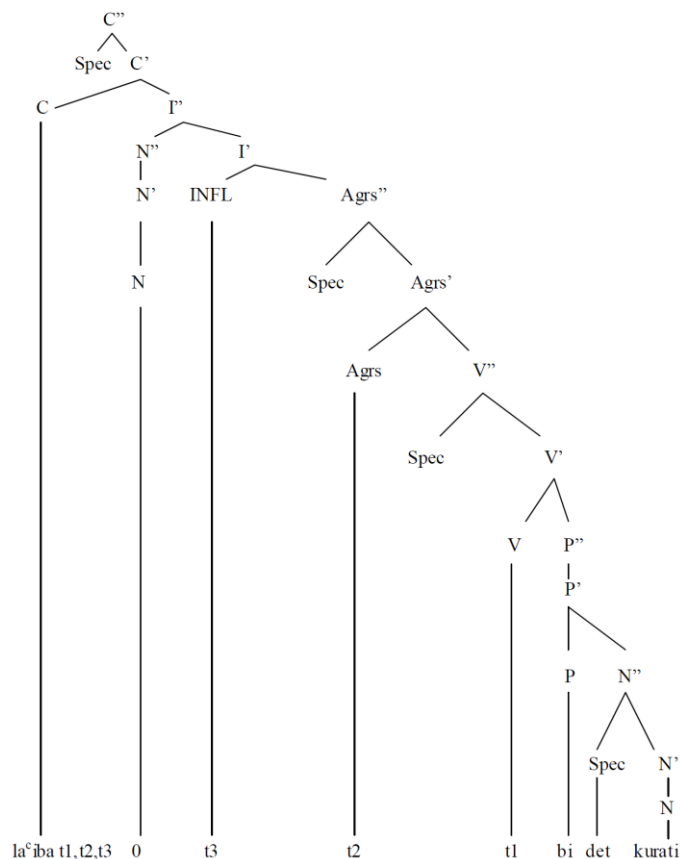
It is evident that only pro 'she' with the Agrs [t] can be used in this context and no other pro is used.

The category pro is also visible if the verb is in the imperative form when it is 2nd person singular and masculine as in (8).

LF
8a. ?ibtasim   0 !
     smile   pres.
     'Smile'

(8b) is the D- structure representation for (8a)
D- Structure
8b. pro   ?ibtasim   0 !
    you, sg, masc   smile   pres.
     'Smile'

(8c) is the S- structure representation for (8b)
S- Structure
8c. pro   ?ibtasim   0 !
    you, sg, masc   smile   pres.
     'Smile'

(8d) is the tree diagram representation of case assignment for (8c).
8d.
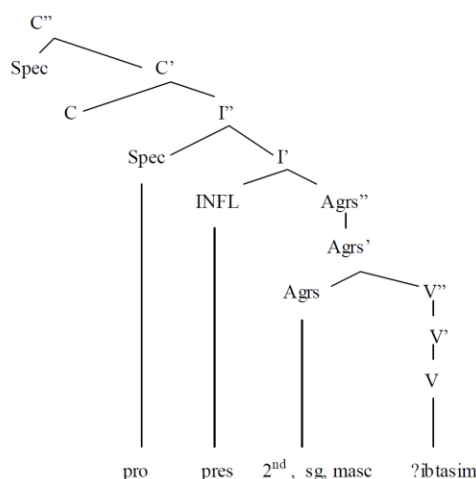
In (8d), pro 'you' is governed by INFL under the maximal projection I". It is the nominative case in this position. After this process, the verb ?ibtasim 'smile' has to move to Agrs to check the ø- agreement feature represented as second person and becomes ?ibtasim 'smile'. Then, it must move to the node INFL to check the present tense of [0] and becomes ?ibtasim 'smile'. In a final movement, the same verb has to move to the node [C, C'] to initiate the clause at LF. This subject is to be dropped at the interface level to meet the logical form of the imperfective in Arabic syntax.

B. Expletives and pro in Arabic Syntax

There is a syntactic relation between pro and expletives in the sense that both of them are subjects of a finite clause and they satisfy the EPP. It is obvious that expletives have no theta role i.e. there is no identical identities for them at all; they must have a case; while, pro has both a case and theta role. As compared to English, expletives are shown by 'it' as in [it is raining] and 'there' as in [there seems to be a thief outside]. Theoretically, both of them are posited at S-structure to meet the requirement of EPP. Thus, they are assigned the nominative case by the case-assignor INFL but without assigning a theta role because theta marking takes place at D-structure. The expletives appear in non pro-drop languages as a non-argument overt subject while pro appears as a covert subject in pro-drop languages. Chomsky(1982) argued that the subject position of a finite clause can be filled by pro but not PRO. The concept of expletives in Arabic has not been explained clearly in the literature; however, this work takes the lead in discussing this concept from new point of view. It is obvious that Arabic is like other languages insofar as dealing with structures that contain the expletive subjects but with certain metric variations with regard to quality of the N" that occurs in the subject position. If the verb refers to weather-types, Arabic opts for pro instead of expletives at D-structure and it is assigned both a theta role at D-structure and nominative case at S-structure; it meets the requirement of EPP at all levels of syntax as in (9).

9a. ?amtar-   a -   t   al-   baarihata
    rain   past   3rd, sg, fem   det   yesterday
    'It rained yesterday'
(9b) is the D-structure representation for (9a).
D-structure
9b. pro   ?amtar-   a -   t   al-   baarihata
    she   rain   past   3rd, sg, fem   det   yesterday
    'It rained yesterday'
(9c) is the S-structure representation for (9b).
S-structure
9c. pro   ?amtar-   a -   t   al-   baarihata
    she   rain   past   3rd, sg, fem   det   yesterday
    'It rained yesterday'
(9d) is the tree-diagram representation for (9c).
9d.
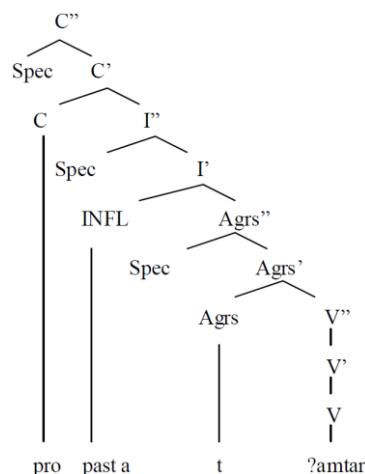
In (9d), the subject position is filled by the category pro which is visible with Agrs that is the feminine marker [t]. The category pro is governed by the case assignor INFL under the maximal projection of I" to which the nominative case is assigned. It obvious that pro can theoretically assign a theta role because it is posited at D-structure to meet the requirement of the EPP at all levels whether the subject is overt or covert. Thus, it is assigned the theta role of instrument by the V" ?amtarat 'rained'. The category pro is omitted at the interface level after the verb ?amtar 'rain' moves to the position of [Agrs, Agrs'] to check the agreement features of the feminine marker [t] and to the position of [INFL, I'] to check the past tense marker of [a]. In a final movement, it has to move to [C, C'] to initiate the word order of Arabic at LF as in (9e).

9e.
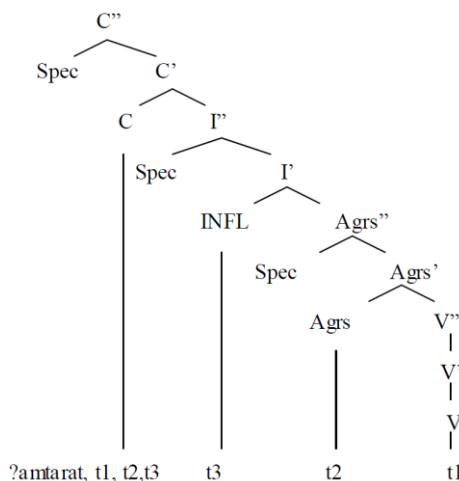
Suppose the subject is specified in (9c), then it can be the entity al- samaa?u 'the sky' ,or al-ghaymatu 'the cloud'. This N" occupies the subject position at all levels getting the same theta role and being assigned the same nominative case by the same case assignor, namely, INFL. The only difference between the two subjects is that in the latter the subject cannot be dropped as it becomes a separate referent expressions (R- expression). Other similar verbs that are related to weather are: ?athlajat 'snowed' that refers to al- samaa?u 'the sky' ,or al-ghaymatu 'the cloud', ?ashraqat 'rose' that refers to al-shmasu 'the sun', nawwarat 'enlightened' that refers to al- samaa?u 'the sky' and ?abraqat 'enlightened' that refers to al-ghaymatu 'the cloud'.

The category pro can occur in similar structures which are equal to the expletive of non-drop languages. For instance, the verbs yabduu 'seem' and yazhar 'appear' are specimens of the category. The instance (10) illustrates the analysis of the former verb.

LF

10a. ya-   bduu-   0 -   ø   ?anna-   hu   taalib-   un
     3rd,sg, masc   seem   pres.   3rd,sg, masc   that   he   student   nom
     'He seems that he is a student'

(10b) is the D-structure representation for (10a).

10b. pro   ya-   bduu-   0 -   ?anna-   hu   taalib-   un
     he   3rd,sg, masc   seem   pres.   that   he   student   nom
     'He seems that he is a student'

(10c) is the S-structure representation for (10b).
S-Structure
10c. pro ya-   bduu-   0 -   ?anna-   hu   taalib-   un
     he   3rd,sg, masc seem   pres.   that   he   student   nom
     'He seems that he is a student'
(10d) is the tree-diagram representation for (10c).
10d.

```
                              C"
                              |
                              C'
                        ┌─────────┐
                        C         I"
                             ┌────────┐
                            Spec      I'
                             |    ┌───────┐
                            INFL   Agrs"
                                ┌──────┐
                               Spec   Agrs'
                               ┌────────┐
                              Agrs     V"1
                                       |
                                       V'
                                   ┌────────┐
                                   V        C"
                                            |
                                            C'
                                       ┌─────────┐
                                       C         I"
                                            ┌────────┐
                                           Spec     I'
                                            |    ┌──────┐
                                           INFL   V"2
                                                  |
                                                  V'
                                              ┌───────┐
                                              V       A"
                                              |       |
pro   0        ya    bduu ?anna hu  pres   yakuunu  taalibun
```
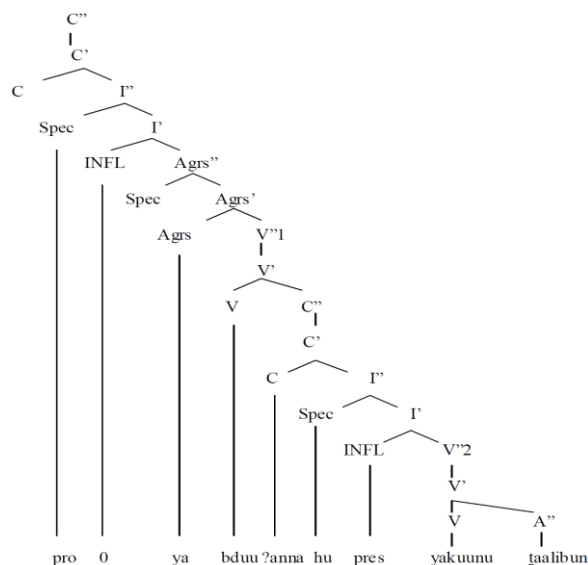
In (10d), the subject position matrix sentence is filled by the category pro which is seen by the Agrs marker [ya] and confirmed by the attached personal pronoun 'hu'. This prefix is to be attached to the verb bduu 'seem' in the process of derivation. The category pro is governed by the case assignor INFL under the maximal projection of I" to which the nominative case is assigned. The category pro is omitted at the interface level after the verb bduu 'seem' moves to the position of [Agrs, Agrs'] to check the agreement features of the third masculine marker [ya], to the position of [INFL, I'] to check the present tense and to move to [C, C'] to initiate the word order of Arabic at LF as in (10e).

10e.

```
                         C"
                    ┌─────────┐
                   Spec       C'
                         ┌─────────┐
                         C         I"
                              ┌────────┐
                             Spec      I'
                              |    ┌───────┐
                             INFL   Agrs"
                                 ┌──────┐
                                Spec   Agrs'
                                ┌────────┐
                               Agrs     V"
                                        |
                                        V'
                                    ┌────────┐
                                    V        C"
                                             |
                                             C'
                                        ┌─────────┐
                                        C         I"
                                             ┌────────┐
                                            Spec     I'
                                             |    ┌──────┐
                                            INFL    V"
                                                    |
                                                    V'
                                                ┌───────┐
                                                V       A"
                                                |       |
                                                        A'
                                                        |
                                                        A
                                                        |
yabduu  0       t3      t2     ?anna  hu   t1       0   taalibun

t1, t2, t3
```
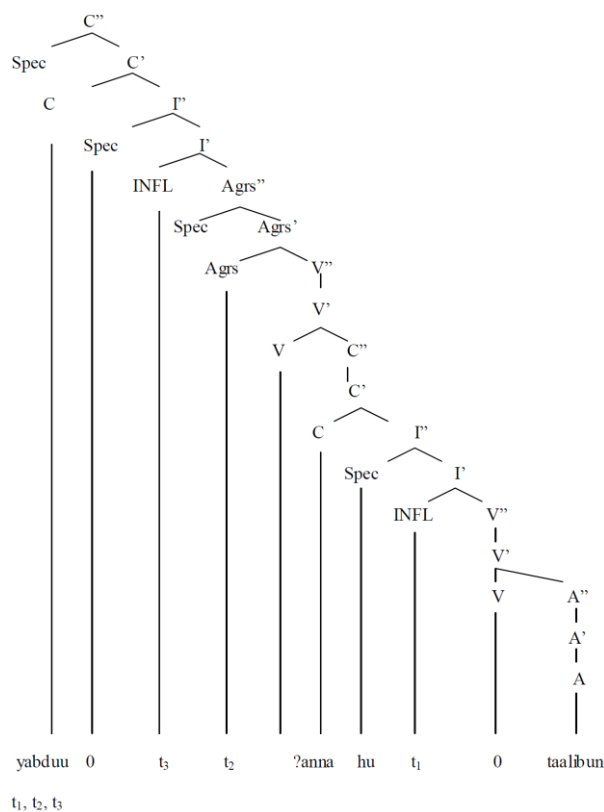
Though Agrs is maintained in the verb *yabdu* 'seem' pro can be manifested by other persons such as *?anna- ha* 'that she', *?anna- hum* 'they masculine', *?anna -hunna'* 'they feminine', *?anna -humaa* 'they daul', *?anna-ka'* you singular and masculine', *?anna-ki* 'you singular and feminine', *?anna-kumaa* 'you dual', *?anna-kum* 'you plural and masculine', *?anna-kunna* 'you plural and feminine', *?anna - ni* 'I' and *?anna - ni* 'we'. In short, the same process is applied to the verb *yazhar* 'appear' in Arabic syntax as it has the same sub-categorization and constituent selects C" headed by the complementizer *?anna* 'that'. In short, V-movement which was propagated by Jalabneh (2007) is neccssary to meet the directionality of case assignment, to avoid multiple movements of N"s and to meet the word structure order VSO at LF in Arabic syntax.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Though pro is a covert entity, it is assigned the nominative case by INFL under government. Theoretically, it is assumed that there is no reason why pro should not be governed at S- structure. The category pro is governed by INFL /and AGR and has the nominative case. Chomsky (1982) stated that "In the pro- drop languages the EC subject governed by AGR is pro with case" (p. 82 - 86). It was proved that pro is governed by INFL under I" as in (6). It is assigned the nominative case by the overt tense markers of INFL and supported by rich Agrs which help to specify the type of pro referent at S-structure. In (6) - in the imperfective form of the verb- pro can be visible with the Agrs [nu] 'we' as in nu-hibu, [tu] 'you singular and masculine' as in tu-hibu, [yu] 'he' as in yu-hibu and [ta] 'she' as in ta-hibu. Pro is also assigned the nominative case if the verb is in the perfective form as in (7); it refers only to third person singular and masculine 'he' with zero markers of Agrs and third person singular and feminine 'she' with [t] Agrs marker. Likewise if the form of the verb is in the imperative as in (8), the category pro is assigned the nominative case in the same process of government if the subject is merely second person singular and masculine. It was proved that pro fulfills the requirements of Extended Projection Principle in Arabic syntax. It is due to the fact that no sentence can be constructed without fulfilling the subject position with a subject whether covert or overt. Thus, in (6-8), the subject position is filled with pro at all levels of syntax.

There are a number of Agrs markers that specify the kind of pro in Arabic syntax at LF. For instance, if the verb is in the imperfective, the visible markers can be exemplified with different verbs as follows: ?u (I) as in ?uhibbu ' pro love', nu (we) as in nuhibbu ' pro love', tu (you, masc) as in tuhibbu ' pro love', tu (she) as in tuhibbu ' pro loves', yu (he) as in yuhibbu ' pro loves'. Another example is ?a as in ?aktubu (I) ' pro write', na (we) as in naktubu ' pro write', ta (you masc) as in taktubu ' pro write', ta (she) as in taktubu ' pro writes' and ya (he) as in yaktubu ' pro writes'. If the verb is in the perfective the visible marker is [t] (she) as in lacibat 'pro played' however, the third person singular masculine (he) is visible with zero markers as in laciba 'pro played'. In case the verb is imperative, pro as a second singular masculine only is seen with [?i / or ?u] Agrs markers for certain verbs as in ?ibcath 'send' and ?uktub 'write' and with zero Agrs markers as in kul 'eat'. It is proved that pro- drop languages do not accept expletives as subjects and instead pro occurs. This empty category assigns the nominative case at the S-structure. It is referential because the subject could be third person singular and feminine as in (9) which refers to al- samaa?u 'the sky' or al-ghaymatu 'the cloud', or al-shmasu 'the sun'. The category pro also could be third person singular and masculine whenever it occurs with subject raising verb of yabdu 'seem' as in (10).The subject pro is compulsory dropped at interface and LF. However, if the subject is to be overt, it has to be a separate pronoun or R- expression but they are not considered pros. Insofar as the V-movement is concerned, the verb is posited to the right of the matrix subject pro to perform certain functions such as theta marking in the V" and maintain the directionality of theory and not to violate any kind of principles. And then, the verb has to move to Agrs node to check agreement subject features and then to INFL position to check tense. The verb in a final movement has to move to occupy [C', C"] position to initiate the clause at PF.

VII. TRANSLITERATION OF THE ARABIC PHONEMIC SYMBOLS OF CONSONANTS

Arabic	Transliteration	Arabic	Transliteration
ا	?	ض	d
ب	b	ط	t
ت	t	ظ	z
ث	th	ع	Iᶜ
ج	j	غ	gh
ح	h	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	s	ي	y

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

VIII. STANDARD ARABIC PHONETIC SYMBOLS OF VOWELS
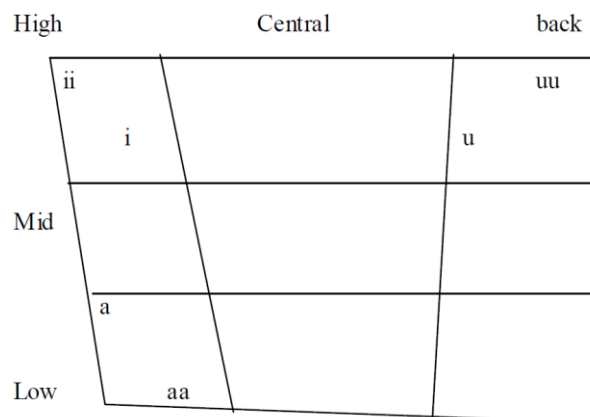
(c.f. Fari and et al, 2006, p. 74)

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Paragraph-level Errors in Chinese Undergraduate EFL Learners' Compositions: A Cohort Study

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Abstract—The present study investigated the paragraph-level errors in 90 English compositions produced by 30 Chinese undergraduate non-English majors on three tasks during eight weeks. Analyses of these errors and the survey data yielded the following main findings: (1) Among the four categories of paragraph-level errors, errors in paragraph development accounted for the largest percentage, followed by errors in paragraph coherence, errors in paragraph unity, and inconsistency in point of view. This pattern was generally observed for the distribution of the errors in each individual task; (2) the errors generally tended to increase across tasks. Errors in paragraph development in particular increased statistically significantly in the last two tasks; (3) the errors of all categories were generally inversely correlated with the students' writing performance, among which errors in paragraph development were significantly inversely related to the latter, and (4) several reasons were identified for the errors such as the lack of writing practice and the influence of Chinese. Thus, it can be concluded that paragraph-level errors are often persistent in students' English writing and are closely related to the quality of the writing. They hence deserve further research.

Index Terms—paragraph, error, writing performance

I. INTRODUCTION

English writing, along with other basic skills (listening, reading and speaking), has always been an issue of great concern to EFL teachers and researchers. Despite the strong desire to write well in English, quite a number of Chinese university students still remain incompetent in English writing. Both students and teachers increasingly feel frustrated and complain about the quality of the learning outcome. For example, the writing part in the National College English Test Band 4 has always been a great difficulty to test takers, usually having the lowest average score among the four testing parts, well below the passing level (National Educational Examinations Authority and National College English Test Committee, 2009).

Errors, among all other English writing problems, have become the biggest headache to all sides that are involved: learners, teachers, raters or any other readers. Learners simply hate errors, believing that their writing would be better if without any errors. Teachers are not happy to see the errors made by their students either. But still, they want to know why students have made the errors and how they can help to improve the situation. Just like symptoms which are often used by doctors to diagnose a disease, the errors can also be deployed by teachers, researchers or even learners themselves to assess learners' writing in English. Instead of hating the errors, teachers and/or researchers usually choose to examine them to find out where the problem is. To be fair, errors actually provide teachers and/or researchers with a unique opportunity to gain insight into the mysterious process of L2 writing in the same way that symptoms contribute to the discovery of how the human body functions. Meanwhile, paper raters and the employers have been voicing their complaints about the large number of errors in the written English of college graduates, which clearly harms the fluency and clarity of the written pieces. As a result, errors, though much researched, still remain one of the most concerned issues in both SL/FL writing and acquisition. The present study aimed to analyze the paragraph-level errors in 90 English compositions produced by 30 Chinese undergraduate non-English majors on three tasks over a period of 8 weeks, their developmental patterns over three writing tasks, their correlations with the students' writing performance, and the sources for the errors.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In spite of the many criticisms on error analysis, such as the disagreement on what constitutes an error, how to identify an error, and how to classify errors, error analysis (EA) still remains the most systematic approach to investigate learner errors.

Over the decades, many researchers have attempted to define what an error is. For example, Corder (1967) referred to an error as a breach of code, a deviation from what was regarded as the norm; James (1998) defined an error as an

unsuccessful bit of language; and Lennon (1991) regarded an error as a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts. Apparently, what is in common of these definitions is that they all define errors as a linguistic deviation. Recently, researchers have ventured to take a broader definition of an error to suit specific research purposes. For example, Zhang, Wu, Wang & Zhang (1995) identified both linguistic errors and rhetoric errors, thus including not only grammatical problems but discourse problems in their study.

Since its boom in 1970s, numerous studies have been done to describe and categorize errors at sentence, paragraph and discourse levels (Cheng, 1994; Frantzen, 1995; Hyland & Anan, 2006; Khuwaileh & Shoumali, 2000; Kim, 2001; Tang, 2000). For example, Kim (2001) analyzed the errors in 60 Korean university EFL learners' summary writing and found that syntactic errors were the most damaging, followed closely by lexical errors. Cheng (1994) examined 455 errors in the English compositions produced by six first-year English majors and three second-year English majors from a Chinese university in Beijing. The researcher groups the errors into four categories (morphological, lexical, syntactic, and semantic errors) with several subcategories in each type and concluded that syntactic errors were the most serious, followed by semantic errors and morphological errors. Nevertheless, the researcher did not provide any scheme of classifying the errors or explain what constituted each type of the errors.

Gradually, research has come to orient more on specific types of errors in SL/FL writing, which has resulted in richer findings (Chan, 2004; Crompton, 2005; Crusan 2002; Dam, 2001; Feng, Ogata & Yano, 2000; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; French, 2005; Hinkel, 2001; Hsin, 2003; Huang, 2001; Liu & Yang, 2006; Polio, 1997; Su, 2002). French (2005) explored the errors in 744 drafts composed by 248 students at Chukyo University to determine if there was a level of acceptance of errors because of the negative influence of the mother tongue, and if there was, whether these errors were becoming part of an accepted, standardized Japanese English. The results showed that there was little acceptance of third person -s, article and plural errors in student writing, but there was a measured degree of acceptance of in the following aspects: sentence combining and sentence fragments, omission of subject, generalizing or obscuring of subjects, and omission of expected superlatives. Zhang et al (1995) compared the writing performance of 138 non-English majors and 62 English majors of a Chinese university via a multiple choice test and an essay writing test. The results showed that the non-English majors did much better in the multiple choice task than in the writing task while the English majors did better the other way around, and that the non-English majors made far more errors in the writing task than the English majors did. In addition, they found that, for both English majors and non-English majors, rhetorical problems in their writing were much worse than grammatical problems.

As reviewed, the studies have generally revealed that syntactic and lexical errors are the most severe problems in learner's SL/FL writing. Even so, few studies have examined the errors across tasks over a longitudinal period of time or the relationship between the errors and students' writing performance in the target language. Moreover, fewer studies have focused on paragraph-level errors. Thus, the present study aimed to investigate the paragraph-level errors in 90 English compositions produced by 30 undergraduate non-English majors on three tasks over a period of 8 weeks. The following research questions are of particular interest:

(1) What is the general profile of the paragraph-level errors made by the university EFL students in their English writing?

(2) How do the errors develop in the three writing tasks over a period of eight weeks?

(3) How are the errors related to the students' writing performance?

(4) What are the general sources for the errors?

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

The present research was part of a larger project which aimed to explore errors at sentence, paragraph and discourse levels in the written compositions produced by Chinese undergraduate English learners.

Participants. 30 students from two natural English Writing classes consisting of 40 second-year non-English majors at a prestigious university in Beijing participated in the present study. Both classes lasted for 8 weeks, followed the same teaching plan, used the same teaching materials, conducted the teaching in the same procedure, and shared the same teaching assistant. With an age range from 19 to 21 and an average age of 20.3, the students were from various disciplines who were fairly proficient in English.

Instruments. To answer the four research questions, the present study collected the students' writing products and their scores on each product, and administered a survey, as detailed below.

The writing sample. The two English Writing classes were required to finish 4 writing tasks (free writing, letter writing, review writing, and argumentative writing) during the eight weeks. All the compositions, 120 pieces in total, produced by the 30 students were collected as potential samples for the present study. However, task B (letter writing) was excluded from the final analyses mainly because most students employed many fixed expressions or sentence structures in their writing, which resulted in 90 pieces as the valid samples for the present study. And since the students produced either expository or argumentative pieces on task A (free writing), expository essays on task C (review writing), and argumentative essays on task D (argumentative writing), all the compositions yielded by the students on the three tasks were expository or argumentative in nature. Thus the influence of genre on the errors the students made and their writing performance can be largely avoided.

The survey. In order to gain the students' perceptions on the errors in their writing, a 13-item self-designed survey (see Appendix), together with 3 open-ended questions, was administered to them at the end of the eighth class, which was answered in 10 minutes. The questionnaire was written in Chinese and English to avoid confusion in understanding and covered the following two aspects: (1) general perspective on the difficulty of paragraph writing in English (items 1-5), and (2) perceptions on the possible causes for paragraph-level errors in their English writing (items 6-13). The survey was designed on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'Strongly disagree' to 'Strongly agree' with values 1-5 assigned to the descriptors respectively. In case the respondents might have other ideas about the difficulties and causes for the errors in their English writing, three open-ended questions were added to the survey.

English writing performance. All the participants' scores in the three writing tasks at different times during the eight weeks were collected respectively as their writing performance in the course.

Data analysis. The scheme of classifying written errors developed by Kramer, Leggett and Mead (1995) was employed in the present study. During the coding process, the first two researchers read every piece carefully and identified 1138 errors at various levels, of which 105 were paragraph-level errors, with an inter-rater reliability of .892. The coded errors were then entered into SPSS and analyzed in terms of frequency to reveal the general picture of the errors made by the students across tasks. After that, paired samples t-tests were run to identify the developmental patterns of the errors across tasks. Then, correlational analyses were conducted to examine how the errors were related to the student's writing performance. Meanwhile, the survey data were analyzed in terms of frequency and percentage to reveal the students' perceptions on the difficulties and possible causes for making paragraph-level errors in their English writing. The results were integrated into the description and discussion of the actual errors found in the writing pieces. Finally, the answers to the open-ended questions were analyzed and incorporated into the discussion of the errors.

IV.   RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A.   *General Profile of the Paragraph-level Errors*

1. General profile of the paragraph-level errors of the whole sample

Of 1138 identified errors in the 90 writing pieces on three tasks, 105 were paragraph-level errors, accounting for 9% of the total number of errors. These 105 errors were then grouped into four categories (P1-P4), as shown in Table 1, since according to Kramer et al. (1995), paragraphs are generally expected to have a unified topic, to be fully developed and to be coherent, no matter what the writing genre might be. Among the four types of paragraph-level errors, errors in paragraph development (P2) accounted for the largest percentage (43%), followed by P3 (errors in paragraph coherence) (28%), P1 (errors in paragraph unity) (18%), and P4 (inconsistency in point of view) (11%). This implies that the participants had the biggest difficulty in paragraph development and paragraph coherence.

TABLE 1:
PARAGRAPH-LEVEL ERRORS OF THE WHOLE SAMPLE

Types of paragraph-level errors	Number and percentage
P1 (errors in paragraph unity)	19(18%)
P2 (errors in paragraph development)	45(43%)
P3 (errors in paragraph coherence)	29(28%)
P4 (inconsistency in point of view)	12(11%)
Total	105(100%)

Errors in paragraph unity

The unity of a paragraph is derived from a controlling idea around which the paragraph is organized, a paragraph that lacks unity jumps from idea to idea, topic to topic, with no clear sense of purpose (Kramer et al., 1995). In the present study, errors in paragraph unity were defined as failing to show a controlling idea or having more than one controlling idea, or having a topic sentence that doesn't really control all the ideas in the paragraph. Altogether 19 (18%) errors of this kind were coded in the study. The following were two examples excerpted from the students' writing.

(1) Charlie is a trier, but the ups and downs of his intelligence can serve as a reflection of our human society. Through his innocence, we can see the selfish and apathy of us normal people, and through his eminence, we can see the interest-oriented nature of us normal people. Sometimes, we should even learn from those mentally-retarded people and we are no superiority to them. The twisting plot, the eminence at a time, the up and down of a man's life, the poor mouse Algernon… All made this fiction a fascinating one! (Task B)

(2) The film described the life of the Sicilian back when movie was a new technology, showing how passionate the audiences were in watching films. However, the world changed, leaving the cinema less and less audience. In the end of the film, Salvatore went back to Sicily on hearing the death of Alfredo, only to see the dilapidated cinema being torn down. Seeing the moment it crashed, I could feel the sadness filled in the air. No complicated plots but touching, the film seemed a memorial of Sicily's past—rebuilt in the eye of Toto. (Task B)

In example (1), it seems that the writer intended to explain how the ups and downs of the main character's intelligence could serve as a reflection of the human society. And the following two sentences explained accordingly how the hero's IQ level before and after the experimental intelligence-improving surgery reflected the human society.

However, the fourth sentence, also the last sentence in the paragraph, suddenly changed its direction, beginning to comment on the fiction –a fascinating one, which appeared as a new topic or idea, not so related to the controlling idea specified by the topic sentence (i.e., the first sentence), thus causing the paragraph to break apart.

Example (2) shows another problem in paragraph unity. The first three sentences seemed to indicate a brief summary of the story in the film, but the last two sentences introduced two different ideas: the writer's emotional reaction to the film (sentence 4) and the writer's comment on the film (sentence 5). So the paragraph generally covered three ideas, which were not strung together by a super-ordinate controlling idea of the paragraph. The paragraph thus lacked unity, which could be strengthened by either giving a topic sentence to cover the three ideas within the paragraph, or developing only one of the three ideas, leaving the other two to be developed in new paragraphs.

As such, the students seemed to have (much) difficulty in maintaining the unity of paragraphs in English writing. They might start the paragraph quite well, with a good topic sentence at the beginning, as shown in example (1). Nevertheless, as the writing continued, the topic sentence seemed to lose control gradually, more less related ideas crept in, finally diverting from the controlling idea. It almost seemed that once the topic sentence was out of sight (beyond certain numbers of sentences), the controlling idea was out of the writer's mind too (the topic sentence was totally forgotten). Another problem about paragraph unity common in the students' English writing was that the ideas were indeed related somehow, but due to the lack of a controlling topic sentence, the ideas scattered around loosely, thus damaging the unity of the paragraph.

For one thing, these problems in paragraph unity were probably generated by the lack of a proper writing outline before the writing started due to limited time or laziness. A proper outline of a paragraph provides focus and direction for the actual writing, therefore ensuring an overall view of the paragraph in advance and limiting the possibility of drifting off the focus during the process of actual writing. This hypothesis was actually supported by the students self-reports in the survey: 77% of the respondents (strongly) agreed that their paragraph lacked unity or focus because they just followed their instinctive thoughts during the actual writing (item 7). Namely, their pens went wherever their thoughts went, without a proper outline in mind or in paper in advance. The survey data also revealed that 54% of the respondents (strongly) disagreed with item 10 (it is not necessary to have a topic sentence for an English paragraph), denoting that most students did realize the importance of a topic sentence in a paragraph and had probably done so in their written compositions. However, the repeated occurrence of new ideas unrelated to the controlling idea in a paragraph suggested some students had (much) difficulty in achieving paragraph unity.

For another, the lack of a topic sentence to cover the ideas which were loosely linked in a paragraph might be due to the influence of Chinese writing. As suggested by Liu (1999), it has never been explicitly required to write something like a topic sentence for a paragraph in Chinese, though Chinese writing does require a focused topic in each paragraph. As to whether the focused topic is written out in the form of a topic sentence or is only implied, it doe not matter much; contrarily, it is often explicitly preferred to write out a topic sentence for each paragraph in English writing. Contradictory to this, 67% of the respondents (strongly) vetoed that their failure to provide a topic sentence for a paragraph was the result of Chinese influence, while only 23% believed so (item 8). Subtle as it is, it needs further research.

Errors in paragraph development

Paragraph development means that the controlling idea and any other subordinate ideas within a paragraph should be sufficiently explained or illustrated; a paragraph which lacks development is one that introduces a topic but fails to provide sufficient information to explain it to readers (Kramer et al., 1995). Accordingly, an error in paragraph development in the present study was defined as failing to supply enough explanation to a controlling topic, or a topic statement in the case of argumentative writing, or failing to supply the right information or related information needed to elaborate on the topic. 45 (43%) errors of this kind were coded in the present study, meaning that most errors at the paragraph level existed in paragraph development. Consistent with this, the survey data revealed that 74% of the respondents (strongly) endorsed item 1 that they had (great) difficulty in developing a paragraph. The following are two examples.

(3) Plan earlier, fly higher: first year in the university is the very time to make a life-long career path, so you can get well prepared for the society before the graduation. (Task A)

(4) The emergence of projection contributed a lot to the revolution (of cinema) ---- motion pictures came out as the ultimate form of mass consumption. In the eyes of exhibitors, movies accompanied by other forms of entertainment were favored by the large audience, so we could easily find movies with live performance or the active involvement of a master of ceremonies. However, the substance of the movies themselves was mass-produced so that prerecorded material could be easily reproduced with little or no participation by the exhibitor. Finally, exhibitors were for this change. (Task C)

Example (3) started with a piece of advice to university freshmen, namely plan earlier, fly higher, which could well be perceived as the topic sentence of the paragraph. Upon reading this topic sentence, readers probably expected to read what plan earlier and fly higher meant and how to achieve the purpose in the first year. Surprisingly, nothing like this could be found thereafter. Thus, the writer failed to provide sufficient supporting details for the topic in this paragraph.

The writer of example (4) did try to explain the topic sentence (i.e., the emergence of projection contributed a lot of the revolution of cinema), but unfortunately, the explanation did not serve the purpose. What the writer actually

explained in the rest of the paragraph was how movies accompanied by live performances came into being (sentence 2), how movies were produced at that time (sentence 3), and what were the exhibitors' attitudes towards the change (sentence 4), none of which was related to the contribution of the emergence of projection. The topic sentence was thus unsupported.

A careful reading of all the 90 pieces revealed that the lack of details and examples in developing paragraphs was in fact quite common among the students' English writing. Consistent with this, the survey data showed that 74% of the respondents (strongly) held that they had (great) difficulty in developing the topic sentence of a paragraph (item 1), and that 57% admitted that they often failed to provide sufficient details or examples to support a topic sentence (item 5). This difficulty of developing paragraphs might be attributed to two factors. One was the lack of adequate vocabulary, which consequently resulted in the students' diffidence in writing out details and concrete examples, since detailed description or narration often requires more specific words. Therefore, many students preferred to avoid details but stick to superficial explanation, with the purpose of avoiding making (more) lexical errors. The other factor might be the insufficient consideration of the reader's needs. Some students might be too self-involved in conducting the explanation, simply assuming that the reader would understand them and follow their reasoning. Unfortunately, it was always not the case. That is probably why a second voice is often needed during the writing or revising process, usually in the form of peer review. In addition, other factors such limited time, pressure or anxiety, students' laziness or ignorance of certain topics, and difficulty of the topic might contribute to the poor development of paragraphs in the students' English writing as well.

Errors in paragraph coherence

Paragraph coherence requires that the thoughts within a paragraph be linked together (Kramer et al., 1995). In this sense, coherence involves both positioning the ideas or sentences in a paragraph so that they can relate logically to one another, and using certain connecting devices to clarify relationships between the ideas (Kramer et al., 1995). Accordingly, an error in paragraph coherence was defined as an ineffective or illogical organization of the thoughts in a paragraph, or a failure to provide necessary or proper connecting devices between ideas in the present study. Altogether 29 (28%) errors of this kind were coded in the present study, indicating that the students generally did not have much difficulty in achieving paragraph coherence. This was further supported by the students' self-reports on the survey. As shown in the Appendix, 37% of the respondents reported that a proper organization of ideas in an English paragraph was a difficulty for them (item 2); 37% thought they had trouble in making a paragraph coherent and logical (item 3); 20% admitted that they often made errors concerning paragraph organization (item 4); 33% agreed that their writing often lacked necessary transitional markers (item 6); and 12 (40%) students reported to have problems concerning paragraph coherence in their English compositions (item 15). Namely, most students were able to achieve coherence in paragraphs to varying degrees in their English writing.

The errors in paragraph coherence identified in the present study were mainly of three forms: ineffective organization of the ideas, the lack of transitional markers and the misuses of cohesive markers, as illustrated by the following two examples.

(5) But as a freshman, everything in the university was new and challenging for me. This was my first time to leave home and live in the school. At the beginning, I didn't feel habitable at all. I always missed my parents and looked forward to going back soon. There was some difficulty in my stud, too. I found that the calculus was difficult to learn. I couldn't get all what the teacher had said in the class. I had to spend much time in doing my homework. So I always felt very exhausted and upset. (Task A)

(6) This novel is so brilliant that almost every reader will fall in love with it as soon as they made contact with it. Nevertheless, I am sure about that as long as they know something about Jane Austen, they will fall in love with her too. (Task B)

The writer did a very good job in example (5) regarding paragraph unity and development in that both an effective topic sentence and sufficient details were provided in the paragraph. Nevertheless, when it comes to coherence, it was not that satisfying. For one thing, the details about the difficulties experienced by the writer were listed one after another, without a clear classification or order, which could actually fall into two groups: one related to the writer's homesickness and the other related to the difficulties in study. If so, a better and clearer organization would be achieved. For another, the details loosely scattered around in the paragraph, which needed to be linked together with effective cohesive devices. The following is a revised version of the example which demonstrates much higher coherence by grouping the details and adding some transitional markers.

But as a freshman, everything in the university was new and challenging to me. Homesickness and study were the two most difficult things. For one thing, since it was the first time I left home and lived in a school, I didn't get used to the life at all and always missed my parents, looking forward to going home all the time. For another, some courses such as Calculus were really difficult for me. I could not follow the teachers in class either. What's more, I had to spend much time in doing my homework. As a result, I always felt very exhausted and upset.

Some cohesive devices were deployed in example (6) to link the ideas together. However, the word nevertheless was clearly misused since no transition or contrast could be implied by the preceding and the following sentences.

Many factors could have contributed to some students' inability to achieve paragraph coherence in their English writing. As shown in the Appendix, around or more than 50% of the respondents perceived lack of English writing

practice (item 9) and insufficient knowledge about coherence in paragraph writing (item 11) as the main contributors to the loose organization and lack or misuse of transitional markers in their English writing. Compared with the concepts like unity and development, coherence is often considered to be more abstract. And some students even did not know the word coherence, let alone understand how coherence works or is achieved. As a result, even good writers might not do so well in maintaining paragraph coherence. The lack of writing practice might have also disabled some students to achieve paragraph coherence in their English writing. Meanwhile, 17% of the respondents believed that the lack of paragraph coherence was because of the influence of Chinese (item 12). According to Zuo (1995), logic in Chinese is often realized by the semantic implications rather than the use of specific transitional markers. In other words, in Chinese, it is not necessary to provide specific cohesive markers to indicate the logic between ideas, as long as the logic can be inferred semantically. For example, it is quite all right in Chinese for several ideas to be listed individually without any logical linkers, as shown in the following paragraph in Chinese.

凡事都有两面性。塞翁失马焉知非福。想开了，心情就会好些 (Zuo, 1995). (Literal English translation: Everything has two sides. Every cloud has a silver lining. If you can look at things in this way, you will be in a better mood.)

In this paragraph, the second sentence serves as an exemplified explanation of the first sentence, while the third sentence indicates a result that can be drawn from the first two ideas. Different from English, no logical linkers can be identified in the paragraph, yet the meaning can be easily comprehended.

Furthermore, the errors in paragraph coherence might be the result of writing as a writer-orientated process instead of a reader-orientated process. Ideas that are connected in the writer's mind may not seem obviously connected to the reader. Therefore, it is important for the writer to clearly mark the relationships between sentences and ideas. To do this, the writer has to organize his or her thoughts logically and to provide clear transitional markers to indicate any change in the flow of ideas in a paragraph. The pity is that many students were too preoccupied with expressing their own ideas to consider whether the reader could follow them.

Inconsistency in point of view

A unified, developed and coherent paragraph can still fail if it is not consistent within itself in terms of point of view (Kramer et al., 1995). If information is being reported from the writer's point of view, the reader expects that point of view will continue throughout the paragraph. In the present study, an error in the consistency in point of view was defined as the wrong shift in person, tense or number between sentences within a paragraph, for these wrong shifts could make the reader confused about who was speaking and to whom (person), what the time sequence was (tense), and how many were being talked about (number). The following are some typical examples.

(7) What's more, people who are always late make themselves look selfish, they may be alienated by others. In a word, to be late can both confuse the life of others and destroy your life. Remember to be on time next time! ... (Task A)

(8) Judy was brought up in an orphan asylum. One of the trustees of the asylum, who remains unknown to Judy, offered to pay her way through college including her tuition and monthly allowance when she was eighteen-year-old. The trustee plans to educate her to be a writer and the writing of monthly letters is the only thing he requires…(Task B)

Example (7) discussed the consequences of being late. At the beginning, the writer used the plural third person form, people and they, to refer to his or her target in criticizing unpunctuality. This was in fact a good strategy in that this would make the reader side with the writer. However, in the second and the last sentences, the writer suddenly changed to your and you, directing the criticism suddenly to the reader. This unwise change in person reference upset the reader, making him/her feeling offended. Example (8) showed an inconsistency in tense as indicated by the underlined parts in the paragraph. The shift between past and present tense indicated a disorder in time sequence in the paragraph, thus confusing the reader.

A shift in person, tense or number is necessary under certain circumstances, which may help to clarify who is talking or who is being talked about, and what is taking place. However, an unnecessary/wrong shift in these three aspects proves to be confusing and/or distracting to readers, making it (more) difficult for them to understand the writing.

The present study identified 12 (11%) errors of inconsistency in point of view, of which 5 were concerned with wrong shift in tense, 4 in number, and 3 in person.

All the five shifts in tense occurred in Task C (review writing) where a story in a film or in a book was summarized, which indicated that some students were unsure about what tense should be used in reporting a fiction story. And this uncertainty was most likely caused by the fact that the story in the film or book is usually told in past tense, while the book or the film itself remains a general fact in reality. The four coded errors in shift in number all involved the wrong shift between the third person single form and the third person plural form, which was probably caused by the understanding that a category can be realized by both the whole population and a single specimen from the category. For example, when the category of engineers is to be talked about, both the expression *engineers* and the expression *an engineer* can be used. Alternatively, both of the sentences *Engineers are usually very busy people* and *An engineer is usually a very busy person* actually mean the same thing. Therefore, with such knowledge in mind, the students firmly believed that there was nothing wrong in saying *University graduates often have trouble in finding a good job for themselves. ... What a student has learned in school is often considered out of date in society…*. However, the students failed to understand that even though the above two sentences mean the same thing, the two person references, namely *engineers* and *an engineer*, are seldom used together in one paragraph or even in one essay to indicate the category. The convention requires only one be used consistently throughout the whole paragraph or the whole essay. All the three

wrong shifts in person happened in task A (free writing) when the writer was the witness of or the person who experienced what happened or was described in the writing. Instead of sticking to the first or third person point of view when narrating what happened, the writer shifted between the two, thus confusing the reader. The following excerpt is a good example.

The students in Tsinghua University are too lucky to have so many students' clubs and associations. You may think they are distractions for our study. In fact, if you join the right club, it can help you a lot in study… (Task A)

2. General profile of the paragraph-level errors in individual tasks

As noted from Table 2, in each individual task, errors about consistency in point of view (P4) (9%, 13% and 12% for tasks A, C, and D respectively) were the least frequently made; errors in paragraph coherence (P3) (59%) were predominant in task A while errors in paragraph development (P2) (59%) were predominant in task D; and P1, P2 and P3 displayed an even distribution in task C. This suggests that the participants had the biggest difficulty in paragraph development and paragraph coherence, conformant with the finding of the whole sample.

TABLE 2:
PARAGRAPH-LEVEL ERRORS IN INDIVIDUAL TASKS

Type of paragraph-level errors	Task A	Task C	Task D
P1	4/18%	7/29%	8/14%
P2	3/14%	7/29%	35/59%
P3	13/59%	7/29%	9/15%
P4	2/9%	3/13%	7/12%
Total:	22/100%	24/100%	59/100%

B. Developmental Patterns of the Errors across Tasks

A cross-comparison of the errors reported in Table 2 shows that, among the three tasks, task A yielded the largest number of errors in paragraph coherence (P3), and task D had the largest number of errors in paragraph unity (P1), paragraph development (P2), and inconsistency in point of view (P4). Meanwhile, Table 2 shows that the total number of paragraph-level errors increased to be 24 in task C and 59 in task D from 22 in task A. A similar pattern was observed for such specific types of paragraph-level errors as P1 (4, 7 and 8 for tasks A, C, and D respectively), P2 (3, 7 and 35 for tasks A, C and D respectively), and P4 (2, 3, and 7 for tasks A, C, and D respectively). The number of P3 decreased to be 7 in task C from 13 in task A and then increased to be 9 in task D. It seems that the participants tended to commit more paragraph-level errors in tasks C and D. This might be because paragraph writing was less a focus than sentence writing in class during the course. Nevertheless, not all the differences were significant, as proved by the paired samples t-tests results reported in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
RESULTS OF PAIRED SAMPLES T-TESTS

Type of errors	Tasks A vs C		Tasks A vs D		Tasks C vs D	
	t	p	t	p	t	p
P1	.902	.375	.94	.354	.205	.839
P2	1.44	.161	**5.57**	.000	**4.88**	.000
P3	-1.65	.110	-.891	.380	.441	.662
P4	.372	.712	1.22	.231	1.28	.211
Total	.403	.710	**5.61**	.000	**5.59**	.000

Table 3 shows that significant difference occurred in P2 (paragraph development) (t = 5.57, p = .000) and overall paragraph-level errors (t = 5.61, p = .000) between tasks A and C. It was the same when tasks C and D were compared (t = 4.88 and 5.59 for P2 and overall paragraph level errors respectively, p = .000). Alternatively, compared with task A, the participants made significantly more paragraph-level errors and errors in paragraph development in task C, and in task D when compared with task C. Namely, these errors were not only persistent, but going from bad to worse, which is hence worth further research.

C. Correlations between the Errors and Students' Writing Performance

To determine how the paragraph-level errors were correlated with the students' writing performance, correlation analyses were run. The results are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4:
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE ERRORS AND WRITING PERFORMANCE

	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total
A	-.018	-.014	-.237	-.013	-.261
C	-.218	-.217	-.206	-.168	-.262
CD	-.214	-.363*	-.217	-.219	-.371*

Notes: * = p<.05
A, B, C = students' scores in writing tasks A, B and C respectively

As shown in Table 4, overall paragraph-level errors, as well the four specific categories of paragraph-level errors, was inversely related to the students' performance in all the three tasks. Among the correlations, P2 (paragraph development) (r = -.363) and overall paragraph-level errors (r = -.371) were significantly negatively correlated with the students' performance in task D. In other words, the weaker a writer was at developing a paragraph, the worse s/he performed in a writing task, the more paragraph-level errors a writer made, the worse s/he performed in a writing task; or vice versa.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The present study examined the paragraph-level errors in 90 compositions written by 30 Chinese undergraduate EFL learners on three tasks during eight weeks. Analyses of the compositions yielded 105 paragraph-level errors grouped into four categories, among which errors in paragraph development accounted for the largest percentage, followed by errors in paragraph coherence, errors in paragraph unity, and inconsistency in point of view. This pattern was generally observed for the distribution of the errors in each individual task. A cross-comparison of the errors across tasks shows that the students tended to make more paragraph-level errors in tasks C and D. Errors in paragraph development in particular increased statistically significantly in tasks C and D. Correlation analyses revealed that the paragraph-level errors of all categories were negatively correlated with the students' performance in each writing task, among which errors in paragraph development were significantly inversely related to the latter. Meanwhile, a number of causes for the errors such as lack of writing practice and the influence of Chinese were identified and discussed.

As discussed in the paper, 105 paragraph-level errors were identified, accounting for 9% of the total number of errors of all kinds in the 90 pieces, meaning that paragraph-level errors were not a big problem for the participants. Even so, since these errors proved to be inversely related to the students' writing performance and some were persistent across tasks, they are worth further research on how to help students write more effective paragraphs and ultimately improve the quality of their English writing. Meanwhile, the findings of the present study show that the teaching and training of English writing at the tertiary level should focus on paragraph writing as well, thus enabling them to make less paragraph-level errors across tasks over a long period of training. As students, it is beneficial for them to be aware of the difference between Chinese and English and try their best to avoid the negative influence of their mother tongue and write English in the mainstream style. At the same time, it is better for them to practice more writing and be more careful when writing in English.

APPENDIX: PERCEPTIONS OF THE DIFFICULTIES AND PARAGRAPH-LEVEL ERRORS IN ENGLISH WRITING

Directions: This survey aims to explore students' perceptions of the difficulties and paragraph-level errors in their English writing. Please read the statements carefully and choose an alternative that suits you best from the five choices: SD = Strongly disagree; D = Disagree; N = Not sure; A = Agree; SA = Strongly agree. All the data collected herewith will be used for research only.

Name: _____   Gender: _____   Age: _____

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. 写英语作文时，我觉得"展开并阐释段落主题"很难 (When writing in English, I think it rather difficult to develop and elaborate on a topic sentence)。	0%	17%	10%	47%	27%
2. 写英语作文时，我觉得"如何使段落结构清晰"很难 (When writing in English, I think it rather difficult to have a clear organization of a paragraph)。	10%	43%	10%	30%	7%
3. 写英语作文时，我觉得"如何使段落连贯并有逻辑性"很难 (When writing in English, I think it rather difficult to make a paragraph coherent and logical)。	3%	33%	27%	30%	7%
4. 我的英语作文的段落连贯性、逻辑性差 (I am poor at making a paragraph coherent and logical when writing in English)。	10%	57%	13%	20%	0%
5. 写英语作文时，我写不出一些具体事实或论据来支持段落的主题 (When writing in English, I can't provide sufficient details or examples to support a topic sentence)。	0%	23%	20%	47%	10%
6. 我写的英语段落常因缺乏过渡性的表达而显得连贯性差 (My English paragraph lacks coherence because of the lack of transitional markers)。	7%	30%	30%	33%	0%
7. 我的英语段落结构松散主要是因为随想随写，之前没有列出提纲 (My English paragraph is often loosely organized because I write whatever comes into my mind instead of following an outline)。	3%	10%	10%	54%	23%
8. 我的英语段落没有主题句主要是因为受汉语作文习惯的影响 (The lack of a topic sentence in my English paragraph is mainly due to the influence of Chinese)。	20%	47%	10%	20%	3%
9. 我的英语段落结构松散主要是因为平时写作练习不够 (My English paragraphs are often loosely organized mainly due to the lack of writing practice)。	7%	13%	27%	43%	10%
10. 写英语作文时，我觉得不必非要有段落主题句，只要意思说明白就可以 (When writing in English, I don't think it is necessary to have a topic sentence for a paragraph)。	17%	37%	23%	23%	0%
11. 我的英语作文逻辑性差是因为我不熟悉英语的思维方式 (The lack of logic in my English writing is because I am not familiar with English way of thinking)。	3%	30%	20%	40%	7%
12. 我的英语作文逻辑性差是因为受汉语思维的影响 (The lack of logic in my English writing is the result of the influence of Chinese way of thinking)。	20%	50%	13%	17%	0%
13. 我的英语作文逻辑性差是因为自己本身的逻辑性差 (The lack of logic in my English writing is because I am not good at logic)。	10%	30%	30%	30%	0%

14. 写英语作文时，我感觉最难的是 (When writing in English, I feel the greatest difficulty lies in)
_____

15. 写英语作文时，我常犯的错误有 (When writing in English, the errors I often make are)
_____

16. 我的英语段落结构松散主要是因为 (The loose organization of my English paragraphs is mainly because of)
_____

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The Application of Coordinate Translation Model (CTM) in Medical Translation Practice

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Abstract—Since human beings speak different tongues, translation exists (Steiner, 1975, p. 51). Translation, furthermore, exists partly as human contributions to science and technology need to be globally shared. Thus, scientific translation can not be ignored due to its mission to disseminate scientific knowledge beyond the national borders. This research sought to explore if medical students can grow out of medical translation difficulties and enjoy translation activity which Karra (2000) depicts as "magical task". 79 fouth-year students from the two classes, one treated as the experimental group (EG) and the other as the control group (CG), from Pham Ngoc Thach University of Medicine (PNTUM), who were attending the fourth course of English (English 4), were invited to participate in the research, whose findings gave a glimpse back at strengths and weaknesses in students' medical translation skill as well as demonstrated the positive impact of the application of Coordinate Translation Model (CTM) on the quality of learners' medical translation.

Index Terms—scientific translation, medical translation, translation unit, Coordinate Translation Model (CTM)

I. INTRODUCTION

In human history, cultural exchange commenced along with the emergence of culture. Translation, a cultural phenomenon and a means of cultural exchange, has brought a community beyond its spatial and temporal dimensions as contended by Kelly (2004): "Without translation, there is no history of the world." Without translation, our world would encompass secluded oases, which would develop separately and have their own histories without contributing to the world history.

Translation in general and scientific translation in particular have formed a bridge for the exchange of scientific knowledge, which has exposed a scientific community to the discoveries and inventions of mankind. Together with the entry of Western medicine, medical translation has produced the shift in Vietnamese beliefs about the pathogenesis of malaria from the toxicity of water, which led to the formation of the term Sốt r ẻt ngã nước (malaria caused by the toxic water), to the Plasmodium parasite, and removed the morphs ngã nước (caused by the toxic water) from the term.

Notwithstanding the value of scientific translation as a "pollinator of science" (Fishbach, 1993), numerous scientists nowadays turn their back on the contributions of translation as well as the usefulness of translation skill by maintaining that translation is a roundabout path to the fast flux of scientific information in the world compared to their direct approach via their own English competence. Scientists also hesitate to visit translated scientific texts due to their semantic divergence from the souce texts or their low readability. Scientific translation, furthermore, is portrayed as poorly written by Newmark (1988, p. 160) and even as mundane and mechanical and lacking in academic value by Schleiermacher (1813, cited in Snell-Hornby, 1988, p. 11).

Does scientists' individual approach to science through their own English proficiency, nonetheless, assume communitivity? Human knowledge is the common asset, and translation assists in deciphering linguistic codes and thereby sharing this asset with the wider community as alleged by Bui (2006) that translation is to increase the power of the community and to enable the next generations to fly high and far. Without that common ground, the sudden "creativity" is hardly of quality except a bit of empty fame and contrasts with "exotericism" (not "esotericism"), which is inherently the nature of science and humanity (Bui, 2006).

Building scientific translation skill in students enables them to share their knowledge with their colleagues as well as with the community. This research sought to locate where learners were in their translation practice and explore whether, through the application of Coordinate Translation Model (CTM) introduced to them, they could grow out of translation difficulties and enjoy translation activity which Karra (2000) depicts as "magical task".

The study was, therefore, guided by the two subsequent research questions:
1. What are strengths and weaknesses in students' medical translation skill?
2. Can the application of Coordinate Translation Model (CTM) enhance students' medical translation practice?

II. COORDINATE TRANSLATION MODEL

The rendezvous among translation theories and models is the quest for the equivalents in the target language, the first step of which is to spot the translation units defined by Zhu (1999) as:

The smallest segment[s] of an SL text which can be translated as an independent and integrated meaning entity in relation to other segments of the text. Its formal realization, if viewed in isolation, is analyzable on levels ranging from the morpheme to the sentence; its textual potential, however, is based on the completeness of its information structure, and is normally realized when it performs textual functions in the SL text. These textual functions are to be matched in the construction of a TL text.

The journey to translation units is depicted by Walter Benjamin as reaching the tryst where the translation and the source text echo the same pitch (see Cao, 2005).

Thus, a translation model should have two axes: translation unit axis and concept equivalent axis. The translator will move along translation unit axis to locate the translation unit, then project to concept equivalent axis to see if the equivalent exists in the target language. Moreover, language task schema axis which scans along the source text is needed. Language task schema, one of the three basic loci of control in the Inhibitory Control (IC)) model of Green (1998a, b), is established by the translator to translate between languages.

Therefore, Coordinate Translation Model is proposed (by the author of this paper) to be built upon three axes: X axis – translation unit axis, Y axis – concept equivalent axis, and Z axis – language task schema axis as illustrated in Figure 1 (In Euclidean geometry, a translation is moving every point a constant distance in a specified direction).
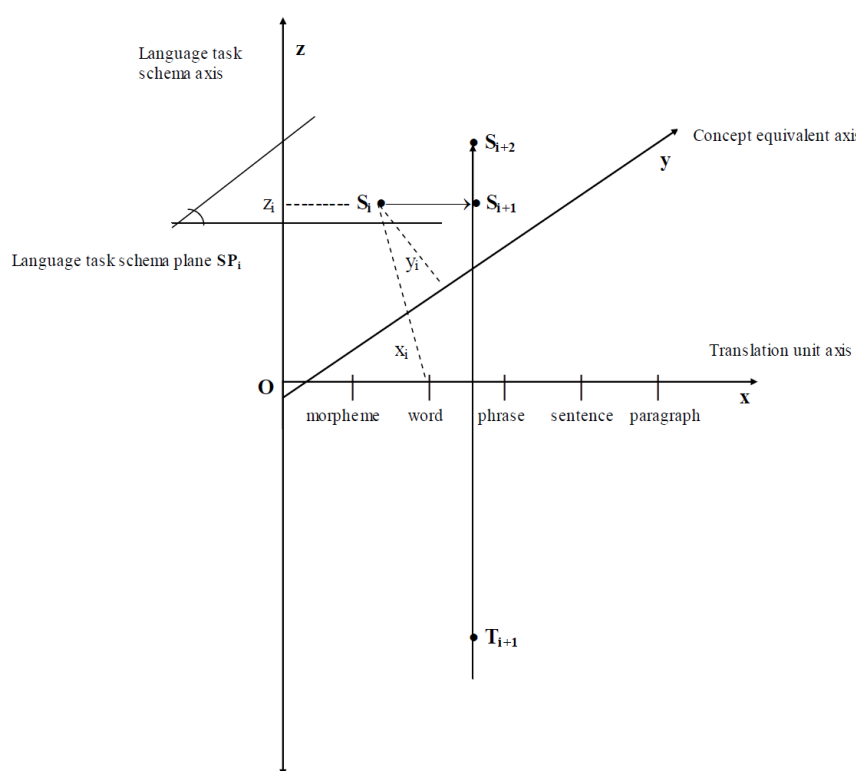

Figure 1. Coordinate translation model

So as to locate the translation unit x_i, the translator tends to move from the start of a sentence searching phrases. For instance, as the translator reaches a noun phrase and find it a term, she or he decomposes it into words and consider words as translation units (x_i = word). However, in case the translator projects to the concept equivalent axis, i.e. project to the target language, and find no T_i (x_i, y_i, $-z_i$) (T=target) ($-z_i$ in the target language is symmetrical to z_i in the source language) equivalent to S_i (x_i, y_i, z_i) (S=source). Then, the translator will move from S_i to S_{i+1} (x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}, z_i) (S_{i+1} has the coordinate z_i since it remains on the same language task schema plane as S_i), i.e. move from x_i (word) → x_{i+1} (phrase), and in this case, encounter its equivalent T_{i+1} (x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}, $-z_i$) in the target language. For example, at the point S_i of the source text, the translator comes across the noun phrase "cradle cap". If the translator chooses word as the translation unit: x_i = word = {[cradle][cap]}, then she or he is unable to find the equivalent T_i (x_i, y_i, $-z_i$); nonetheless, if the translator moves from x_i→ x_{i+1}=word → phrase, then she or he will find the equivalent in the target language, which involves the relationship between [cradle] and [cap] = [cradle] R [cap]={scalp lesion due to lying in the cradle} = {dermatitis of the infants' scalp}.

Another illustration is the process of translating the passive construction from English to Vietnamese language. If the translator selects word as the translation unit: x_i = word = {[be][past participle]}, then she or he is incapable of reaching pragmatic equivalence and formal asthetic equivalence (Koller, 1992) in the target language since the passive structure is "copied" from English to Vietnamese language. If the translator, however, moves from x_i→ x_{i+1}=word → phrase, then she or he will find the equivalent in the target language, which entails, as in below example, the conversion of the passive structure into the active structure in the target language.

When the passive structure is parallel to the active structure in the sentence, it tends to be translated as the active structure in the target language:

$$\{(be + PP\ (V_1))\ AND\ V_2\} \xrightarrow{\quad translate \quad} \{active\ equivalent\ (V_1)\ V\grave{A}\ V_2\}$$

Source text	Source-oriented translation	Source-independent translation
Gastrointestinal discomfort and bleeding *are often encountered and may be severe.*	Rối loạn v à xuất huyết ti êu h óa *thường được gặp v à c ó thể trầm trọng.*	Rối loạn v à xuất huyết ti êu h óa *thường xảy ra v à c ó thể trầm trọng.*

It is the motion from $x_i \rightarrow x_{i+1} = word \rightarrow$ verbal phrase which contributes to the location of the equivalent T_{i+1} $(x_{i+1}, y_{i+1}, -z_i)$ – the active structure – in the target language.

On the contrary, when the passive structure in the source text is a ring of the theme-rheme chain $\{T_1, R_1 \rightarrow T_1, R_2\ (passive)\}$, its translation should retain the passive structure to sustain the theme-rheme chain.

$$\{T_1, R_1 \rightarrow T_1, R_2\ (passive)\} \xrightarrow{\quad translate \quad} \{T_1, R_1 \rightarrow T_1, R_2\ (passive)\}$$

Source text	Using the active structure	Using the passive structure
Aspirin and acetaminophen are the drugs of choice. These drugs *should be given* regularly (325-650 mg q3-4h) until the underlying disease process *has been controlled.*	Aspirin v à acetaminophen l à c ác thuốc được chọn d ùng. *N ên d ùng* c ác thuốc n ày đều đặn (325-650 mg mỗi 3-4 giờ) cho đến khi kiểm soát được tiến triển của bệnh nền.	Aspirin v à acetaminophen l à c ác thuốc được chọn d ùng. C ác thuốc n ày *n ên được d ùng* đều đặn (325-650 mg mỗi 3-4 giờ) cho đến khi kiểm soát được tiến triển của bệnh nền.

Since the source text contains the parallel theme-rheme chain:
Aspirin v à acetaminophen l à c ác thuốc được chọn d ùng. C ác thuốc này nên dùng đều đặn …
    T1   R1   T2 = T1   R2
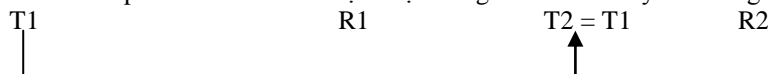
the subject "Các thuốc này" (These drugs) in the second sentence should not be placed after the active verb "Nên dùng" (Please give), but rather, the translation of this sentence should retain the passive structure: "Các thuốc n ày n ên được dùng đều đặn …"

The decision to retain the passive structure does not lie in the fact that the translation unit $x_i = word$ or $x_{i+1} = $ verbal phrase, but the translator moves beyond $x_{i+2} = $ sentence, to arrive at $x_{i+3} = $ paragraph (intersentential theme-rheme chain) to attain pragmatic equivalence and formal asthetic equivalence in the Vietnamese language.

When the translator engages in translating a text, she or he starts at the point S_0 of the text, which is the title of the text, on the language task schema plane SP_0 at the coordinate O. At S_0 (x_0, y_0, z_0), the translator will identify the translation unit to translate the text title, for instance, "White Blood Cell Counts and Heart Attacks". When discovering that $x_0 = word$ does not have its equivalent T_0 in Vietnamese language since this translation unit will lead to the translation "Đếm tế b ào m áu trắng v à những cơn tấn công tim" ("Counting white blood cells and attacking heart), the translator moves from x_0 (word) $\rightarrow x_0 + 1$ (phrase) and encounters its equivalent "Công thức bạch cầu và Cơn đau tim" in Vietnamese language.

From the point S_0 (the text title), the language task schema of text type, intrinsic succession of events in the text, topic-related terms will emerge on the plane SP_0 as shown in Figure 2. Then, the translator leaves the text title and travels to the point S_1 on the language task schema plane SP_1. On this plane, the translator will move from S_1 to the various points S_{1i} to translate the first paragraph of the text in the sequence: from S_i to S_{i+1}, S_{i+1} to S_{i+2} as in the general description above.
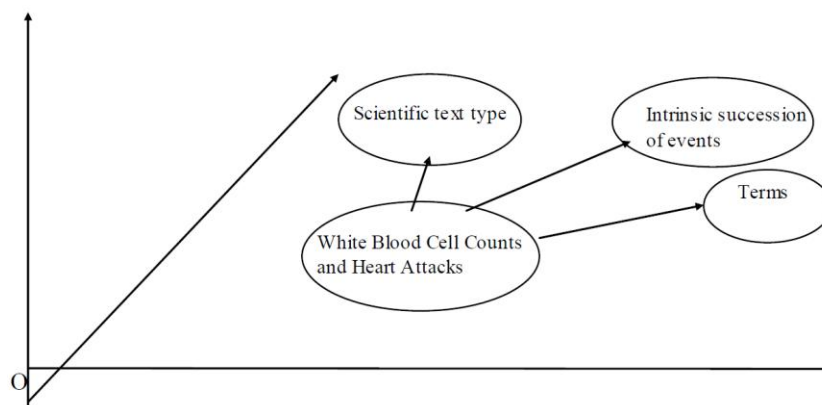

Figure 2. Language task schema plane

Finishing the translation of a paragraph, the translator looks back at all language task schemata on that language task schema plane for any editing, then travels to the language task schema plane SP2, which is the next paragraph, then to SP3, and so forth, along the axis Z – the length of the text.

The motion of the cognitive flow between the coordinate axes is "infinitely complex job" as Weaver (1989: 117) put it, "If someone asks me how I translate, I am hard put to find an answer. I can describe the physical process. I make a very rapid first draft, put it aside for a while, then go over it at a painfully slow pace, pencil - and eraser in hand. But that is all outside. Inside the job is infinitely complex."

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

79 fouth-year students (from among a population of 272 fourth-year students), 43 females and 36 males, from the two classes of virtually analogous translation competence level (predicated on the students' scores from the pretest) from Pham Ngoc Thach University of Medicine (PNTUM), who were attending the fourth course of English (English 4) were invited to participate in the research. PNTUM's English syllabus comprises two 75-hour courses of English for General Purposes (EGP) (English 1 & English 2) and two 75-hour courses of Medical English (English for Specific Purposes) (English 3 & English 4). Besides four fundamental language skills the English syllabus focuses on, medical translation skill is incorporated into the language practice in the two courses English 3 and English 4. Notwithstanding their certain depth of translation experience accumulated from years of high school and courses of English 1 and English 2 through grammar-translation teaching approach (both grammar-translation approach and communicative approach are complementarily applied in English teaching at PNTUM), the students of English 3 course are of too brief history of medical translation practice, which will likely limit in-depth exploration. The reason behind the selection of the fourth-year students was their experience of medical translation practice from the English 3 course. Moreover, they had an extensive history of exposure to medical terminology from the two years (second year and third year) of immersing themselves in such medical subjects as anatomy, physiology, pathology, microbiology, internal medicine, surgery, and pharmacology, as well as exposure to medical texts from reading passages in English 3 materials and from medical articles which clinical practice required them to read. Since the growing need for exploring and translating medical articles for attending medical seminars as well as presenting medical cases emerges in the fourth year of medical study, the invitation to this research was positively accepted by the fourth-year students, which is more likely to lead to cooperative relationship viewed by Stringer (1999, p. 122) as an important aspect of action research.

One fourth-year class (Y06E) was treated as the experimental group (EG), and the other (Y06B) as the control group (CG). The students in the experimental group were immersed in medical translation practice under the teacher's guidance on how to apply Coordinate Translation Model (CTM) rather than literal translation approach or source-oriented translation approach in which the students in the control group practiced medical translation.

B. Instrumentation and Procedure

The research consisted of two phases.

Phase 1: Collecting data from medical translation skills questionnaires

A questionnaire survey was intended to explore the medical students' awareness of the importance of translation, their perception of translation method as well as their competence in medical translation. The questionnaire (Appendix 1) comprising 35 multiple choice questions generated by the author had two parts: Part I asked respondents for certain fundamental biographical data, self-assessment of their English proficiency level primarily in terms of reading skill, and awareness of the importance of translation in their career; and Part II sought to identify respondents' medical translation skill as described in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
MEDICAL TRANSLATION SKILLS QUESTIONS SEEK TO IDENTIFY

Identifying			Questions
Learners' translation method			1-4
Learners' skill of translating medical terms			5-11
Learners' skills to translate certain function words and syntactic structures	Translating articles		12-17
	Translating connectors	Connectors of addition	18-22
		Connectors of choice	23-24
		Connectors of comparison	25
		Causal connectors	26
		Connectors of contrast	27-32
	Translating nominalizations		33
	Translating passive constructions		34-35

Phase 2: Investigating the effectiveness of the application of Coordinate Translation Model (CTM) in medical translation practice

Pretest and posttest in the form of translating a medical text were employed as instruments to measure students' medical translation proficiency level. Students' translated texts were assessed using the first method (method A) out of

Waddington's (2001) four methods of evaluating student translation. Method A, which originates from Hurtado Albir (1995), is predicated on error analysis and potential errors are clustered under the following headings:

(i). Inappropriate renderings which affect the understanding of the source text; these are divided into eight categories: contresens, faux sens, nonsens, addition, omission, unresolved extralinguistic references, loss of meaning, and inappropriate linguistic variation (register, style, dialect, etc.).

(ii). Inappropriate renderings which affect expression in the target language; these are divided into five categories: spelling, grammar, lexical items, text and style.

(iii). Inadequate renderings which affect the transmission of either the main function or secondary functions of the source text.

In each of the categories a distinction is made between serious errors (−2 points) and minor errors (−1 point). In the case of the translation test where this method was applied, the sum of the negative points was subtracted from a total of 110 and then divided by 11 to attain a mark from 0 to 10 (which is the normal Vietnamese system). For instance, if a student gets a total of −43 points, his result would be computed as follows: 110-43=67/11=6.09 (which passes; the lowest pass mark is 5).

The initial translation proficiency level of the whole population of fourth-year students was explored by the pretest, from which scores contributed to the choice of the experimental group and control group of practically similar translation competence level. Upon the arrival of the fifteenth week, the students in both experimental group and control group took the post-test, which sought to assess the impact of the application of Coordinate Translation Model (CTM) on the quality of the students' medical translation.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Strengths and weaknesses in students' medical translation skill

Of 79 questionnaires delivered to the students to survey their strengths and weakenesses in medical translation, 72 were returned in completed form (91.14% response rate).

• Analysis of the results from the general information of the questionnaire

TABLE 1.
LEARNERS' SELF-ASSESSMENT OF THEIR ENGLISH COMPETENCE

Types of English	Mean length of study	Learners' self-assessment of their English competence	Number of students	Percentage (%)
English for General Purposes (EGP)	10.06 years	Excellent Good Adequate Poor	4 17 33 18	5.56 23.61 45.83 25
Medical English	1.82 years	Excellent Good Adequate Poor	5 15 28 24	6.94 20.83 38.89 33.33

As displayed in Table 1, the students' mean length of studying English for General Purposes (EGP) was 10.06 years, whereas their mean length of immersing themselves in medical English was purely 1.82 years. These figures, nonetheless, were less perturbing than the figures indicating their self-assessment of English competence, which revolved around the adequate level for English for General Purposes and appeared skewed towards the poor level for medical English. These figures alerted as well as required the researcher to provide intensive support for students' acquisition and application of Coordinate Translation Model (CTM) along the research.

TABLE 2.
LEARNERS' AWARENESS OF THE ROLE OF TRANSLATION IN THEIR MEDICAL CAREER

Investigating	Question number	Number of students who chose the answer		
		A	B	Other reasons
Students' awareness of the importance of translation in their medical career	5 6	68 59	4 52	

The data from Table 2 revealed that 68 of the students, or 94.44%, were aware of the importance of translation in their medical career; furthermore, 59 of the students, or 81.94%, realized that translation skill is for translating medical materials, rather than for comprehending medical texts (52/72 students = 72.22%), indicative of the students' high instrumental motivation for their involvement in this research.

• Analysis of the results from the investigation of learners' translation method.

TABLE 3
LEARNERS' TRANSLATION METHOD

Investigating	Question number	Number of students who chose the answer					
		A	B	C	D	E	F
Learners' translation method	1	4	0	2	66		
	2	21	51				
	3	44	28				
	4	2	9	61	5	19	2

As shown by Table 3, 66 of the students (91.67%), through their responses to question 1, acknowledged three criteria for a good translation: accuracy, naturalness, and commucativeness as suggested by Larson (1998). The students' responses to question 2, however, demonstrated their orientation towards word-for-word translation approach (51/72 = 70.83%) and their responses to question 3 revealed their entanglement in the structures and word orders in the English language in their translation process (44/72 = 61.11%).

The students' responses to question 4 demonstrated their awareness of the importance of editing the translated text in terms of spelling, syntax, and semantics (61/72 = 84.72%), but merely of self-editing it. Only five of the students (6.94%) resort to a linguistics expert's editing and 19 of the students (26.39%) resort to a medical expert's review.

• Analysis of the results from the investigation of learners' skill of translating medical terms.

TABLE 4.
LEARNERS' SKILL OF TRANSLATING MEDICAL TERMS

Question number	Number and percentage of students who chose the answer									
	A		B		C		D		E	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
5										
5.1							16	22.22	56	77.78
5.2	56	77.78	5	6.94	11	15.28				
5.3	62	86.11	7	9.72	3	4.17				
5.4	65	90.28	5	6.94	2	2.78				
6	8	11.11	30	41.67	34	47.22				
7	25	34.72	0	0.00	40	55.56	7	9.72	0	0.00
8	9	12.50	63	87.50						
9	68	94.44	4	5.56						
10	55	76.39	17	23.61						
11	58	80.56	14	19.44						

The students' responses to question 5, as shown in Table 4, demonstrated that 77.78% of the students tended to visit English-Vietnamese medical dictionary upon encountering a new medical term in the source text; and high percentages of the students were unaccustomed to access to monolingual English medical dictionary (77.78%), analysis of lexical roots (86.11%), or decoding of the context (90.28%), which are the crucial skills to explore the semantics of vocabulary.

As regards question 6, even though 41.67% of the students selected the appropriate translation of the term "aphasia" (answer B), 47.22% of the students deemed both answers A and B the correct translations of the term. Nevertheless, "speechlessness" as the hypernym of "aphasia" should be translated as "chứng nói không được" whereas "aphasia" should be translated as "chứng thất ngôn".

The students' responses to question 7, which sought to investigate learners' awareness of stylistic levels of technical terms, were not as expected, with 55.56% of the students choosing both translations for both terms, which implies their incapability to spot the distinction in stylistic levels between the two terms.

Questions 8 through 11 were meant to explore learners' capability to analyze the semantic components of a term as well as the relationship among these semantic components in the process of translating the medical. In contrast with the finding that 86.11% of the students were unaccustomed to analysis of lexical roots, 87.50% of the students and 94.44% of the students chose the appropriate translations in their responses to questions 8 and 9 respectively. 76.39% of the students and 80.56% of the students, however, selected the imprecise translations in their responses to questions 10 and 11 in turn. This contradiction was cleared up through the unstructured interview with the students, who contended to be conversant with the medical terms in questions 8 and 9, but inconversant with the medical terms in questions 10 and 11, so they translated the medical terms in questions 10 and 11 in a reverse word order in the target language to that of English word order, but did not involve in the analysis of the relationship among their semantic components.

• Analysis of the results from the investigation of learners' skill of translating articles.

TABLE 5.
LEARNERS' SKILL OF TRANSLATING ARTICLES

Question number	Number and percentage of students who chose the answer							
	A		B		C		D	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
12	33	45.83	4	5.56	23	31.94	12	16.67
13	32	44.44	9	12.50	26	36.11	5	6.94
14	39	54.17	3	4.17	26	36.11	4	5.56
15	14	19.44	32	44.44	9	12.50	17	23.61
16	29	40.28	20	27.78	9	12.50	14	19.44
17	35	48.61	15	20.83	19	26.39	3	4.17

As displayed in Table 5, the students' responses to questions 12 through 14, which aimed to explore learners' capability to translate English indefinite artile "a/an", indicated their inability to differentiate uses of this type of article: 1) denoting an indefinite object (in this case, "a/an" should be translated as "một" in Vietnamese language) and 2) denoting a general sense (in this case, "a/an" should not be translated). 45.83%, 44.44%, and 54.17% of the students chose to translate "a/an" as "một" in their responses to the questions 12, 13, and 14 respectively. 31.94%, 36.11%, and 36.11% of the students regarded both translations as appropriate, but alleged that the translation "một" sounds more natural in Vietnamese language.

For question 15, 44.44% of the students chose not to translate "a/an", and 23.61% of the students selected both translations, but considered untranslating "a/an" (due to its general sense) as more natural in the target language.

Questions 16 and 17 sought to investigate learners' ways to translate plurals from English to Vietnamese language. Question 16 looks at learners' awareness of the general sense of plurals and question 17 looks at learners' capability to distinguish uses of Vietnamese plural articles "các" and "những", and apply them in translating English plurals. The students' responses to questions 16 and 17 demonstrated their lack of expertise in translating plurals. For question 16, only 27.78% of the students chose to untranslate plurals or use zero article in the target language despite its most naturalness. For question 17, the Vietnamese plural "những" was the most appropriate translation, but was chosen by merely 20.83% of the students.

- Analysis of the results from the investigation of learners' skill of translating connectors

TABLE 6.
LEARNERS' SKILL OF TRANSLATING CONNECTORS

Connectors	Question number	Number and percentage of students who chose the answer							
		A		B		C		D	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Connectors of addition	18	65	90.28	7	9.72	0	0	0	0
	19	39	54.17	0	0	30	41.67	3	4.17
	20	34	47.22	0	0	23	31.94	15	20.83
	21	26	36.11	4	5.56	21	29.17	21	29.17
	22	49	68.06	0	0	19	26.39	4	5.56
Connectors of choice	23	1	1.39	4	5.56	56	77.78	11	15.28
	24	35	48.61	4	5.56	21	29.17	12	16.67
Connectors of comparison	25	58	80.56	3	4.17	5	6.96	6	8.33
Causal connectors	26	10	13.89	30	41.67	9	12.50	23	31.94
	27	19	26.39	26	36.11	6	8.33	21	29.17
Connectors of contrast	28	37	51.39	3	4.17	23	31.94	9	12.50
	29	34	47.22	1	1.39	28	38.89	9	12.50
	30	63	87.50	0	0.00	5	6.94	4	5.56
	31	19	26.39	5	6.94	19	26.39	29	40.28
	32	18	25.00	5	6.94	21	29.17	28	38.89

As shown in Table 6, the students' responses to questions 18 through 22 seeking to investigate learners' competence to translate the connector of addition "and" indicated that majority of the students (90.28%, 54.17%, 47.22%, 36.11%, and 68.06% of the students in response to questions 18, 19, 20, 21, and 22 respectively) chose to translate "and" as "và" in Vietnamese language, equivalent to logical operator $\wedge$, or chose both translations with "và" regarded as more natural in the target language (41.67%, 31.94%, 29.17%, and 26.39% of the students in response to questions 19, 20, 21, and 22 respectively). "And" in these questions, however, was not indicative of logical operator $\wedge$, but implied sequence relationship (translated as "rồi"), causal relationship (translated as "nên/cho nên" or "rồi/thì"), or contrastive relationship (translated as "còn" in Vietnamese language).

For question 23, 77.78% of the students chose to translate the connector of choice "or" as "hay" (more oriented towards inclusive disjunction operator $\vee$) or "hoặc" (more oriented towards exclusive disjunction operator $\oplus$) with "hay" considered more natural in Vietnamese language. The connector of choice "or" in this instance, nonetheless, contained the implication of descriptive listing, which tends to emerge in scientific discourse and, in Nguyen's (2003, p. 491) view, should be expressed by "hoặc".

As regards question 24, 48.61% of the students chose to translate the connector "or" as "hay", and 29.17% of the students chose both translations, but regarded "hay" as the more natural translation in Vietnamese language. The

connector "or" in this case, however, is not a disjunction operator, but is meant to introduce a definition or elaboration for the noun preceding "or" and should be translated as "hay còn gọi là" ("or also called as") in the target language.

The students' responses to question 25 revealed that 80.56% of the students translated the connector "as" as "như là" in Vietnamese language; nevertheless, "như là" is the appropriate translation of the connector of comparison "like". The connector "as" implying "functioning" should be translated as "sử dụng … làm …" ("use … as") in the context of this question.

Interestingly, the students' responses to question 26 demonstrated their mastery in translating causal connectors through the finding that 41.67% of the students chose to translate causal connector "because" as the paired conjunction "bởi vì … cho nên …" ("because … so …") in Vietnamese language and 31.94% of the students chose both translations with such a paired conjunction regarded as the more natural translation in the target language.

Likewise, the students' awareness of the distinction between English and Vietnamese expressions of concessive contrast was demonstrated via the finding from question 27 that 36.11% of the students chose to translate contrastive connector "despite the fact that" as the paired conjunction "mặc dù … nhưng …" ("although … but …") in Vietnamese language and 29.17% of the students chose both translations with such a paired conjunction regarded as the more natural translation in the target language. Questions 28 through 30 continued to investigate learners' capability to translate connectors of concessive contrast; however, their responses showed that they did not discern the variedness in Vietnamese expressions of concessive contrast, but stuck to the paired conjunction "mặc dù… nhưng…" ("although… but …") as the sole translation for English contrastive connectors.

As displayed in Table 6, 40.28% and 38.89% of the students deemed both translations to be appropriate in their responses to questions 31 and 32 respectively, but interestingly, more students (40.28% > 26.39% and 38.89% > 29.17%) turned to more natural translations such as "mà" and "còn" to express the opposition relationship rather than abiding by the literal translation "nhưng" in the target language.

- Analysis of the results from the investigation of learners' skill of translating syntactic structures.

TABLE 7.
LEARNERS' SKILL OF TRANSLATING SYNTACTIC STRUCTURES

Syntactic structures	Question number	Number and percentage of students who chose the answer							
		A		B		C		D	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Nominalizations	33	16	22.22	4	5.56	42	58.33	10	13.89
Passive constructions	34	31	43.06	11	15.28	24	33.33	6	8.33
	35	28	38.89	9	12.50	21	29.17	14	19.44

As shown in Table 7, students' loyalty to the word-for-word translation of nominalizations was encountered from the finding that 22.22% of the students literally translated the nominalization and 58.33% of the students chose both literal translation and conversion of the nominalization into the verbal structure with literal translation regarded as the more appropriate translation in the target language.

Similarly, literal translation predominated among the students' responses to questions 35 and 35, seeking to investigate learners' ways to translate English passive constructions, from the data that 76.39% (43.06% + 33.33%) and 68.06% (38.89% + 29.17%) of the students were more orientated towards the word-for-word simulation of English passive constructions in Vietnamese language.

Students, despite their ackowledgement of three criteria for a good translation: accuracy, naturalness, and commucativeness as proposed by Larson (1998), were prone to simulate English word orders and syntactic structures, and produce source-oriented translated texts due to their concern about missing out certain meanings in their translation process.

Impact of the application of Coordinate Translation Model (CTM) on the quality of learners' medical translation

TABLE 8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR MEDICAL TRANSLATION SCORES

Groups	Items	Tests		Changes	
		Pretest	Posttest	Value	Percentage
CG	Average scores	6.09	6.32	0.23	3.78%
	Average number of serious mistakes per translated text	18.21	13.89	-4.32	-23.72%
	Average number of minor mistakes per translated text	6.59	12.70	6.11	92.72%
	Number of unfinished pieces	13	10	-3	-23.08%
	Number of submitted translated texts	38	38		
EG	Average scores	5.88	7.97	2.09	35.54%
	Average number of serious mistakes per translated text	20.08	9.56	-10.52	-52.39%
	Average number of minor mistakes per translated text	5.16	3.21	-1.95	-37.79%
	Number of unfinished pieces	16	9	-7	-43.75%
	Number of submitted essays	41	41		
Difference between EG and CG	Average scores	-0.21	1.65	1.86	31.76%

The data from Table 8 substantiate that an insignificant disparity (-0.21) was encountered between the experimental group and the control group in terms of average pretest score. The average pretest score achieved by the students in the experimental group was 5.88 points and that by the students in the control group was 6.09 points.

However, the average posttest scores earned by the students in both groups significantly diverged. The average posttest score gained by the students in the experimental group increased by 2.09 points (35.54%) compared to the average pretest score, while that in the control group increased merely by 0.23 points (3.78%) compared to the average pretest score.

Since the calculation of students' scores was predicated on the analysis of serious errors and minor errors in translated texts, the results of the average number of serious errors and that of minor errors were also displayed in Table 8.

The average number of serious errors and that of minor errors left in the pretest papers by the students in the control group was 18.21 and 6.59 respectively, and the average number of serious errors and that of minor errors by the students in the experimental group was 20.08 and 5.16, indicating that at the departure of medical translation practice, the students's translation competence did not substantially differ.

The fourteen-week practice of medical translation, nonetheless, brought about a discernible divergence in the average number of mistakes made by the students between the two groups. The average number of serious mistakes and that of minor mistakes made by the students in the experimental group fell by 10.52 mistakes (52.39%) and by 1.95 (37.79%) respectively in the posttest compared with the pretest, whereas the average number of serious mistakes made by the students in the control group dropped by 4.32 mistakes (23.72%) and that of minor mistakes rose by 6.11 mistakes (92.72%) (implying that some serious mistakes were promoted to minor mistakes, but did not vanish) in the posttest compared with the pretest, which implies that the students in the experimental group demonstrated the better progress in the level of translation competence than those in the control group.

Besides translation scores and errors, learners' improvement in translation competence is partially manifested through the extent of translation task completion. The students in the experimental group demonstrated the better enhancement in the extent of translation task completion than those in the control group. The disparity in the number of unfinished translation pieces submitted by the students in the experimental group between the postest and the pretest was -3.0 pieces (-23.08%) while that in the control group between the posttest and the pretest was -7.0 pieces (-43.75%).

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Most translation models have looked at procedures to render linguistic units and stylistic properties from the source text into the target language so as to attain the criteria for a good translation such as accuracy, naturalness, and commucativeness as suggested by Larson (1998). These translation models, nonetheless, place the source text on the two-dimensional plane to decompose the text into units, then render them into the target language through an assembly process using materials the target language. Coordinate Translation Model (CTM), proposed by the author of the study, lays the source text in the three-dimensional space where it is scanned by the translation unit scanner, concept equivalent scanner, and schema scanner. The research substantiated the benefits of the application of Coordinate Translation Model (CTM) in medical translation practice through a discernible divergence in the average posttest scores earned by the students in the experimental group and the control group. The research, moreover, demonstrated that translation skills can be acquired through an effective translation approach.

APPENDIX 1. MEDICAL TRANSLATION SKILLS SURVEY

I. General
1.   Age   :
2.   Gender: Male ☐   Female ☐
3.   How long have you studied English? _____
     How do you assess your own English competence?
     Reading: Poor ☐   Adequate ☐   Good ☐   Excellent ☐
4.   How long have you been exposed to medical English? (including classroom study and self-study)
     _____
     How do you assess your own medical English competence?
     Reading: Poor ☐   Adequate ☐   Good ☐   Excellent ☐
5.   Do you think translation skill is necessary for medical students and medical professionals?
(A)   Yes
(B)   No
6.   If "yes", translation skill helps them (more than one answer can be picked)
(A)   to translate medical materials
(B)   to read and comprehend medical materials through translation
(C)   other reasons:

_____
_____

II. Investigating learners' medical translation skill

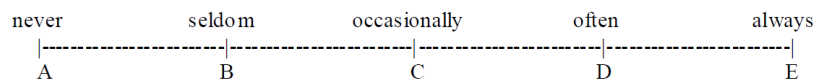Circle A, B, C, or D to respond to the questions as guided.

For questions 1 through 11 (except questions 4 and 5), please select the best answer.

• Learners' translation method

1. In your view, a good translation must
   A. be a word-for-word translation of the source text
   B. be natural in Vietnamese language.
   C. be comprehensible for readers.
   D. all of the above
2. Upon translating a medical material, you tend to
   A. read and comprehend the whole paragraph or passage before starting to translate it.
   B. translate word after word or sentence after sentence.
3. Upon translating an English sentence, you tend
   A. to cling to structure and word order in the English sentence.
   B. to reproduce the semantics of that sentence in Vietnamese structure and word order.
4. Upon accomplishing the translation of a medical text, you tend (more than one answer can be picked)
   A. not to review the translation.
   B. to review merely to locate and fix spelling and grammatical errors.
   C. to review to locate and fix spelling, grammatical, and semantic errors.
   D. to send it to a linguistics expert to review and comment.
   E. to send it to a medical expert to review and comment.
   F. to send it to a person outside the fields of linguistics and medicine to review and comment.

• Learners' skill of translating medical terms

5. Encountering a new medical term in the translation process, you (select the responses to questions 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4 on the Likert scale)

```
          never            seldom        occasionally          often             always
          |--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
          A                    B                    C                    D                    E
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5.1 instantaneously visit English-Vietnamese medical dictionary.

5.2 visit monolingual English medical dictionary and infer its meaning.

5.3 analyze its lexical roots and infer its meaning.

5.4 explore its context and search your medical knowledge to infer its meaning.

6. The term "aphasia" refers to an acquired disorder of language that results from damage to portions of the brain that are responsible for language, so should be translated as
   A. chứng không nói được
   B. chứng thất ngôn
   C. both (A) and (B) are correct, but (A) denotes popular stylistic level whereas (B) denotes academic stylistic level.
7. "Uterus" and "womb" are synonyms in English language; however, "uterus" indicates academic stylistic level and "womb" indicates popular stylistic level, so which of the subsequent is the best translation?
   A. Both "uterus" and "womb" should be translated as "tử cung".
   B. Both "uterus" and "womb" should be translated as "dạ con".
   C. Both "uterus" and "womb" can be translated as "tử cung" or "dạ con".
   D. "Uterus" should be translated as "tử cung" whereas "womb" should be translated as "dạ con".
   E. "Uterus" should be translated as "dạ con" whereas "womb" should be translated as "tử cung".
8. The Latin root ped- implies leg, so the term pediatrics means
   A. khoa chi dưới
   B. khoa nhi
9. The phrasal term "Vesico-ureteral reflux" should be translated as
   A. Trào ngược bàng quang-niệu quản
   B. Trào ngược niệu quản-bàng quang
10. The phrasal term "Acute drug induced tubuloinsterial nephritis" should be translated as
    A. Viêm ống thận mô kẽ do thuốc cấp tính
    B. Viêm ống thận mô kẽ cấp tính do thuốc
11. The phrasal term "Lateral amyotrophic schlerosis" should be translated as
    A. Bệnh xơ cứng teo cơ ở cột bên
    B. Bệnh xơ cứng cột bên teo cơ

For questions 12 through 35, please choose
  A. if the translated text (1) sounds appropriate and natural in Vietnamese language.
  B. if the translated text (2) sounds appropriate and natural in Vietnamese language.
  C. if both (1) and (2) are correct, but (1) sounds better than (2).
  D. if both (1) and (2) are correct, but (2) sounds better than (1).
  your suggested translation: _____.
• Learners' skill of translating articles
12. Source text: To a doctor the term diarrhoea means frequent passing of watery stools.
Translated text:
  (1) Đối với một bác sĩ, thuật ngữ tiêu chảy có nghĩa là thường xuyên đi tiêu toàn phân loãng.
  (2) Đối với thầy thuốc, thuật ngữ tiêu chảy có nghĩa là thường xuyên đi tiêu toàn phân loãng.
13. Source text: An abcess can occur in any part of the body. If it is in the lung, the patient may have a cough and difficulty in breathing.
Translated text:
  (1) Một áp xe có thể xuất hiện ở bất kỳ bộ phận nào của cơ thể. Nếu nó nằm ở phổi, bệnh nhân có thể có một cơn ho và khó thở.
  (2) Áp xe có thể xuất hiện ở bất kỳ bộ phận nào của cơ thể. Nếu áp xe nằm ở phổi, bệnh nhân có thể bị ho và khó thở.
14. Source text: One protein is a straight line, two is a curved line, and three is a blob.
Translated text:
  (1) Một phân tử protein có hình dạng một đường thẳng, hai phân tử protein có hình dạng một đường cong, ba phân tử protein thì có hình dạng một khối cuộn.
  (2) Một phân tử protein có hình dạng đường thẳng, hai phân tử protein có hình dạng đường cong, ba phân tử protein thì có hình dạng khối cuộn.
15. Source text: The word constipation means different things to different people; to the doctor it means the passage of hard and infrequent stools.
Translated text:
  (1) Thuật ngữ "táo bón" có ý nghĩa khác nhau đối với từng người; song đối với vị bác sĩ này, táo bón có nghĩa là đi tiêu phân cứng và không nhiều.
  (2) Thuật ngữ "táo bón" có ý nghĩa khác nhau đối với từng người; song đối với thầy thuốc, táo bón có nghĩa là đi tiêu phân cứng và không nhiều.
16. Source text: Murmurs are noises from the heart caused by a disturbance in the flow of blood as it passes through the heart and great vessels.
Translated text:
  (1) Các âm thổi là những tiếng động phát ra từ tim do dòng máu bị rối loạn khi lưu thông qua tim và các mạch máu.
  (2) Âm thổi là những tiếng động phát ra từ tim do dòng máu bị rối loạn khi lưu thông qua tim và các mạch máu.
17. Source text: Murmurs which are caused by insignificant or slight changes in the flow of blood are called innocent murmurs.
Translated text:
  (1) Các âm thổi do những thay đổi không đáng kể trong dòng máu gây ra gọi là âm thổi vô tội.
  (2) Những âm thổi do những thay đổi không đáng kể trong dòng máu gây ra gọi là âm thổi vô tội.
• Learners' skill of translating connectors
18. Source text: The bread and butter turns sour since germs have grown in it.
Translated text:
  (1) Bánh mì và bơ có vị chua vì có mầm bệnh phát triển trong nó.
  (2) Bánh mì bơ có vị chua vì có mầm bệnh phát triển trong nó.
19. Source text: Pain in peptic ulcer disease is almost always episodic, lasting several days to weeks and is followed by a remission of months.
Translated text:
  (1) Cơn đau trong bệnh loét dạ dày–tá tràng thường diễn biến từng đợt, đau kéo dài nhiều ngày đến nhiều tuần, và lui đi trong nhiều tháng.
  (2) Cơn đau trong bệnh loét dạ dày–tá tràng thường diễn biến từng đợt, đau kéo dài nhiều ngày đến nhiều tuần, rồi lui đi trong nhiều tháng.
20. Source text: Alexander Fleming noticed a halo of inhibition of bacterial growth in a culture of Staphylococcus around a contaminant blue-green mould, and he concluded that the mould was realeasing a substance that was inhibiting bacterial growth.
Translated text:
  (1) Alexander Fleming phát hiện thấy một vòng kiềm khuẩn quanh lớp nấm mốc màu xanh trong đĩa nuôi cấy vi khuẩn Staphylococcus, và ông kết luận rằng nấm mốc sinh ra một chất gì đó ức chế vi khuẩn phát triển.
  (2) Alexander Fleming phát hiện thấy một vòng kiềm khuẩn quanh lớp nấm mốc màu xanh trong đĩa nuôi cấy vi khuẩn Staphylococcus, nên/cho nên ông kết luận rằng nấm mốc sinh ra một chất gì đó ức chế vi khuẩn phát triển.

21. Source text: Observe carefully and you will find out the things the patient doesn't tell you.
Translated text:
(1) Hãy quan sát kỹ và bạn sẽ khám phá ra những điều người bệnh không kể với bạn.
(2) Hãy quan sát kỹ rồi / thì bạn sẽ khám phá ra những điều người bệnh không kể với bạn.
22. Source text: Arteries carry blood out of the heart and veins carry blood back to the heart.
Translated text:
(1) Động mạch vận chuyển máu ra khỏi tim và tĩnh mạch đưa máu về tim.
(2) Động mạch vận chuyển máu ra khỏi tim còn tĩnh mạch đưa máu về tim.
23. Source text: Cardiogenic syncope most commonly results from loss of sinus node impulse, atrioventricular conduction block, or ventricular tachycardia or fibrillation.
Translated text:
(1) Ngất tim thường xảy ra do liệt nút xoang, blốc nhĩ-thất, hay do nhịp nhanh thất hay rung thất.
(2) Ngất tim thường xảy ra do liệt nút xoang, blốc nhĩ-thất, hoặc do nhịp nhanh thất hoặc rung thất.
24. Source text: The ileum has in its wall opposite the mesentery distinctive patches of lymphoid tissue, or Peyer's patches.
Translated text:
(1) Trong thành của hồi tràng đối diện với mạc treo ruột có những mảng mô bạch huyết đặc trưng, hay mảng Peyer.
(2) Trong thành của hồi tràng đối diện với mạc treo ruột có những mảng mô bạch huyết đặc trưng, hay còn gọi là mảng Peyer.
25. Source text: Peritoneal dialysis uses the peritoneum as a dialysis membrane.
Translated text:
(1) Thẩm phân phúc mạc sử dụng phúc mạc như một màng thẩm phân.
(2) Thẩm phân phúc mạc sử dụng phúc mạc làm màng thẩm phân.
26. Source text: Because the body produces sufficient quantities of some but not all vitamins, they must be supplemented in the daily diet.
Translated text:
(1) Bởi vì cơ thể sản xuất đủ số lượng một số loại vitamin chứ không phải tất cả các loại vitamin, vitamin vẫn cần phải bổ sung trong khẩu phần ăn hàng ngày.
(2) Bởi vì cơ thể sản xuất đủ số lượng một số loại vitamin chứ không phải tất cả các loại vitamin, cho nên vitamin vẫn cần phải bổ sung trong khẩu phần ăn hàng ngày.
27. Source text: Despite the fact that the brain comprises only 2 percent of the body's weight, it receives 20 percent of all the blood pumped from the heart.
Translated text:
(1) Mặc dù bộ não chỉ chiếm 2% trọng lượng cơ thể, nó nhận 20% lượng máu bơm ra từ tim.
(2) Mặc dù bộ não chỉ chiếm 2% trọng lượng cơ thể, nhưng nó nhận 20% lượng máu bơm ra từ tim.
28. Source text: Though the patient was hospitalised with the manifestation of heart failure without chest pain, myocardial infarction should not be ignored.
Translated text:
(1) Dù bệnh nhân nhập viện trong bệnh cảnh suy tim không đau ngực, nhưng không loại trừ nhồi máu cơ tim.
(2) Dù bệnh nhân nhập viện trong bệnh cảnh suy tim không đau ngực, cũng không loại trừ nhồi máu cơ tim.
29. Source text: Although Pasteur could not see the bacteria, he managed to produce vaccine.
Translated text:
(1) Dù Pasteur không nhìn thấy vi trùng, nhưng ông điều chế được vaccine.
(2) Dù Pasteur không nhìn thấy vi trùng, ông vẫn điều chế được vaccine.
30. Source text: Although Pasteur could not see the bacteria, he managed to produce vaccine.
Translated text:
(1) Dù Pasteur không nhìn thấy vi trùng, nhưng ông điều chế được vaccine.
(2) Chưa nhìn thấy vi trùng, mà Pasteur đã điều chế được vaccine.
31. Source text: Eijkman finally found out that beri-beri was not an infectious , but a nutritional deficiency disease.
Translated text:
(1) Eijkman cuối cùng phát hiện ra rằng bệnh beri-beri không phải là bệnh nhiễm trùng, nhưng do suy dinh dưỡng.
(2) Eijkman cuối cùng phát hiện ra rằng bệnh beri-beri không phải là bệnh nhiễm trùng mà là do suy dinh dưỡng.
32. Source text: The right atrio-ventricular orifice is closed by three flaps, but the left atrio-ventricular orifice is closed by two flaps.
Translated text:
(1) Lỗ nhĩ-thất phải đóng bởi van 3 lá, nhưng lỗ nhĩ-thất trái đóng bởi van 2 lá.
(2) Lỗ nhĩ-thất phải đóng bởi van 3 lá, còn lỗ nhĩ-thất trái đóng bởi van 2 lá.
• Learners' skill of translating nominalizations
33. Source text: Physicians must remain sensitive to the complexity and stress of hospitalization.
Translated text:

(1) Thầy thuốc phải nhạy cảm với sự bối rối và căng thẳng của việc nhập viện.

(2) Thầy thuốc phải hiểu và thông cảm với trạng thái bối rối và căng thẳng của người bệnh khi phải nhập viện.

• Learners' skill of translating passive constructions

34. Source text: Scleroderma is a systemic illness of unknown cause characterized by sclerotic skin changes and often accompanied by multisystem disease.

Translated text:

(1) Bệnh xơ cứng bì là một bệnh hệ thống chưa rõ nguyên nhân được đặc trưng bởi tình trạng xơ cứng da và thường đi kèm bởi bệnh đa hệ thống.

(2) Bệnh xơ cứng bì là một bệnh hệ thống chưa rõ nguyên nhân có đặc trưng là tình trạng xơ cứng da và thường có bệnh đa hệ thống đi cùng.

35. Source text: Infective endocarditis is usually caused by gram-positive cocci, although gram-negative bacilli and fungi may also produce the disease.

Translated text:

(1) Viêm nội tâm mạc nhiễm trùng thường được gây ra bởi cầu khuẩn Gram +, mặc dù trực khuẩn Gram – và nấm cũng có thể gây bệnh.

(2) Viêm nội tâm mạc nhiễm trùng thường do cầu khuẩn Gram + gây ra, mặc dù trực khuẩn Gram – và nấm cũng có thể gây bệnh.

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I Have a Dream[*]—Racial Discrimination in Lorraine Hansberry's *A Raisin in the Sun*

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Abstract—**Racism is a major issue that has affected the United States of America since its infancy. Lorraine Hansberry's play A Raisin in the Sun (1959) deals with the impact of racism on the life of the Younger, a poor black family living in the South Side of Chicago. As the play demonstrates, the Younger suffer from racial discrimination in housing industry, living space, and employment. Their attempt to challenge the racist policies takes the form of buying a house in a predominantly white neighborhood. The importance of the play is twofold. Firstly, it was the first play by an Afro-American woman to be presented on Broadway; and secondly, it foreshadows many of issues which the American society experience in the 1960s.**

Index Terms—**racism, racial discrimination, Hansberry, A Raisin in the Sun, housing industry**

According to Nicole King (2002), "Race is a word and a category that can simultaneously denote a "person's color, caste, culture, and capacities, oftentimes depending on what historical, political, or social forces are at work" (p.214).

From the sociological point of view, the concept of "Race" describes a "group of people with the same physical characteristics and with notable cultural and social similarities" (Vorster, 2002, p.296). In view of this description, racism can be defined as "an attitude of prejudice, bias and intolerance between various racial groups" (Ibid.). In the same vein, The International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination defines Racism as any distinction, exclusion, restriction, or preference based on race, color, descent or national or ethnic origin which has the purpose of nullifying or impairing the recognition, enjoyment or exercise, on equal footing, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural or any other field of public life. (qtd. in Fugazza, 2003, p. 507)

To fully understand the contemporary use of the concept of racism, M. N. Marger believes that rather than an attitude, racism should be seen as a "belief system, or ideology," structured around three basic ideas. They are 1-Humans are divided naturally into different physical types; 2-Such physical traits as they display are intrinsically related to their culture, personality, and intelligence; and 3-On the basis of their genetic inheritance, some groups are innately superior to others (In Vorster, 2002, p.296). Thus racism is the belief that humans are subdivided into hereditary groups that are innately different in their social behavior and capacities, which, therefore, can be ranked as "superior" or "inferior." These judgments, Vorster (2002) points out, are subsequently used to "legitimize the unequal distribution of the society's resources, specifically, various forms of wealth, prestige, and power"(p.297).

As an ideology or belief system, racism seeks to provide a rationale to justify racial discrimination, and, as history has shown, may even seek to divide and rule society and even the world along racial lines (Racism and the Church,1994, p.16). More important than this, racist thought seek to justify "self-aggrandizement, cruelty, paternalism in favor of the 'superior' group and to inflict low self-image, subservience, deprivation, loss of equal privileges, and even slavery upon 'inferior' group" (Ibid., p.11).

In America and throughout the world, the idea of 'race' is inescapably knotted with visible markers such as hair and skin color. Color, in this case black, stands in metonymic relation to a vast complex of stories, images, mythologies, emotions, scientific discourses and genomic sequences of what we know and define as race (Erler, 2010, p. 1).

In relation to racism, White domination in America is often rationalized by the belief that the inferiority or superiority of a group's abilities, values, and culture, are linked to physical characteristics such as skin color (Feagin and Sikes, 1994, p.4). Derald Wing Sue (2003) points out the danger of such viewpoint. He asserts that judging the blacks as different, and therefore, inferior because of their color encourages the white-dominated society to systematically subordinate the black people to their own values and perspectives. Accordingly, racism is "a systemic exercise of real power to deny minorities equal access and opportunity, while maintaining the benefits and advantages of white American"(p.30). The subordination of persons of color, i.e., Black, in the United States, Sue adds, occurs not just on an individual level but also in the activities and procedures of the American institutions, corporations, and social systems (Ibid., p.31).

Types of racism vary according to the domain in which racism is practiced. However, the most important type of racism is the institutional, which is defined as Any institutional policy, practice, or structure in governments, businesses,

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[*] "I Have a Dream" is a seventeen minute public speech by Martin Luther King, Jr., in which he called for racial equality and an end to discrimination. King's delivery of the speech on August 28, 1963, from the steps of the Lincolin Memorial during the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom, was a defining moment of the American Civil Rights Movement.

unions, schools, churches, courts, and law enforcement entities by which decisions are made as to unfairly subordinate persons of color while allowing other groups to profit from such actions. (Ibid., p.33)

Stokely Carmichael is credited for coining the phrase of institutional racism in the late sixties. He defined it as "the collective failure of an organization to provide an appropriate and professional service to people because of their color, culture, or ethnic origin" (Racism, 2007, p.4). Accordingly, Racism is more than just a personal attitude; it is the institutionalized form of that attitude"(Feagin and Sikes, 1994, p.3). Examples of this type of racism include:

Housing patterns, segregated schools, discriminatory employment and promotion policies, racial profiling and inequalities in health care, segregated churches, and educational curricula that ignore or distort the history of minorities. (Sue, 2003, p.33)

As an American phenomenon, historians generally agree, the origins of racial prejudice based on biological considerations were closely tied to the practice of slavery and colonial expansion (Racism and the Church, 1994, p.17). Europeans promoted racism on the New Continent in the form of slavery shortly after embarking on their voyages of discovery. As they saw it, Van Den Berghe asserts, "slavery was a matter of economic expediency, if not necessity" (qtd. in Ibid.).

Gus Hall (1985) remarks that as a system, slavery covers up the real nature of class exploitation, an exploitation motivated solely by a drive for maximum profits for the richest corporate owners in the capitalist societies. In other words, it covers up the fact that the roots of racism are embedded in the system of capitalist exploitation and that the patron promoter of racism is the capitalist class (pp.3-4).

Targeted as being inferior, subhuman, and destined for servitude, black people were the main victims of slavery in America. In Race Relations, H. H. L. Kitano indicates that the experience of slavery left inedible mark in the collective consciousness of the black people (in Coleman, 2003, p. 46). Stanley R. Coleman (2003) sheds light on the economic and social implications of the slavery system. According to him, this system denied black men and women power and identity. It is also responsible for the emergence of the phenomenon of black matriarchy, as a result of subverting gender roles within the black family system (p.46). Doris Wilkinson and Ronald Taylor well summed up this dilemma. They point out that through…systemic denial of an opportunity to work for black men, white America thrust the black women in to the role of family provider. This pattern of female-headed families was reinforced by the marginal economic position of the black male. (qtd. in Ibid., p.47)

Therefore, slavery, it is claimed, is responsible to a significant extent for many of the contemporary problems that plague the black community, such as- poverty, crime, unemployment, family instability, female-headed families, lack of educational and occupational achievement, and low labor force participation (Starkey, 2003, p.2).

After the abolition of slavery in the mid-Nineteenth century, little has changed for the black people. The whites in power in the American South reacted to the growing political power of the newly emancipated Blacks by passing segregation, or "Jim Crow," laws. These laws severely restricted the interactions between blacks and whites, as well as limiting the private and public spaces allowed to Blacks. Andrea Moon (2004) points out that though the facilities by law were supposed to be "separate but equal," in reality, blacks were viewed and treated as "second-class citizens, were disenfranchised from the political process and were not afforded the same protection under the law as white citizens"(p.1). These laws lasted until the Civil Rights Movement challenged them in the 1950s and 1960s. As a result, many blacks moved north to escape economic hardships and racism in the South. They were looking for an improved way of life: higher wages, adequate housing, better schools, and a greater share of justice, freedom and dignity. However, once in the North, most blacks were forced to reside in crowded houses and apartments, with the demand for housing often resulting in inflated rents. This results in the emergence of separate black cities within the major northern cities (Maitino and Peck, 1996, p.140).

These patterns of discrimination result in the emergence of several chronic problems such as the establishment of segregated districts in the new urban regions. As a system, "segregation is the dividing up of racial groups in daily life. This can occur in housing, entertainment, public transportation, schools, etc." (Moon, 2004, p. 1). The Black Belt districts in Chicago are a case in point here. These districts, Brandon Coles (2006) observes, consisted of "overprized, overcrowded, and poorly-maintained apartments and homes" (p.1). The emergence of these districts in the 1920s gives a new meaning to the term "ghetto." In the ghettos, crime rates were often high and public services were limited. Most blacks living in the ghetto had hopes of leaving to better suburban neighborhoods, but segregated housing policies kept them stuck in the ghetto (Ibid.).

In addition to charging black families high prices for low quality housing which limits blacks' opportunities to move to better neighborhoods, the National Association of Real Estate Boards in Chicago decides that it would be "unethical for its members to facilitate the sale of home in white neighborhoods to members of minority groups," in this case, black, assuming that such a sale would decrease property values to those who remained in the neighborhood (Domina, 1998, p.24). So, even if a homeowner is willing to sell to a minority family, he or she would be unable to complete the sale because of this segregationist policy. Neighborhoods became racially 'restrictive covenants,' which are "contractual agreements among property owners that prohibit the purchase, lease, or occupation of their premises by a particular group of people, usually, blacks" (A Raisin: The Ghetto, 2006, p.2). In this sense, the real Estate industry literally trapped the black family in the ghetto.

Another outcome of racial discrimination is the Redlining policy which is the "practice of arbitrarily denying or

limiting financial services to specific neighborhoods, generally because its residents are people of color or are poor"(Ibid., p.4) Like other forms of discrimination, redlining had pernicious and damaging effects. Without bank loans and insurance, redlined areas lacked the capital essential for investment and redevelopment. As a result, after Second World War, suburban areas received preference for residential investment at the expense of poor and minority neighborhoods in cities like Chicago. The relative lack of investment in new housing, rehabilitation, and home improvement contributed significantly to the deteriorating living conditions, a strong sense of exasperation and compounded Chicago's decline in relation to its suburbs (Ibid.).

The blacks staunchly believe that white society is deeply implicated in the ghetto system. The 1968 National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, a mostly white group of prominent Americans appointed by President Lyndon B. Johnson to investigate the ghetto riots of the 1960s, concluded: "Our nation is moving toward two societies, one black, one white- separate and unequal"(qtd. in Feagin and Sikes, 1994, p.6). In fact, the first pages of the commission's final report minced no words about whites' responsibility for the condition of black Americans:

Discrimination and segregation have long permeated much of American life….White society is deeply implicated in the ghetto. White institutions created it, white institutions maintain it, and white society condones it. White racism is essentially responsible for the explosive mixture which has been accumulating in our cities since the end of World War II. (Ibid.)

Naturally, racially discriminated attitudes towards the blacks negatively affect their public image. Terry H. Anderson (1996) notes the popularity of racial slurs and "nigger jokes" throughout America. Whites might refer to the balcony as "nigger heaven" or Brazil nuts as "nigger toes"; they might respond to a generous act with "mighty white of you." Racism even followed the black man into the grave for when he died a benevolent white might pay a compliment by writing in the obituary column, "He was a black man, but he had a white heart"(pp.27-28).

Yet slurs, Anderson asserts, were minor compared with the problem of making a living, for being black was being poor (Ibid., p.29). Anderson supports his argument with a number of factual evidence that clearly show the prevalence of racial discrimination in the American institutions. In 1960 the department of Labor reported that the average black worker made less than 60 percent of his white counterparts. Moreover, blacks held the worst jobs; jobs which most whites would find demeaning. Fewer than 7 percent of them had professional or managerial positions, about a fourth of the figure for whites, while about half of black men were unskilled workers or laborers. In New York City, a third of black women were domestic servants. Those who became educated also found wage discrimination; in the South, black College graduates earned about half of white graduates, and in the north about two-thirds (Ibid.). Commenting on this, Michael Harrington wrote,

If all the discriminatory laws in the United States were immediately repealed, race would still remain as one of the most pressing moral and political problems in the nation. Negroes and other minorities are not simply the victims of a series of iniquitous statutes. The American economy, the American society, and the American unconscious are all racist. (qtd. in Ibid., p.29)

To sum up, "being black in America," in the words of Marian Wright Edelman, "is utterly exhausting- physically, mentally, and emotionally….There is no respite or escape from your badge of color"(qtd. in Feagin and Sikes, 1994, p.3). Racial discrimination in America, in fact, must be understood as a daily living experience. It caused black people to hate themselves and their culture. They are torn apart between maintaining their racial and cultural identity or surrendering to the dictates of the white-dominated society.

Lorraine Hansberry's A Raisin in the Sun (1959) (henceforth A Raisin) is an attempt to examine the impact of racial discrimination on the life of an ordinary black family. It is also a testament of this family struggling to cope with racism and poverty in Chicago. The play centers on the coming of a life insurance check and the problems and complications that arise around and because of it. Each of the characters in the play attempts to achieve a meaningful life within a struggle against racial impediments, and an analysis of the character's responses to racism will reveal the nature of their heroic qualities.

As a black woman and artist born in 1930 and dying in 1965, Hansberry is clearly aware of the significance of racism in the United States of America and she includes racial bigotry as an important element in her play. The play, in fact, is a response to the urban segregation her family had fought for so long, and, the capitalist system from which segregation grew. It directly engages segregation struggles in Chicago as a "penultimate symbol of black oppression and resistance" (Gordon, 2008, p.126). In doing so, Hansberry brought local and individual struggles of blacks against segregation, ghettoization, and capitalist exploitation to the national stage (Ibid.).

The Youngers live in a segregated neighborhood in a city that remains one of the most segregated areas in the United States. Virtually every act they perform is affected by their race. When the play premiered in 1959, Blacks and Whites were still segregated, and they usually had no contact with each other apart from work. Lena, the matriarch head of the family as well as her daughter –in-law, Ruth were maids for white women and the latter's husband, Walter, was the chauffeur of a white man. Walter's description of his job as dull and monotonous and depressing reveals that his "job suppresses any sense of individuality or desire for initiative, that it positions him as utterly powerless" (Domina, 1998, p.21). As the play demonstrates, the status of "rich white" people depends in part on their ability to employ men and women like Walter, Ruth, and Mama as their servants (Ibid.).Moreover, because they have low paying jobs and also because absentee landlords often do not maintain their properties, the Youngers are limited to their poorly maintained

apartment.

The epigraph of the play consists of several lines from one of Langston Hughes's most famous poems, "Montage of a Dream Deferred." The play's title is taken from this epigraph. In the first part of the poem, Hughes questions the outcome of deferring one's dreams. He asks whether or not these postponed dreams will "dry up/ Like a raisin in the sun?" (Hansberry, 1960, p.101)(All subsequent quotations are from this edition). The tragic consequences when dreams are not realized are stated in the last stanza: May be it just sags/ Like a heavy load/ Or does it explode? On the thematic correspondence between the epigraph and the events of the play, Domina (1998) explains that "Although many writers choose to use epigraphs, not all of them are as thematically significant to the work as the one Hansberry has chosen"(p.1). Hansberry's epigraph asks a question that the play attempts to answer- and the answers vary from character to character. Especially after Walter Younger loses the insurance money, some characters seem dangerously close to losing hope, whereas others seem to smolder, waiting for a spark to ignite their barely repressed anger.

Each of the major characters has a dream, and these dreams urge the plot forward. Mama's dream to own home with a yard big enough for a garden is one that she has nurtured for years- and that has been deferred for years. She remembers moving into the apartment where the play takes place with her husband when they believed the residence would only be temporary. Yet she lived her entire married life there, and it is only through her husband's death that her dream has a chance of being realized because of the life insurance payment. However, it turns out that the house she chooses to buy is in a white-dominated neighborhood.

Unlike his mother, Walter wants to invest in a liquor store. Commenting on the nature of their dreams, Harry J. Elam and David Krasner (2001) observe that both characters seem to be pursuing the American dream of upward mobility—property and money—when, in fact, Hansberry is using their aspirations as metaphors for the dream of freedom and the right to be respected as not only a citizen but as a human being. (p.40)

A Raisin, in fact, is deeply rooted in the personal experience of Hansberry; an experience which turned on her racial identity. She experienced many of the situations she placed the Younger family in at first hand. When she eight years old, she and her family lived in a black neighborhood in Chicago South Side where segregation- the enforced separation of whites and blacks- was still legal and wide spread. Determined to battle racial discrimination in housing industry, Hansberry's father, Carl, moved his family into a predominantly white neighborhood at the opposition of its white residents. As Bigsby (2004) points out, it is clear that for Hansberry, the play rests if not on the fact of race, then on the meaning ascribed to it. In doing so, she created a play which accurately reflected the mood and strategy of   the Civil Rights Movement for which the desegregation of housing, along with the desegregation of education, transportation, and all public services was a major objective. (pp.278-279)

In their new house, the Hansberry withstood daily assaults by racist whites who hurled bricks and bottles through their windows. Hansberry's memories of this painful experience which shaped her life and writings include "being spat at, cursed, and pummeled in the daily trek to and from school." She also remembers her desperate and courageous mother, patrolling the house all night with a loaded German luger, doggedly guarding her four children, while [Lorraine's] father fought the respectable part of the battle in the Washington Supreme Court. (qtd. in Gordon, 2008,p. 124)

The family was eventually evicted from their home by the Illinois Court, but Hansberry's father and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People took the case to the United States Supreme Court and won. This case became a landmark civil right ruling banning racially restrictive covenants in housing contracts.

The Supreme Court decree in the case of Hansberry vs. Lee, begins by insisting: "There is no right more elemental nor any liberty more fundamental in a democracy than freedom to move where and when you please." The decree connects mobility and housing to the rights and privileges of citizenship in a democracy (Gershun Avilez, 2008, p.135).

In locating the Younger family in Chicago's South Side, Hansberry, Gordon (2008) points out, directly engages "crises produced by ghetto economics, and dehumanizing living conditions… and explosive encounters along urban color lines" (p.124). The Younger live in a place that had to "accommodate the living of too many people for too many years"(p.105;1,1). Husband and wife share one room, while mother and daughter share another. The son sleeps in the living room, which also serves as a dining room and is also part of the tiny kitchen. It is evident that this family is not well off. Many tensions arise throughout the course of the play and it becomes clear that the conflicts in the family relationships are rooted in the economical problems that the Younger family faces.

At the beginning of A Raisin, Lorraine states that "the action of the play is set in Chicago's South Side, sometimes between World War II and the present"(p.104;1,1). Stephen Grant Meyer identifies this period, from World War II to roughly 1960, as America's most intensely violent period of upheaval over race and housing. Chicago, Meyer notes, was the most violent city of all. It is a city rocked with bombs in and around black homes and businesses (in Gordon, 2008, p.132).

Several factors contribute to this. By mid-century, Chicago's South Side had become one of the most densely crowded ghettoes in America, where two generations of Hansberry's had waged, with lawyers and guns, local and national campaigns against racial segregation, terrorism, and injustice. Like the Youngers, 64% of black women and 34% of black men in Chicago worked as domestic servants. Like Mama Younger, some 80% of Chicago's interwar residents had migrated to Chicago from the South, seeking employment, education, the vote, and freedom from anti-black violence (Ibid., p.130). But black unemployment in the city doubled that of whites; the majority of black

taxpayers' children, like Hansberry herself, attended overcrowded, under-funded schools on half-day shifts (Ibid., 124). In one of her last public appearances, Hansberry spoke of segregation's debilitating effects in personal and broad sociopolitical terms:

I was given, during the grade school years, one-half the amount of education prescribed by the Board of Education of my city…. I am a product of [Chicago's segregated school] system and one result is that- to this day- I can not count properly…[or] make even simple change in a grocery store….This is what is meant when we speak of the scars, the marks that the ghettoized child carries through life. To be imprisoned in the ghetto is to be forgotten- or deliberately cheated of one's birthright-at best. (qtd. in Ibid., p.132)

Therefore, the Hansberry, and later on, their literary counterpart, the Younger, were determined to come out of the ghettoes of America, because the ghettoes are killing us; not only our dreams, as Mama says, but our very bodies. It is not an abstraction to us that the average American Negro has a life expectancy of five to ten years less than the average white. (Ibid., p.121)

This explains Ruth's hilarious reaction when Mama announces she has bought a house in Claybourne Park. In spite of her distress at the prospect of living amid Chicago's hostile whites, Ruth laughs joyously and encourages Mama to go on in her plan. Weighing the danger of the ghetto against those posed by anti-black terrorism, Ruth determines that she will "work twenty hours a day in all the kitchens in Chicago…and scrub all the floors in America…if I have to…but we got to MOVE… We got to get out of here" (pp.195-196; 3). Gordon (2008) believes that the imperative to move to Claybourne Park refers to both "the Younger family's physical departure from Chicago's ghetto and to what Hansberry saw as necessary mass movement to reconstruct the social order."(p.133)

Housing segregation is not the only problem the Younger are facing. In his seminal study, "A Raisin in the Sun: The Ghetto Trap," Brandon Coles (2006) sheds light on the role played by government, religious, leaders, and average Americans in supporting the segregated housing environment of Chicago.

The housing industry was the greatest cause of segregated housing in Chicago. Within this industry, Louis L. Knowles and Kenneth Prewitt observed that "Real estate agencies play the largest role in maintaining segregated communities" (qtd. in Colas, 2006, p.26). Real estate agents made enormous profits by manipulating white fears of integration and black desires to escape the ghetto. Many blacks, like the Younger family in A Raisin, were discouraged from fulfilling their dreams of home ownership outside of traditionally black neighborhoods for better and more affordable housing. Lena's experience with Karl Lindner, the representative of the white community, and his attempted buy-out bring to the forefront the exploitation that was happening in these communities. This brings out the importance of introducing the character of Mama in the play. In portraying Mama as a strong black woman who is able to say 'no' to the threats of Lindner and fulfill her dream, Hansberry has two purposes. Firstly, Mama's character represents a challenge to the stereotypical representation of black women on the American stage; and secondly, she wants her white audience to realize the danger of maintaining the racist policies in the American institutions.

In insisting on fulfilling her dream of moving to their new house, Mama's main aim is to improve her family's living conditions. When Ruth observes that "We've put enough [money] in this rat trap to pay for four houses by now,"(p.152; 2,1) she is not making an idle statement considering the unreasonably high costs of ghetto housing. Like most blacks in the Chicago ghettos, the Younger family lives in a "tired," run-down, "rat-trap" apartment (p.124;1,2). Neighborhood games further reveal poverty: Travis chases and kills a cat "as big as a cat," with his friends (p.171;2,3). The Younger's house is roach-infested, and a Saturday morning chore consists of "spraying insecticide into the cracks in the walls"(p.131;1,2). Like the "rat trap" of the Younger, living conditions for blacks in the ghetto were poor.

Thus, there is, Bigsby (2004) remarks, a parallel between the exhausted apartment of the family and those who inhabit it. A single small window provides the sole natural light which fights its way through the little window; it is parallel to the hope which has never quite been extinguished in their hearts, a hope which makes, "their later decision to move to another house equally a decision to remake those who inhabit it. (pp.277-278)

In fact, what Hansberry presents as the "indestructible contradictions to this state of being- the rats, roaches, worn furniture, over-crowded conditions, and anti-integration bombs-" Gordon (2008) asserts, "not only set the stage for the dramatic action in A Raisin, but also serve as evidence of Chicago's political and economic infrastructures of deliberate segregation" (p.128). She uses the bloody demise of a "rat….Big as a cat, honest!" to establish a pervasive reality of ghetto life early in the play. Where there is little or no municipal sanitation service or landlord upkeep, rats and roaches thrive. The rat, therefore, addresses the callous neglect and economic exploitation of ghettoized communities. Such substandard living conditions and negligence, Hansberry suggests, are criminal, particularly in their endangerment of ghettoized children, who remain the most likely victims of such environmental hazards, including rat bites (Ibid.).

The problem of the government which held blacks in the ghetto and which the Hansberry family experienced is implied in A Raisin. Walter plans to chop through the government's forest of red tape to gain a liquor license by bribing a city official. He explains his reasoning to Ruth, his wife, saying, "don't nothing happen for you in this world: less you pay somebody off!"(p.114;1,1). According to Colas (2006), a government where graft is common is a government slow to respond to its people's needs. Despite the poverty that the Younger family lives in, there is no mention of help or any sort of aid from the government, even to fumigate their house for healthier living conditions (pp.2-3).

Initially, the opening scene seems to reveal a typically chaotic morning in a family where too many people have to be up and out in too short a time. But within a few lines of dialogue, Walter asks about the forthcoming life insurance

check and also refers to a newspaper story about a bomb (p.107;1;1). The relationship between these two questions-how to invest the life insurance money for the greatest good of the entire family, and how to live in a city and country where bombs are set off in the homes of blacks who move into white neighborhood- forms the heart of the play.

Hansberry has been careful in the opening scene to have the characters interact in such a way that their conflicts with each other are immediately revealed. Ruth criticizes Walter for entertaining his friends the night before in the living room that serves as Travis's bedroom, a comment that serves "the purpose of revealing crowded conditions of the apartment as well as Ruth's disapproval of Walter's friends" (Domina, 1998, p.6).

Many comments demonstrating the characters' frustration early in the play illustrates the effects of segregation before that topic is addressed directly. In Act One, Scene One, Walter reveals his disappointment: "I got a boy who sleeps in the living room…and all I got to give him is stories about how rich white people live"(p.115;1,1). Class parallels race, Walter implies, so even if he were to become wealthy, he'd never live in the luxury of "rich white people." Other characters also rely on the phrase "rich white," indicating that to them "rich" can not be separated from "white." Urging Mama to buy herself a trip to Europe or South America, Ruth says, "rich white women do it all the time" (p.123;1,1). As the play demonstrates, how "white people live is closely related to where they are able to live" (Domina, 1998, p.21).

Walter sees affluence around him, especially in his job as a chauffeur for rich white man. He has to be rich if he wants to get a slice of the American dream. Therefore, he finds himself compelled to model himself after the white community that he encounters daily and to accept American values. Commenting on this, Julius Lester writes that Walter has been taught that he should want the world, but because he is black he has been denied the possibility of ever having it. And that only makes the pain of the desire that much more hurting. (qtd. in Maitino and Peck, 1996, p.135)

Walter believes that money brings with it power and freedom. As a black man in a dead-end job, he feels that the American dream is out of his reach. If he can become a successful businessman by investing the insurance money in a liquor store, he thinks he will be able to hand his son the world- the American dream. This explains the reason behind Mama's decision to give Walter some of the Family's money in part because she witnesses how his failed dreams have begun to crush him. Rather than let go of them, he internalizes his dreams until they consume his spirit. In other words, he falls victim to the materialistic dictates of his society.

Besides the housing industry and government, white religious leaders from all areas of the United States contribute to segregated housing. Noteworthy, in this regard, is the play's allusion to an actual event that took place in 1959. In that year, in a growing neighborhood outside Chicago, Progress Development Corporation planned to sell ten to twelve homes to blacks. When the all-white neighborhood of Deerfield discovered this, they were furious. The Reverend Parker of Deerfield, Bob Danning, explained his feeling and the feelings of his neighbors when he points out, We're not bigots. We do not go around calling people names. And I do not think we want to deny Negroes or anybody else the right to decent home, just as good as ours. But not next door." (qtd. in Colas, 2006, p.1)

Here Hansberry analyses northern racism, as expressed by the Reverend Parker of Deerfield who used Christian terminology to further buttress segregation. For example, he told his parishioners that as a Christian, he must approve of integration. But he undercut his statement by stating he did not approve of Progress Development Corporation's method to "bring integration to Deerfield"(David Rosen qtd. in Colas, 2006, p.3).

Karl Lindner is the literary counterpart of Bob Danning. He is the Chairman of Calybourne Park Improvement Association, aimed at improving the living conditions for the people of Claybourne Park. He comes to the Youngers' apartment with concerns about the new house they have just purchased. He tells Walter that the people of Claybourne believe that "People get along better…when they share a common background"(p.178;2,3). Lindner offers Walter money not to move into the new house, which he turns down. Joyce Moss states, "The racism faced by the play's characters is rarely of the overt kind. Lindner is pleasant, and claims not to be prejudice"(Free Essays: A Raisin, 2008, p.1). This quote is not true, Hansberry believes, because there are no forms of pleasant racism. Racism can never be considered pleasant for "racism represents hatred and there is no form of pleasant hatred"(Ibid.).

The characterization of Lindner is a scathing commentary on white northern racism on the personal level. He is dressed professionally, appears innocuous, "quiet-looking," "middle-aged," and "a gentle man"(pp.175-176;2,3). He speaks to the Youngers in a pious tone saying "most of the trouble [between whites and blacks] exists because people just don't sit down and talk to each other"(p.177;2,3). To his remark, Ruth replies, "You can say that again mister," while "nodding as she might in church"(Ibid.). Hansberry shows further textual evidence that Lindner represents religious leadership as Beneatha tells Mama about Lindner's offer to their family. She says, "He talked [about] Brotherhood. He said everybody ought to learn how to sit down and hate each other with good Christian fellowship"(p.180;2,3). Lindner even sounds like the Reverend Parker of Deerfield when he states, "You've got to admit that a man, right or wrong, has the right to want to have the neighborhood he lives in a certain king of way"(p.177;2,3). Both men gently justify segregation in a religious manner. Lindner is calm, patient, and "almost sadly," warns the Youngers that they will be in physical danger if they move into Claybourne Park (p.179; 2,3). He reminds them of the terrible "incidents which have happened in various parts of the city when colored people have moved into certain areas"(p.176;2,3). In this sense, Lindner is a forerunner of the hostility and potential violence that the Youngers will experience in their new neighborhood (Maitino and Peck, 1996, p.138).

He does not want to be viewed as a bomb-throwing, crossburning racist; rather, he perceives himself as logical, courteous, and just—after all, he is willing to reimburse the Youngers for their investment by purchasing the house from

them. However, by desiring to keep the Youngers away from Claybourne Park, Lindner is implying to them as Mama says, "[They] aren't fit to walk the earth"(p.170;2,2). Like Bob Danning, Lindner says, "I want you to believe me when I tell you that race prejudice simply doesn't enter it… Our negro families are happier when they live in their own communities"(p.178;2,3). Unwittingly he has reversed his vocabulary, for he represents white families who believe they will be happier if they can live "in their own communities." In other words, Lindner is uncomfortable with overt racism but even more uncomfortable with integration when it applies to his own neighborhood (Domina, 1998, pp.21-22).

Hansberry employs Mr. Lindner to demonstrate the seemingly benign ways that northern whites deny racial discrimination. To dissuade the Youngers from moving into Clybourne Park, Mr. Lindner draws on a paternalistic language of rights to protect the "hard-working, honest people who don't really have much but those little homes and a dream of the kind of community they want to raise their children in…You've got to admit that a man, right or wrong, has the right to want to have the neighborhood he lives in a certain kind of way" (p.177;2,3).

Mr. Lindner's speech represents only one rhetorical maneuver by which Housing Improvement Associations defended segregation in the urban North. According to Gordon (2008), their paternalism was accompanied by two other rhetorical strategies: a battle language of victimization and terrorism, on the one hand, and a language of miscegenation and degeneration, on the other hand. With its talk of "Negro invasions" and "them bombs and things [whites] keep setting off," A Raisin engages both the language and the violence of Chicago's housing segregation (p.127).

The character of Lindner symbolizes the mass of white people who are uncomfortable with their own prejudice and therefore deny it. He could satirically be called a "good" bigot. That is, he does not overtly advocate throwing bombs or committing other types of violence, but he nevertheless does have a distinct idea about whom he will call his neighbor. He will be reasonable as long as other people accept his reasoning. When the Youngers refuse his logic and his offer to reimburse them if they will relinquish their new house, Lindner essentially warns them that they've had their chance for a peaceful solution. In doing so, he implicitly threatens them with a more violent response when they move (Domina, 1998, pp.10-11).

Moreover, Thomas J. Sugrue points out that, in the North, in spite of its language of property rights, "Neighborhood defense became more than a struggle for turf; it was a battle for the preservation of white womanhood" (qtd. in Gordon, 2008, p.128). While Walter, Ruth, and Beneatha discuss Mr. Lindner's visit, Hansberry cuts to the heart of white Americans' fear of integration:

Beneatha: What they think we going to do—eat 'em?

Ruth: No, honey, marry 'era. (p.180; 2, 3)

Hansberry and Ruth understand that the specter of miscegenation activates a matrix of violence and anxiety. Much like their southern counterparts, northern supremacist wielded a language of black barbarism and absolute separation to impose the terror of miscegenation: "It won't be long now," workers claimed in Chicago taverns in the wake of the 1954 Brown v. Board of Education Supreme Court decision, "and negroes and whites inter-marrying will be a common thing and the white race will go downhill" (Arnold Hirsch qtd. In Gordon, 2008, p.128).

After losing the insurance money, Walter invited Lindner to return, and he intends to accept Lindner's offer to repurchase the house from the Youngers against the will of the rest of his family. Here the play again implies, Domina (1998) remarks, that although a century has passed since the Civil War, little has changed; the question remains the same: Is a dark-skinned person as human as a light-skinned person? (p.12) In surrendering to Lindner's offer, Walter has psychologically become his society's prey. When Lindner arrives, however, and Mama insists that Travis witness the surrender of his father, Walter rediscovers his dignity. Even though their impending move may be financially as well as psychologically challenging, the Younger choose to accept the risks that dignity demands. "In making this decision," writes Steven A Carter, "Walter acknowledges his links not only to his family, but also to his race through past, present, and future generations and identifies with their mutual struggle against racist restrictions"(qtd. in Maitino and Peck, 1996, p.136). The play ends with the arrival of the moving trucks. The Younger will move into the white neighborhood not with the goal of merely challenging the white community, but because they need, want this house, and they can afford it. "Their move is not only practical but it is also based on human dignity" (Ibid.).

For Hansberry, the economic exploitation, anti-integration bombs, and organizing activities of the Clybourne Park Improvement Association are absolutely central to the project of A Raisin. Throughout the play, the Younger exhibit more than what Theophilus Lewis describes as "sensitivity" to the "economic pressures" of ghetto life, or a deficient understanding "that they are engaged in a sociological race war" (qtd in Gordon, 2008, p.128). In buying the house in Clybourne Park, Mama asserts her family's right to refute the economic exploitation of Chicago housing industry.

Racial discrimination remains a major social and economic issue even in the countries that have tried to address it explicitly and systematically in their public policy programs. In her letters, plays, and autobiographies, Hansberry documented the nature of this issue in the the 1950s, a time when America was reeling from the atrocities of a world war and beginning to realize that she had another war inside her border, i.e., racism. In fact, the hatred and prejudice toward blacks that had existed since the infancy of America was beginning to increase. Blacks, no longer content with the second-class citizenship status that America has forced upon them through segregation and Jim Crow Laws, began their epic battle for freedom and civil rights. Hansbery depicts this period in her semi-autobiographical play, A Raisin. In this play, she articulates a world where each family member's life is dependent upon the choice he/she makes to postpone or actualize dreams. The characters are experiencing the same problems that many blacks were encountering

during that period. However, her portrayal of Chicago's segregated housing market is particularly poignant because of her accurate observation that Chicago's segregated housing market existed mainly because of racism within the housing industry, the government, religious leaders, and the individual American.

The relationship to white racial discrimination was addressed in many forms in the play. The visit of Karl Lindner to convince the Younger not to move to Claybourne Park, the dominant feeling among the blacks that they are trapped in low-paying jobs and subsequently in the ghettos and, the negligence of housing maintenance in the ghettos are but few examples that elucidate the destructive impact of racism on the lives of black people. Consequently, the decision to resist racial discrimination is not a choice; it is a duty that blacks must carry out if they want to live in dignity in their own land. Hansberry staunchly holds the view that Negroes must concern themselves with every single means of struggle: legal, illegal, passive, active, violent and non-violent. That they must harness, debate, petition, give money to court strugglers, sitting, lie-down, strike, boycott, sing hymns, pray on steps and shoot from windows when the racist come cruising through their communities. The acceptance of our present condition is the only form of extremism which discredits us before our children. (Hansberry: A Short Biography, 2000, p.1)

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Politeness Principle in the Translation of Business Letters[*]

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Abstract—As the primary form of business communication, business letters play an indispensable role in business activities and contribute considerably to the rapid development of international trade and business. Therefore, the translation of business letters seems critical to the successful communication. Business letters are very formal writing and they observe politeness principle strictly in order to maintain and enhance a good rapport with business partners. So the translation of them needs to consider both English and Chinese politeness principles, which are compared in this paper and politeness equivalence in translation is proposed. Some translating methods are suggested as well.

Index Terms—Politeness Principle, equivalence, business letters translation

I. INTRODUCTION

With the development of economic globalization and the expansion of transnational corporations, the cooperation and trade between China and other countries are booming and deepening. China, the largest exporter and the largest market in the world, is conducting an unprecedented exchange with the world. As the primary form of business communication, business letters play an indispensable role in commercial activities and contribute considerably to the rapid development of international trade and business. Therefore, a well-translated business letter counts much in international business. Business letters are very formal writing and they observe politeness principle strictly in order to maintain and enhance a good rapport with business partners. In order to achieve the equivalent effect of politeness in the translation of business letters, translators need to get familiar with the politeness principles in both Chinese and English cultures.

II. POLITENESS IN BOTH ENGLISH AND CHINESE CULTURES

As an important part of pragmatic study, researches on politeness have been conducted for a long time. Many scholars proposed their own theories from different perspectives. Grice's Cooperative Principle (CP), Leech's Politeness Principle and Brown and Levison's face-saving view are all influential theories concerning this topic and have made great contribution to the development of pragmatic study.

Based on the theories of western scholars and with the combination of Chinese culture, Chinese researchers have developed Chinese Politeness Principle. Gu Yueguo, the most influential scholar in this area, has summed up the essential elements of Chinese *"limao"* as the following four notions: respectfulness, modesty, attitudinal warmth, and refinement (Gu, 1990). According to the four notions of Chinese politeness, Gu (1990) proposed four maxims of Politeness Principle: the Self-denigration Maxim, the Address Maxim, the Tact Maxim and the Generosity Maxim.

A. Politeness in English Culture

1. Grice's Cooperative Principle

In a 1975 article entitled *Logic and Conversation*, the American philosopher Paul Grice pointed out that an utterance can imply a proposition (i.e., a statement) that is not a part of the utterance and that does not follow as a necessary consequence of the utterance. Grice called such an implied statement an implicature. In order to explain how the speaker can convey more than what is said and how the hearer can arrive at the speaker's meaning, Grice highlighted that human beings communicate effectively because they are by nature helpful to each other. So based on the concept of implicature, he proposed Cooperative Principle which are the mechanisms or assumptions governing the production and comprehension of the implied statements.

The Cooperative Principle consists of four conversational maxims. They are: (1) Maxim of Quantity. Each participant's contribution to a conversation should be just as informative as is required. (2) Maxim of Quality. Each participant's contribution should be truthful and based on sufficient evidence. (3) Maxim of Relevance. Each participant's contribution should be relevant to the subject of the conversation. (4) Maxim of Manner. Each participant's contribution should be expressed in a reasonably clear fashion; that is, it should not be vague, ambiguous or excessively wordy.

Generally speaking, these maxims specify that in order to converse in a maximally efficient, rational, cooperative way, participants should speak sincerely, relevantly and clearly with sufficient information provided.

Although Grice's CP helps to explain the relationship between literal meaning and implicature, it does not tell us why people violate those maxims so often. It gives rise to Leech's Politeness Principle, a supplement to CP.

2. Leech's Politeness Principle

Cao (1998) points out that the maxims in CP are not always strictly observed; rather, for various reasons they are often violated. Some of these violations can be explained by Grice's conversational implicature. But there are still some other violations that can not be satisfactorily illustrated by Grice's theory. So it is found that CP alone can not fully explain how people talk. It does not tell us why people are often so indirect in conveying what they mean. It is either not good enough to explain what is the relation between sense and force when non-declarative types of sentences are being considered. This is where Politeness Principle comes in. In 1983, Geoffrey N. Leech, the famous British linguist, proposed the Politeness Principle and tried to offer some satisfactory answers to the unsolved questions. Leech believes the main reason that why people violate Cooperative Principle deliberately is they take politeness into consideration.

(1) Parent: Someone's eaten the icing of the cake.
     Son: It wasn't me. (Cao, 1998)

In this dialogue, the parent violated the maxim of quantity because he just said "someone" had eaten the icing of the cake instead of scolding the child for that. The reason why he did so is he did not want to embarrass his child, or he wanted to be polite.

For another example, if you want someone to close the door, you could in theory use any of the following sentences.

(2) Shut the door!
     I wonder if you would mind shutting the door.
     It's so cold in here. (ibid)

But in practice, the first, a direct command, is seldom used because it seems somewhat rude.

Politeness Principle seems to have a higher regulative role than cooperative principle in that it helps to maintain the friendly relations which are required for smooth and effective communication. This is especially true in some cases, e.g. when we want to get our hearers to do something for us.

Humans everywhere ten to be polite in similar ways, based on two basic social requirements: "No criticism" and "No interference". Humans want to be approved of, and they do not want to be imposed upon. Consequently, anyone with social know-how will minimize criticism of others and will avoid interfering with their liberty, at least overtly. These requirements of "No criticism" and "No interference" have an effect on language. Any criticism or interference will be a social risk. Therefore, speakers/writers have to balance up the advantages and disadvantages of "straight talking".

As a supplement to CP, PP has six maxims. Leeeh proposes these maxims to explain how politeness is manifested. When stating his maxims, two terms "self" and "other" are applied since politeness is concerned with a relationship between at least two participants."Self" is used to refer to the speaker and "other" to the hearer or a third party in a conversation.

Maximize (other things being equal) the expression of polite beliefs;
Minimize (other things being equal) the expression of impolite beliefs.

(i) Tact maxim
     (a)   Minimize cost of others;
     (b)   Maximize benefit to others.
(ii) Generosity Maxim
     (c)   Minimize benefit to self;
     (d)   Maximize cost to self.
(iii) Approbation Maxim
     (a)   Minimize dispraise of others;
     (b)   Maximize praise of others.
(iv) Modesty Maxim
     (a)   Minimize praise of self;
     (b)   Maximize dispraise of self.
(v) Agreement Maxim
     (a)   Minimize disagreement between self and others;
     (b)   Maximize agreement between self and others.
(vi) Sympathy Maxim
     (a)   Minimize antipathy between self and others;
     (b)   Maximize sympathy between self and others.   (Cao, 1998)

Politeness Principle provides us a standard for dealing with interpersonal relations. The observation of the above maxims can promote the success of communication. The PP is instructive in the felicitous choice of words in the writing of business letters. Everyone likes to enjoy the due respect of others. If the caring and respect for your business partner is duly conveyed in your letter, they will feel pleased and the cooperation is likely to be successful. On the contrary, if your partner is hurt by your letter, there will be some negative influence on your relations, even the

cooperation will be put in danger.

3. Brown and Levison's face-saving view

Politeness can also be interpreted as "the expression of the speakers' intention to mitigate face threats carried by certain face threatening acts toward another." (Mills, 2003, p.6) Politeness consists of efforts to save face for another. What does "face" mean here? There are expressions like "losing face" and "saving face". It is believed that the concept of face is Chinese in origin and many languages have this term that metaphorically means "prestige, honor or reputation". Goffman (1955, p.213) offered us a more detailed definition: The term face may be defined as the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact. Face is an image of self delineated in terms of approved social attributes.

Brown and Levinson expanded Goffman's concept of face to their politeness theory and made it the core of their politeness framework, which falls into positive face and negative face. Speakers concern both "positive face", the need for solidarity with others, and "negative face", the need for freedom from imposition by others.

B. Politeness in Chinese Context

Politeness is universal to every social group, but one politeness principle can not be universally applied to any society. The politeness principle is affected by different cultures. Sometimes what the Chinese people considered to be polite may not be the same in western culture. Politeness has the same social functions in both Chinese and Western cultures, and common polite languages in these two cultures are almost the same, but they are different in practical use. These differences often become the source of pragmatic failures in intercultural communication. So it is advisable to discuss the politeness principle in Chinese context.

The concept of Chinese politeness "li" can be traced back to ancient time when Confucius (551-479 B.C.), a great Chinese philosopher and thinker, spared no efforts to restore the social hierarchy and order of the slavery system of Zhou Dynasty. As was expected in ancient China, "li" is hoped to bear the duties of enhancing social harmony and lessening interpersonal tension or conflict in modern Chinese.

1. Chinese Politeness Principle

During the past hundreds of years, the ancient concept of "li" has eventually evolved into "limao" of today in China. The core of Chinese politeness or limao is "self-denigration and other-respecting". Gu Yueguo, the most influential scholar in this area, has summed up the essential elements of "limao" as the following four notions: respectfulness, modesty, attitudinal warmth, and refinement (Gu, 1990).

Based on the four notions of Chinese politeness, Gu proposed four maxims of Politeness Principle: the Self-denigration Maxim, the Address Maxim, the Tact Maxim and the Generosity Maxim. According to the notions of respectfulness and modesty, the Self-denigration Maxim has two submaxims: denigrate self and elevate others. If anyone breaks the maxim of denigrating self, he/she will be considered as being impolite or rude. Meanwhile, if anyone breaks the maxim of elevating other, he/she will be considered as being arrogant or self-conceited. According to the notions of respectfulness and attitudinal warmth, the Address Maxim requires the speaker to select an appropriate address term for the conversational partner. This maxim helps to "establish or maintain social bonds, strengthen solidarity, and control social distance" (Gu, 1990, p.246) since the act of addressing involves recognition of the conversational partner's social status and identification of the social relation between them. It seems rude or brings about the destruction of social order if addressing terms are misused. As a modified version of Leech's, Gu's Generosity and Tact Maxims are two complementary maxims, whose underlying notions are attitudinal warmth and refinement. Under the two maxims, the speaker tries to maximize benefit to other (in compliance with the Generosity Maxim) while the hearer tries to minimize cost to other (in compliance with the Tact Maxim). Breaking the maxims would risk being considered as stingy and greedy respectively.

2. Chinese concept of face

Mianzi is regarded as the core part of Chinese politeness. Mao defines *mianzi* as "prestige, or the respect of the group for a man with a good moral reputation." The differences between Chinese face and Western face are summarized below.

First, their connotation is different. From their definitions we can find out that self-image is the center of Brown and Levinson's concept of face while public- image is the center of Chinese face. The concept of western face is based on the personal values to which Western culture attaches great importance. It puts emphasis on the individual's desire and wants and is free from any external pressure or communal judgment. While Chinese face refers to the reputation or prestige gained from other members of the society. It is closely related to the views and judgments of the community.

Second, their contents of face are different. Gu noted that negative face in the western notion cannot be applied to the Chinese concept of face since acts threatening the interlocutor's negative face, such as offering, inviting and promising, will not be considered as offending a Chinese's freedom, but as sincere behaviors. According to Brown and Levinson's negative face refers to a person's need to be autonomous from others while the Chinese mianzi refers to a person's desire for public acknowledgement of their prestige or reputation. Mianzi is originated from the Confucian tradition that deemphasizes individuals and subordinates them to the group, unlike individuals that seek freedom in the western culture.

III. POLITENESS EQUIVALENCE IN THE TRANSLATION OF BUSINESS LETTERS

As a major tool of business communication, business letters attach great importance to politeness. Politeness is an important feature and basic requirement for business letters. The task of a translator is to fully convey the politeness of the source text in the target text on the basis of Western and Chinese Politeness Principles so as to achieve the politeness equivalence.

A. Politeness Equivalence in Translation

As a significant part of pragmatic study, politeness principle exerts remarkable impact on the success of communication. Meanwhile, politeness is also a concept containing rich cultural connotations. The different cultural backgrounds bring about a certain type of social norms, of course politeness principle being a part of it, with their own distinct features. Translators must be well aware of the cultural differences between source language and target language so as to achieve equivalent effect.

We have mentioned in chapter two that to achieve equivalent effect is the ideal goal of translation. When politeness theory is applied to translation studies, the notion of politeness equivalence is put forward. Politeness equivalence, first proposed by House, is one of the critical factors to be taken into account in evaluating whether a translation is functionally equivalent. As the major part of pragmatic equivalence, politeness equivalence requires the translator, based on the features of the language systems of both source and target language, to reproduce the equivalent politeness effect in the target text as that in the source text. It includes two criteria for evaluating whether the equivalent effect has been achieved: politeness scale and politeness system. Please look at the following example.

(3) 由于原材料成本涨价，我们**须**提价 3%。

a. Due to the rising cost of raw materials we **must** raise our price by 3%.

b. Due to the rising cost of raw materials we **have to** raise our price by 3%.

c. Due to the rising cost of raw materials we **are reluctantly compelled to** our price by 3%.

(Liu, 1999)

Although the three translations convey the similar meaning, they differ from each other in politeness degree. The translation of "须" is the key point. Version A, literally equaling "须" with "must", seems faithful to the original text but it is too tough to express the original intention of the writer. Version B is better because it sounds moderate. Version C fully observes the politeness principle and successfully conveys the intention of the writer: I am sorry but we have no choice except increasing the price. And the equivalent effect in politeness is achieved.

B. Politeness in E-C Translation

When English business letters are translated into Chinese, the translation must conform to Chinese Politeness Principle. The following strategies are recommended to achieve the politeness equivalence.

1. Self-denigration and Others-respecting Maxim in the translation of pronouns

Chinese politeness is characterized by the notions of respectfulness and modesty, which is demonstrated in Self-denigration and Others-respecting Maxim. It is quite similar to the Modesty Maxim and Approbation Maxim in Leech's PP. Both of them require the writer to minimize praise and maximize dispraise of self and maximize praise and minimize dispraise of others.

It is the custom of Chinese people to use humble terms to refer to self and to use language that is more respectful to address others in communication. The violation of this maxim will be interpreted as being arrogant and self-conceited. But in English there are simply the pronouns like "you" and "I" in a bilateral communication. So in the translation of pronouns used in business letters, in order to achieve politeness equivalence, "you" or "your" is usually translated into "您（nin）"or "贵" to show the esteem for your partner while "I"or "my" is normally translated into "敝" or "我" to show   your humbleness. The following two examples demonstrate this.

(4) We are pleased to know that you are planning to visit our company on March 8.

我很高兴得知您打算在 3 月 8 日光临**敝公司**。

(5) The UK Chamber of Commerce has advised us to get in touch with you concerning digital cameras.

英国商会建议我们就数码相机事宜与**贵方**联系。

In the above examples, the writer use "敝公司" to refer to "our company" and "贵方" to refer to "you" respectively. In this way, the respect and sincerity of the writer is fully conveyed, the politeness equivalence has been achieved and the distance between the two parties is narrowed. It will be very helpful to establish a mutual trust business relation.

2. The Address Maxim in the translation of address

According to the notions of respectfulness and attitudinal warmth, the Address Maxim requires the speaker to select an appropriate address term for the conversational partner. This maxim helps to "establish or maintain social bonds, strengthen solidarity, and control social distance" (Gu, 1990, p.246) since the act of addressing involves recognition of the conversational partner's social status and identification of the social relation between them. It seems rude or brings about the destruction of social order if addressing terms are mistranslated. Chinese Address Maxim is similar to the Tact and Modesty Maxims of Leech's PP. Both Chinese and English writers can use address terms to show their respect towards others and denigration of themselves. In business letterss, address mainly appears in the salutation part.

"Dear" is usually used in the address because it is an important marker of politeness in English writing. "Dear Sirs/Madams" is often used when the writer does not know the name of the specific receiver. Its translation "敬启者"，

which means "paying tribute to the person who reads this letter", is equivalent in function and meaning and fully conveyed the respect of the writer. If the writer gets to know the name of the recipients, "Dear Mr./Mrs./Ms." is normally employed. On this occasion, the translator can not render "dear" into "亲爱的" literally, although it is semantically right. Here "dear" is just a marker of politeness instead of a demonstration of proximity in English business letters. It is better to be translated into "尊敬的（respectful）先生/女士" or simply "致…先生/女士".

3. The translation of conciseness and formality

Conciseness and formality are the important features of business letters. So the translator has to produce the same effect in text so as to achieve politeness equivalence. Please look at the following examples and compare the two versions of translation.

(6) Please extend your offer for three days.

a. 请将你们的报盘延长三天。

b. 请将**你方**报盘**展期三天**。

(7) The offer is subject to the good being unsold on receipt of your reply.

a. 这个报盘以收到你们的答复时货还没有卖掉为有效。

b. 此盘以**你方复到时**货未售出为有效。

(8) What do your insurance clauses cover?

a. 你们的保险条款包括哪内容。

b. 你们的保险条款中有哪些**险别。**

(9) We are pleased to advise you that the captioned goods were shipped yesterday Per S. S. "Da Qing".

a. 很高兴通知你方，标题中提到的货物昨大己经由" 大庆号" 轮船装出。

b. **兹通知，**标题货物已于昨日由"大庆" 轮装出。(Du, 2005: 79)

In the examples above, we can find out that the latter versions of translation are usually short and professional because terms are used.

4. The translation of other markers of politeness

Tact and Modesty Maxims in Western culture and the Self-denigration and others-respecting Maxim in Chinese culture are the basis of politeness principle. Besides what we have mentioned, there are still some other politeness makers reflecting those maxims. Translators have to bear them in mind and apply them correctly according to the specific context. Here are some examples.

(10) Could you please send us a copy of your latest catalogue?

可否**惠寄（赠）**我方一份贵公司的最新商品目录？

(11)Yours faithfully   Dennis Jackson

丹尼斯 杰克逊 **谨（敬）上**

(12) Would you agree to our suggestion that future clients should *call* you?

未知可否让其他客户来电**垂询**？

(13) I *enjoyed* meeting you…

很**荣幸**与您见面

(14) We *enclose* our new catalogue and price list.

谨附上新的商品目录和价格表。

From the above examples, we can find out that there are many Chinese words indicating the politeness, such as "谨/敬" "惠" "荣幸" and so on. Meanwhile, some English markers can also be found from these examples, such as "should" "could" "would like" and other modal words.

C.   Politeness in C-E Translation

When Chinese business letters are translated into English, the translation must conform to English Politeness Principle. The following strategies are recommended to achieve the politeness equivalence.

1. The translation of Chinese address

Chinese people tend to use titles like "李校长" "张局长" "杜经理"to address others. But these addresses "Principal Li" "Bureau director Zhang" and "Manager Du" are seldom seen in English business letters. The translator can just render them into "Mr. Li""Ms. Zhang" and "Mr. Du".

2. The translation of soft and euphemistic tone

As an important way of communication, business letters perform dual functions: one is to transmit messages; the other is to enhance the relations between business partners. The second function of business letter needs the translator/writer to use polite, soft and euphemistic language. Any blunt or arrogant expression must be avoided so as not to make the reader lose face, then eventually harm the business relations. How can a translator produce politeness equivalence? The tact and modesty maxims of Leech serve as a good guideline. Please look at the following examples.

(15) 你方价格大大低于我方成本，我们不能按你价成交。

a. We can not entertain business at your price, since it is far below our cost.

b. We are not in a position to entertain business at your price, since it is far below our cost.

"不能" in the Chinese version is a direct refusal. So the literal translation of it into "can not" in version A sounds imposing and not polite enough. This translation is too blunt and hard to accept for the reader. Version B selects a soft expression "not in a position" instead of using the direct refusal. It helps to save the reader's face and sounds more agreeable.

(16) 相信贵方会按期发货，因为迟误势必会给我们造成很大不便和经济损失。

a. We believe you will see to it that the order is shipped within the stipulated time, as any delay would cause us great inconvenience and financial loss.

b. We trust you will see to it that the order is shipped within the stipulated time, as any delay would cause us no little inconvenience and financial loss.

In this example, it is better to translate "相信" into "trust" than "believe" because it gives a stronger sense of trust and can narrow the distance of the reader and the writer. In version B, "很大不便" was translated into "no little inconvenience", which rounds about and sounds soft. It is better than expressing directly.

Besides, according to the Tact and Sympathy Maxim of PP, the translator had better take a "you-attitude" in their translation. "You-attitude" requires the translators to express their consideration for the benefits of the reader. It makes the translation soft, easy to be accepted and helps to enhance the business relations. For example,

(17) 贵方如想获得大笔交易必须降价2%。

You could benefit from a higher sale with a little concession, say, a 2% reduction.

The Chinese version is polite but sounds tough and imposing. The translation softens the tone by showing the consideration for the reader's benefits. Even when one party makes mistakes, the other party should not express his arrogance and sharp criticism, which is impolite and harmful to their cooperation. If the translator can produce a euphemistic version of criticism, it will save the face of the reader and helps to improve their relations. Look at the following examples.

(18) 贵方如想不致声誉受损，必须于今天支付账单。

By sending your check today, you will be able to maintain your good credit reputation.

(19) 贵方来货质量与协议中规定的不符。

It is much to be regretted that the quality of your shipment isn't in conformity with the agreed specification.

(20) 很遗憾，我方必须取消该货物的订单。

Much to our regret, we have to cancel our order for this good.

Actually, both example (18) and (19) are bound to convey criticism against the reader. But the translator does not stick to the literal meaning of Chinese version but express the criticism in a mild way. The benefits of the reader seem to be fully taken into consideration. Example (20) expresses the refusal by showing sympathy. By using "have to" instead of "can not", the translator makes the refusal easier to be accepted and helps to save the face of the reader.

All those translations successfully achieve the politeness equivalence by observing the maxims of polite principle.

3. The translation of "请"

In Chinese, "请", as a formal word and an important marker of politeness, is usually used to show one's deference when asking for other's help. But in English there are many different expressions containing the meaning of "请" according to different contexts. In order to achieve equivalent effect, the translator must select the most suitable one to meet the requirement of the specific context. Here are several examples.

(21) 请寄来附有最优惠价格的奔驰轿车目录。

We would appreciate your sending us the catalogue of Benz cars with their best prices.

(22) 货已备妥，等待装运，请指示。

The goods are nearly ready for dispatch and **we should be** glad to have your instruction.

(23) 请报椅子的最优惠上海到岸价，同时请报 最早交货期。

It would be appreciated if you could quote your best prices of CIF Shanghai for chairs, and also let us know the earliest possible date you can make shipment.

From the above examples, we can see "we would appreciate. . .", "it would be appreciated (clause)" and "we would be glad to. . . " are used to convey the politeness of the writer. Those sentence patterns have actually become programmed structures of indicating respect or esteem of the speaker. All of them are the equivalent expressions of "请". The translator should be familiar with these patterns and apply them according to the specific context. Here below is another example.

(24) 请帮我订一张由纽约到亚特兰大的飞机票.

A. **Please** help me book a plane ticket for the trip from New York to Atlanta.

B. **I would greatly appreciate** your helping me to book a plane ticket for the trip from New York to Atlanta. (Liu, 2002)

In this example, version A is completely correct in grammar and equivalent in meaning. Although "please" is used to indicate politeness, but compared with version B, it sounds not so sincere and soft in tone. It sounds like an order instead of polite request. By using "I would greatly appreciate", version B sounds softer and more agreeable.

IV. CONCLUSION

Politeness is a significant part of pragmatic study. It accounts for much in the pragmatic translation of business letters to achieve politeness equivalence in translation. Both Chinese and Western politeness principles provide us with a helpful tool and general guideline. A well-translated business letter can not only convey the necessary messages concerning business activities but also helps to maintain and enhance their pleasant business relations. It helps reduces the disputes and conflicts in business transactions and eventually contributes to the smooth development international trade.

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Group Work in EFL Children's Classes: A Qualitative Study

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Abstract—**This study aimed to investigate the place of group work among children in current EFL classes in order to examine the effect of group work on the language performance of children. This study consists of two phases; in the first phase, eighteen classes were observed to discover the place of group work and to find the quality of instruction. In the second phase of the study, the researchers conducted a class during a term (seventy one days) and focused on group work as the main tool for teaching to find out what would be the effects. When compared with the observed classes, the class which was taught in the second phase of the study, enjoyed considerable advantages, especially in memorizing conversations and learning new vocabularies. There was also little phonological and grammatical variation produced among children who learned the material through group work. In the end, some recommendations have been given.**

Index Terms—**group work, negotiation, output, responsibility, children, EFL class**

I. INTRODUCTION

Before the advent of Roger's humanistic psychology (1980), the role of social and interactive nature of learning was to a large extent, and almost completely ignored. A glance at the history of SLA reveals that many researchers and authorities in their fervent effort have tried to find a decent theory of second language acquisition which would define language in its best and impeccable way. The effort, however, seems to make the waters muddier and as Kristeva (1989) rightly mentioned "that still unknown object"—language— is hard to define (p. 329).

This inquiry for finding the mind-boggling mystery of language acquisition in general and second language acquisition in particular, can be likened to a complex journey through a labyrinth in which models and theories one after another waned and waxed. In this process, new methods came into vogue with carrying with themselves some positive points of previous paradigms but expanding the field as bringing new perspectives. This is what Marckwardt (1972, p.5) called "changing winds and shifting sands" which represented the cyclical and diverse nature of paradigms. Sometimes a new theory found its way in the thriving history of second language which turned the pages of SLA history back to a couple of decades, and sometimes centuries ago. One case in point was the appearance of emergentism, a position which, according to Brown (2007), "oddly hearkens back to the spirit of behavioral approaches" (p. 32).

However, during the last two decades social learning theories have gained prominence. Through this framework, behavior is defined as the interaction between an individual and the environment (Taylor & MacKenney, 2008). One of the leading proponents of social learning theories is Vygotsky who, according to Moll (1991), advocated that social relations and constraints make it possible for a child to reach higher psychological processes. Vygotsky (1978) further believed that learners have some potentiality that will be developed in interaction with others. It is also believed that the process of learning should be of integrative nature among students in which students are required to use their knowledge in the real world environment (Shokri, 2010).

Rogers's humanism and the works of Vygotsky were the pioneering efforts in order to bring students' interaction and group work to the forefront. Rogers's ideas informed teachers that they should provide a nurturing context for the learners so that they construct meaning through interaction with peers (Brown, 2007). Likewise, Vygotsky's theories emphasized the role of cooperative learning and advocated the idea of giving students more responsibility for their own learning (Taylor & MacKenney, 2008). Vygotsky and Rogers, of course, are not the only ones who admired cooperative learning. The reputable Brazilian educator "Paolo Freire," in his everlasting masterpiece, Pedagogy of the Oppressed, vigorously objected to the dominant "banking models of education" and advocated "problem-posing education" in which he proposed that students should be free to cooperate with teachers and other learners in order to construct their own reality and reach the level of critical thinking (Freire, 1970). It has been claimed that group work among individuals can increase motivation considerably (Dörnyei, 2005).

A cooperative style of learning, as opposed to teacher-fronted methods, has gained importance and has been addressed by so many researchers as being one of the priorities in classrooms (Moutafidou & Sivropoulou, 2010;

Johnson, 2003). One of the components in Brown's ten principles of language learning/teaching is "to promote cooperative learning" (1994, pp. 189-215). He believed that cooperative learning plays down competition among students and provides the opportunity for students to share their knowledge. Kumaravadivelu (2003, p. 44) mentioned that one of the macrostrategies for language teaching is to "maximize learning opportunities." This strategy conveys this message that group work, as a powerful tool in the hands of the teacher, can be a good way in order to involve all the learners in the process of learning and, hence, there would surely be more opportunities for learning. Moreover, Kumaravadivelu emphasized on the notion of recognizing the learners' voice and define it as the "learners' attempt to create learning opportunities for themselves and for other participants in class" (2003, p. 49).

More recently, the concept of output has gained popularity and some researchers across the world have tried to show its positive effects (Shehadeh, 2001; Swain, 2005). Group work can be a suitable activity in order to take output into consideration. When the learners work collaboratively and there is not an ever-present watchful eye above their heads, they will be more inclined to progress. It is believed that children will learn more when they are not watched or when they peripherally learn the language (Brown, 2007). One of the memorable sentences of Maria Montessori states that "The greatest sign of success for a teacher … is to be able to say, "The children are now working as if I did not exist" (cited in Cummings, 2000, p. 2). This sentence carries a hidden message and that is the objection toward traditional approaches of teaching in which the teacher was the main source of knowledge and students were the passive receivers of information.

Students should be encouraged toward the active learning processes which Açıkgöz (2002) defined it as a process in which the learners take responsibility of their own learning and there are opportunities to take decisions. Teachers should be able to engage students in the process of learning in a way that they even forget there is such a thing as the teacher in the class. Students have the potential to lead the discussion, take responsibilities for what they are doing, and use their knowledge in order to communicate. This would help them to recognize what they are doing is practical and can bring about change to the environment—their friends. In his study, Bilen (2010) conducted a control group with a kind of passive instruction in which the teacher just explained and there was lots of questioning and answering among students and concluded that this prospect prevented teachers to use high level cognitive strategies in which knowledge is used within a broader situation.

All of these leading authors have recognized and advocated the role of group work in language learning. In this kind of procedure, students are not any more dependent on the authoritative role of the teacher and they try to learn from each other since they understand that they should rely on their own abilities (Williams & Burden, 1997). In such cooperative activities, individuals are able to compare their development and performance to that of their peers and classmates. Teaching requires teachers to be more than a person transferring knowledge to students' minds. This obsession is rooted in the Krashen's input hypothesis in which he believed that "the only causative variable in second language acquisition is to provide comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1986, p. 61).

Having said that, in spite of all the attention that has been addressed toward interaction and negotiation, the role of cooperative learning in EFL classes among children is not obvious and there is not much at hand about the advantages of conducting group work among younger learners, especially children. Teachers can provide their students with bulky amount of learning opportunities if they precisely use cooperative activities in their classes. Since children are more engaged when playing or interacting with their peers, teaching children in groups can have better results. Most of the studies in the domain of group work deal with what learners learn during cooperative activities, however, in this article the way children deals with new information in group work is also considered.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

With the all attention that has been addressed toward cooperative nature of learning, little is known about the place of group work in English institutes among children and there is not much research available to show what and how would be the effects of group work. In this article the researchers tried to show the nature of some current teaching methodologies in the realm of children EFL education. The main concern of this study is to show the manifold advantages of group work among children in comparison to traditional ways of teaching which are not uncommon these days. This study is both descriptive and explanatory.

III. METHOD

A. The First Phase of the Study (Observation of EFL Classes)

For pinpointing the place of group work among children and its quality, eighteen English classes with different instructors were observed and audio-recorded. Ten institutes were chosen randomly from the city of Mashhad, Iran. The eighteen observed classes were from these ten institutes in a way that one or two teachers were selected in each institute to be observed. The aim of this observation was to recognize what would be the teachers' methodology toward presenting new information to children. In these classes the books were consisted mainly of "Let's Go" (3rd ed.) and "New Parade." These books are best-sellers. These eighteen EFL teachers were teaching in some other institutes all over the city of Mashhad and they were all considered as being experienced. Thus they might also present the same methodology in other institutes. Learners were mainly around 9. The total number of children in these classes was 180.

In each day one class was observed. The time of observation for each session was around one hour. Each teacher was observed just for one session.

In these observations the researchers tried to figure out the relationship between children and the relationship between the teacher and children. The purpose of this phase of the study was to figure out the place and quality of group work in these classes, of course if there would be any. Furthermore, the way information was presented to children was investigated to reveal the quality of instruction. In every unit in these books there were some communicative activities. They are the parts that have the highest potential for presenting communicative activities (e.g., dialogues). The way these activities were presented by the instructor was carefully analyzed too.

B. The Second Phase of the Study (Conducting a Cooperative Class)

In the second phase of the study, the researchers ran an experiment with ten children who were approximately around ten and they were taught two days a week during a course of study (seventy five days). This course lasted sixteen sessions (each session took one and half an hour). The main concern was to present new information through implementing small groups for doing the activities in order to find out what would be the advantages in using cooperative activities. Does group work help children to deal with the conversations better or it is a waste of time? How about vocabulary learning? Do children learn new vocabularies better when they are working together? Do children learn from their partners' mistakes and whether they are able to correct them? Can it be a good way to bring fun and joy to the class by conducting group works? These and other similar questions are answered in this phase of the study.

IV. RESULTS

The first phase of the study made it clear how various activities are dealt with in current EFL classrooms among children. For instance, the following are the results from two of the observations which revealed the following information.

A. The Results of the First Phase of the Study

The first observation

In one of the observed classes the teacher began the class by asking children to listen to the tape once. It was a short conversation between a girl and a boy. After the conversation finished, it seemed that children were to some extent confused. The teacher played back the tape and wanted students to repeat the dialogue after the tape and even names had to be memorized and pronounced perfectly. The dialogue was:

Hi, what's your name?

I'm Kate.

When repeating finished, children were asked to repeat the dialogue once again but this time the teacher herself was the model. After that, the teacher translated the meaning of the dialogue in Persian. She asked learners: "What's your name?" and some of the children answered "I'm Kate." In spite of the fact that children had repeated the dialogue for a couple of times, still there were some learners who could not manage the conversation correctly (sentences which are shown with an asterisk are wrong grammatically):

Teacher: what's your name?

* Student: I Ali.

The dialogue was played once more and children were asked to repeat after the tape. The learners who were not able to deal with the dialogue perfectly were reprimanded sharply by the teacher as being too slow or confused. Children finished repeating the dialogue but with some unpleasing experiences, since they were upbraided for not pronouncing the dialogue precisely. This destructive feature is seen in the discourse of some so-called teachers when interacting with children. Teachers in some of the classes that were observed, blamed children bitterly for not being able to learn and that they deserve failure since they could not pronounce the words perfectly. It was clear that children had not learned the dialogue precisely and most of them were confused. Moreover, the teacher just asked the children to answer. How about the question itself? That is, it was not clear whether children were able to manage asking for each other's names! They did not try asking each others' names.

It was time for "let's sing" part in which the dialogue was presented in a poetic way. After the learners listened to the tape, they were asked to tell the names of the children which were presented in the song! There were four names: Kate, Jenny, Scott, Andy. After the tape finished, children were asked to practice the pronunciation of the names not "how to ask for others' names." The teacher asked the learners, "Who wants to read the song?" but it seemed that nobody wanted to volunteer since the song was full of strange names and it was hard to pronounce them correctly. They even did not want to try. The learners who pronounced a name incorrectly were immediately stopped and asked to pronounce the names correctly. So much emphasis was placed on the correct pronunciation of exotic names that some of the students did not pay attention to other parts of the song at all and some of them seemed to just move their tongues purposelessly in order to match the sounds they heard.

However, in spite of a large amount of repetition, some of the children mispronounced the dialogue. For example, after so much repetition, there were some students who pronounced hi as hey. Even after recognizing the fact that children have not internalized the dialogue, the teacher continued to emphasize on precise pronunciation of words and

exotic names. Little by little, a feeling of exhaustion was created in children. Again, some of the students, when they were asked, omitted the reduced form of am and said: "I Andy" instead of saying "I'm Andy." They were not deeply engaged in the process of communicating their names and instead tried to memorize how to pronounce those exotic words. They just recalled what they had repeated and the interfering effects of newly interred information influenced the loosely learned materials such as "I'm." This error—using "I Scott" instead of "I'm Scott"—was observed among some students and it seemed that no amount of repetition would help to correct this problem.

Then, it came to new vocabularies and the teacher followed the same procedure. She asked her students to repeat after her and she again took the lead. New vocabularies were taught using Persian translation. For instance, the teacher asked, "What does jump rope mean?" and she herself sooner than the others gave the Persian translation of that word. There was no elicitation to see whether they can apply what they have repeated to a new situation. Correct repetition of new words is not a good criterion for showing that students have learned the vocabularies. With the appearance of Ausubel's subsumption theory, the role of repetition was highly deemphasized since it was good only for short-term basis and was to a large extent mindless learning (1964). It seemed that pronunciation and Persian translation were the entire thing that mattered in this classroom.

It was vividly recognized that the main part of the lesson was dedicated to repetition of new items and Persian equivalents of those items without less or in some cases any application of that knowledge. Some students remained silent almost from beginning to the end. Participation on the part of the students was reduced to repetition of dialogues, vocabularies, and short sentences. This was the way children around the age of 10 were taught in one of the eighteen observed classes. The main textbook in this class was "Let's Go (let's begin)" student book.

The second observation

In another class that was observed, the teacher began by asking children to do the activities. First, she read the instruction which was about shopping in a mall and children were to give direction to a sport shop. There were some students who did not get the meaning of instruction and verbalized it to the instructor in their mother tongue. There were some who did not even find the page of the activity and they were searching for it. The teacher again read the instruction but this time at slower pace and with exaggerated pronunciation. The direction was: You are at the entrance of the mall. A boy stops you and says he wants to buy skates. Give him directions to Steve's Sport Shop. One of the children was absent last session and needed someone to review the previous lesson. To his surprise, the teacher said that 'there would be no reviewing.' If children were allowed to work with each other, the absentees might learn something from their friends. This also would allow the class to review what had been taught last session. Moreover, the class would have a chance to use what they had been taught purposefully.

There were various activities which required children to give address. However, they all reiterated the same direction for all the places. The teacher then explained the grammar part which was necessary for doing the next activity. She explained how to build comparative and superlative structures. She did not checked whether children had learned the grammar point. The teacher required one of the children to compare two objects which were written in their book. The student replied with considerable difficulty. This rightly showed that no amount of teacher explanation worked and the subsequent sentences from other students proved this. Moreover, children were not provided with feedback. Whenever a student made an error, another student was required to provide the correct answer, leaving the errors intact.

The next activity wanted students to give direction from their home to their school. One of the children said, "Go straight, and turn right, and turn left." As it was mentioned in the previous paragraph, students were just able to say limited sentences which were provided by the book—sentences such as go straight, turn left, and turn right. Again, in some similar activities, children were asked to use comparatives and superlatives. The following are sentences which were produced by some students:

* "The sneakers are comfortable than the skates"
* "The anklets are short than the knee socks"
* "The plaid socks are longest than the knee socks"

These errors were ignored by the instructor and it seemed that the children did not take any responsibility for what they were saying since there was nobody to give feedback to them. Children were corrected temporarily and so many errors passed unchecked.

Just as it was observed in the previous case, in this class the main focus was on reading aloud and perfect pronunciation since it was seen that trivial pronunciation errors which were considered as local errors were corrected immediately and outstanding errors such as the erroneous sentences which were mentioned above were ignored all together.

It was time for reading comprehension. The teacher required some of the children to read the passage aloud without any prior preparation or without activating their background knowledge. There were some pictures accompanied with the passage. The teacher could use them to activate student's schemata. Furthermore, she could ask students to practice it with a partner. Since the new words were not attended at all, it was not surprising that children one after another failed to pronounce the words and sentences correctly and the teacher, with an angry posture, stopped them while they were reading and corrected them. There were no paraphrasing and new vocabularies were taught by giving their Persian translation. There were some students who knew something about the meaning and the pronunciation of new vocabularies but the teacher did not use their knowledge and preferred to go through verbal gymnasium to explain the

meaning of new words and did not allowed the students to participate. Some students were reticent all of the time and they just uttered something whenever they were asked.

In the book, there were a good deal of cooperative activities but the teacher insisted on her monologue. The entire thing that she did was to ask a couple of students to provide the answer. Although students had difficulty in providing the answers and there were some who answered incorrectly, there was not such a thing as feedback. Children were so eager to help each other; whenever one of them made a mistake or was not able to provide the answer, others tried to help him. In reading comprehension activities, one of the children made an error and another student figured out that but it was remained unnoticed from the eyes of the dominant teacher. This showed that students can take responsibility of their own as well as others' learning and can correct others if they will be given a chance to do so. Students are able to help each other and they should be allowed to do so. Unfortunately, the teacher stopped the students whenever a student had a mistake and either provided the answer herself or asked another student to give the correct response. There was an activity in the book its title was "think and discuss." The teacher, as it was the norm, took the lead and without giving students time to discuss the questions with a partner—the instruction wanted them to do so—asked the question from two of the students and the result was clear: some remained reticent and some were murmuring something in their mother tongue. For instance, one of the questions was: "What do you like to do on a trip (New Parade (5), p. 42)?" As it was mentioned above, students could not come up with a satisfactory answer. Maybe if they were allowed to share their ideas to a peer, some new ideas would trigger their minds.

In this class children were not provided with sufficient feedback and so many errors passed unattended. There were some children who preferred to remain silent and the quality of children's discourse was low in that they used their mother tongue much more than it was considered as being normal and it was mostly about the issues other than the subject matter.

B. The Results of the Second Phase of the Study

In the second phase of the study the researchers did an experiment to investigate what would be the effect of group work on children's performance. The performance of students was investigated and manipulated through sixteen sessions. Children were mostly ten. The researchers tried to break away from the common traditional ways of teaching that were observed in the institutes of foreign languages and observed classes—meaningless repetition and translation of items to the students' mother tongue. These two procedures were mostly, not to say completely, used in the classes the researchers observed. Thus, in this class a rather new way (in comparison to observed classes) of teaching was applied which was based on peer correction in which children were given responsibility for their own and others' learning.

The researchers wrote a short conversation on the board and read it once. It was worked with one of the children in order to make its meaning clear. Children were asked to memorize it without talking to their friends. Therefore, all the children were given time to memorize the dialogue—a process which was observed in some classes for the conversation part. After that, students were asked to come to the board and say the conversation by heart. The conversation is presented below:

A: Hello.
B: Hello.
A: How are you?
B: I'm fine thanks.
A: What's your name?
B: My name is ….
A: Nice too meet you.
B: Nice too meet you too.

It was recognized that children had some difficulty to overcome the fifth line which was: "What's your name?" Just two children out of ten were able to transcend the fifth line but they still had difficulty. The researchers assigned children to groups of two and wanted them to practice the dialog two by two without any memorization. They were said that they use their own names instead of memorizing exotic names. This gave the process a kind of real experience because they did not know each other's names exactly and they used this dialogue to find something—their friend's name.

It seemed that all of the children were engaged even though the researchers sometimes left the class to show them that they were teachers of themselves. In the middle of the activity, some children asked questions about the pronunciation of the words but the learners were not provided with the answer immediately. The researchers assigned a representative for each group and made him responsible to lead his group. Whenever there was a question, the leader was asked to help that student. Each group had a representative and the whole class had one or two main leaders. If the representative was not able to answer the questions, he was directed to the leader and if the leader was unable too, the researchers provided the answer just for the leaders and they had the responsibility to correct others. To the researchers' surprise, children were able to use and benefit from corrective feedback provided by representatives and the main leaders. Some children came up with different strategies in order to make the dialogue as comprehensible and manageable as possible. They even shared these strategies to other children especially when the size of the groups was large.

It should be said that selecting a representative does not mean that others in the group should be silent. Teachers should inform representatives that every body in the group should talk and contribute equally. To create balance, after children have finished, teachers can first ask other students—not the representatives—to answer or participate. In every class there are some children who are more proficient. Teachers can use them in order to instruct weaker children. It works very well. For instance, if there is a weak student in the class, it will be a good strategy to ask one of those proficient students to work with him/her. It will have fascinating effects.

For checking whether students have learned well, two of the children were randomly asked to come to the board and this time they were progressing to a considerable degree. In following sessions some children were asked to come to the board and present the dialogue to see whether they have forgotten, as it was supposed to be so. However, children were able to present the dialogue even better than the previous sessions and this proved that if students really engage in an activity, they keep it longer since it is meaningful leaning. The researchers proposed that a group who all of its members would be able to conduct the conversation better and more fluently, will be given a positive mark. During the process, it was observed that nobody was silent and even those who were having problems learned from their eager representatives whose sense of ambitious was stimulated and wanted to prove their ability.

The researchers wanted to see whether group work can help students better learn new vocabularies. For doing so, eight adjectives were written on the board and their meaning was taught with showing pictures and giving examples. They were "new, old, pretty, ugly, happy, sad, hot, and cold." Children were asked to memorize the words without talking even a word to their friends. After five minutes, some students were asked to come to the board and say the adjectives. None of the children was able to give all the adjectives and their meanings. Then, the researchers required the children to practice the eight adjectives with a peer. After four minutes, students came to the board once more and presented the adjectives. This time six out of ten children were able to mention all the adjectives as well as their meanings. They were able to do so without any repetition or translation on the part of the teacher. They used their peer feedback and their strategies to pass the barriers even without the presence of the teacher—the researcher left the class periodically to see whether students would stop talking or they continue, which the latter came to be true. They were so eager that they did not pay attention to the passage of time. This process was repeated for other vocabularies in different sessions and almost the same result obtained.

Through these sixteen sessions, many conversations were presented to children and it seemed they can handle conversations better when they practice them in groups of two or four. To gauge how much they can improve, children were not assigned to groups from the beginning. They were first asked to memorize it without any help and without talking to their friends—a traditional way of learning which was observed in some classes. Their performance was recorded. After that, they were assigned to groups and their performance was recorded again. With comparing the first way of learning and the second method of working on conversations, it became clear how much they had improved or declined, which the results proved the former. It should be mentioned that the study was not reduced to working on conversations. Alphabets and words were also practiced in groups and the improvement was considerable as the results showed above. Group work was used to teach "members of the body," "colors," and "numbers." The results held true for these parts too. For instance, one of the students had difficulty to learn "eye." It was observed that his friend came up with a good strategy to teach him the word:

> "The word *eye* is easy to learn; it is pronounced like 'I'—he wrote it down on his friend's notebook. If you forgot the word, just remember that it is pronounced like 'I'."

There were some children who invented a poetic way of learning vocabularies:

> B b b bus, what is this? This is a bus. d d d dog, what is this? This is a dog.

It should be mentioned that it was their first English class and they had not practiced English before but their minds were so prepared and creative.

V. DISCUSSION

When comparing the classes that were observed and the class which was taught by the researchers (every session just one researcher taught in the class), some interesting points became clear. The learning of new materials was more meaningful for the children who worked with groups. Sometimes after 4 or 5 sessions, children were able to recall information in spite of the fact that the researchers had not repeated them even once. The results of this study revealed that if children are assigned to group works, they will be able to learn better and longer. Furthermore, new vocabularies can be learned through the process of negotiation. It was observed that in most English classes the main approach toward teaching vocabulary is to give their Persian translation. The findings of this research showed that children will learn more vocabularies and they will keep it in their minds longer if they learn words in groups.

When the class is conducted in group work, all children's voices can be heard and this will give them a sense of achievement. They feel that they have been seen and they have been considered as a person who can contribute to the success of another student. This will intrinsically motivate them to improve since the better they learn, the better they can help their peers. In one of the sessions, in the second phase of the study, it was observed that one of the children

was trying eagerly to learn the dialogue. The researcher approached him and asked about his motives. The student mentioned that he is trying hard in order to be able to help his friend which was much slower. This is because they want to show their capability to other children. Now there is something to fight for. When they are working with friends, they try more and they feel secure because they are not alone any more. Students who need more help use their friends' knowledge and those who are more proficient try to help others and through this, they will internalize what they have learned. Thus, group work is mutually beneficial for both partners.

At the end of these sixteen sessions, children were asked to give their opinions about group work. The following are some of their remarks:

- "When we think alone, it is hard for us to find the answer. Group work helps us to find the precise answer."
- "We can ask each other the things that we do not know. Group work is a place where asking and answering is a lot."
- "In group works we can make friends and we care for each other."
- "In groups we can finish activities sooner and our knowledge increases."

The following are some excuses for not using cooperative activities and group work in the class extracted from interviews with teachers:

- Methodology factors: The approach towards teaching does not allow using group work
- Student-related factors: Students are of different background knowledge and social status
- Management factors: The whole class may turn to a mess
- Feasibility factors: The environment and the facilities are not suitable
- Implementing factors: It is hard to implement group-work activities
- Assessment factors: It is hard to assess students properly

In general, teachers' unwillingness toward using group work among children can be shown in the following pie chart:
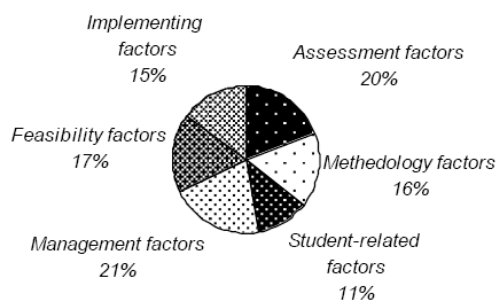
VI. CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to figure out whether group work can help children improve their performance. In order to find the answer, eighteen EFL classes were observed to find out the problems children would encounter in the classes and to consider the teacher's reaction against these problems. It was seen in these classes that teachers mainly resorted to rote repetition and Persian translation to teach the learners. Using these two processes exclusively created some problems in that children were not able to apply what they have rotely learned to a new situation and also they could not precisely recall what they have repeated. Since the auditory memory is highly limited, students were not able to recall the mimicked information. Meaning and long-term learning were not accounted for in observed classes.

One of the main advantages of group work is the enhancement of individual accountability. When children were divided into groups, they took responsibility for their own and their friends' learning. They figured out that the teacher is not like a television screen that they should watch without saying anything. In comparison to those eighteen classes, the class that was conducted in group work, helped children to increase their performance to a considerable degree, especially in vocabulary leaning and memorizing conversations for a longer time. In group works, children can jot down information to their friends and this would help them to make it more meaningful since they have transferred information and retell it in their own words. It should be mentioned that the teacher should be aware of quality and quantity of students' talk. Students should use the target language most of the time and they should also talk about the points which are wanted to accomplish not about something else. The advantages are not reduced to linguistic elements; as Brown (2001) put, group work increases students motivation and they feel a sense of security. Therefore, group work works to the benefit of both cognitive and affective domains of the learners.

Having said that, group work is not easy to conduct and it requires facilities and control. There were some institutes in which their classes were not spacious enough to conduct group work. There were some children who tried to dominate the conversation. Some teachers, when they were interviewed by the researchers, mentioned that there were some children in their classes who argue a lot and they cannot work with others easily. It requires teachers to have some good strategies to deal with these situations. On the whole, group work can bring a lot of fun and diversity to the class.

This and so many other similar studies have tried to show the valuable effects of group work. However, one should not forget that group work requires skill and precision. If group work is not conducted carefully, the whole class will get out of control. Therefore, it should be under the supervision of the teacher. The Achilles heel of many cooperative activities is that students may deviate from the lesson. To avoid this pitfall, and other unwanted happenings, teachers should try to make group work as purposeful as possible. At the end, it should be mentioned that not the whole time of the class should be dedicated to group work because it will lose its effectiveness. With all its advantages and disadvantages, group work is a precious instrument which can bring variety and fun to the class.

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The Apprehensive and Suppressed Soul of the Fallen Woman in Thomas Hardy's *Tess of the D'Urbervilles*

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Abstract—In Tess of the D'Urbervilles, Hardy brings to picture a helpless innocent country girl who is the victim of Victorian patriarchal society and the injustice of social law. The study makes an attempt to bring to light the injustice of social law, the hypocrisy of social prejudice and the inequality of male-dominance in the Victorian Patriarchal society and shows Hardy's heartfelt commiseration towards Tess, the protagonist, who is the symbolic of rural women who were ruthlessly crushed in male-dominated world. This study further aims at scrutinizing the biased social norms, the unjust laws the rotten ethics and the malicious morality standards, which contribute to Tess's innocent crush.

Index Terms—Tess, D'Urbervilles, apprehensive, suppressed, soul

I. INTRODUCTION

The study begins with a brief introduction of Hardy's interest towards the downtrodden rights of the women of the Victorian Age, which is followed by a look at different critics commenting on Hardy's women, then the study arrives at its focal point by delving into Hardy's Tess of the D'Urbervilles to display the predicament of woman.

By the end of the nineteenth century, a group of famous novelists, mainly men, began to look sympathetically at the problems of the late nineteenth century women. George Meredith, George Gissing and Thomas Hardy and some others were in favor of the feminists. These writers often discussed the question of free union and their female characters either support themselves or live away from home. To the feminists, Thomas Hardy is one of the few Victorian male novelists who wrote in what may be called `a female tradition.'

Hardy's remarkable heroines evoked comparison with those of Charlotte Bronte, George Eliot and Jane Austen. His heroines spoke directly to women readers. For example, after the publication of Tess of the D'Urbervilles, Hardy received letters from women who had not dared to tell their husbands about their pre-marital experiences. A few begged to meet him privately to confide with him.

Hardy felt that such letters came from sincere women who were really in distress. He also received letters from mothers who were placing Tess of the D'Urbervilles into their daughter's hands to safeguard their future. There is no doubt that Hardy's treatment of the `Woman Question' in his major novels has done the whole male and female sex a great service. In 1896, Hardy's support to the suffrage campaign was based on his belief that the women's vote will be able to break up the pernicious conventions in respect of manners, customs and the illegitimacy and the parenthood of the offspring. The feminist Black (1892) claims Hardy "as one of that brave and clear-sighted minority who has drawn a distinction between moral worth and simple chastity in women."(p. 50) Howe (1968) while assessing Hardy's work says that the novelist has a "gift for creeping intuitively into the emotional life of women and his openness to the feminine principles." (p. 109)

Recent feminist critics remarked that women characters provide what is missing in the acquisition of masculinity. Miles (1979) says: "A woman in Hardy's hands could be made to bear a weight of suffering whose inflictions transcend the personal and move through human to sublime; he never found the same true of a male character." (pp. 38-39)

The notion of sublimity of suffering is based on the longstanding convention of the moral superiority of women. Hardy tries, through his fictional women to awaken the consciousness of society towards the sufferings and misery of women.

A thorough analysis of Hardy's novel shows that his women characters are misused as well as abused by men.

Hardy felt that it was very important to champion the cause of women because in his view, they were `the weaker sex.' It was women who bore children and who were sacrificed to the double standards of morality. They were the ones who most likely got wrecked to pieces if anything went wrong morally. Tess of the D'Urbervilles belongs to the list of the unconventional novels that appeared in the 1890s and it ends with women breaking down under the weight of repressive conditions. Tess of the D'Urebervilles was greatly admired by most readers who were ready to sympathize with the theme of fallen woman, a new tendency which was not familiar to the Victorian readers. It seems that this novel has surpassed the matter of time and it always remains fresh. As Bloom (2010) claims:

Of all the novels of Hardy, Tess of the d'Urbervilles now appeals to the widest audience. The book's popularity with the common reader has displaced the earlier ascendancy of The Return of the Native. It can even be asserted that Hardy's novel has proved to be prophetic of a sensibility by no means fully emergent in 1891. More than a century later, the book sometimes seems to have moments of vision that are contemporary with us.(p. 12)

II. ARGUMENT

The study delves into the silent world of the helpless women by having a journey in Hardy's Tess of the D'Urbervilles. A journey, which brings inevitable tears to any sympathetic eyes that have ever witnessed the unjust treatment of man towards his/her own fellow beings

Tess of the D'Urhervilles (1891) is the pitiable story of Tess Durbeyfield, a peasant working girl, who was seduced by Alec D'Urbervilles and the traumatic experiences she went through which culminated in retributive justice from an uncaring society. In Tess of the D'Urhemilles Hardy attacked the basic moral assumptions of the Victorian Age which condemned the innocent and defenseless victim of a seducer while the actual culprit of the crime was untouched by the law.

Hardy subtitled the novel as "A Pure Woman" out of his own conviction of the essential purity of his heroine. In his preface to the novel, Hardy remarks:

This novel being one wherein the great campaign of the heroine begins after an event in her experience which has usually been treated as fatal to her part of protagonist, or at least as the virtual ending of her enterprises and hopes, it was quite contrary to avowed conventions that the public should welcome the book, and agree with me in holding that there was something more to be said in fiction than had been said about the shaded side of a well-known catastrophe. (1994, p. 21, henceforth Hardy)

Hardy is frank about embodying a recognizable contemporary problem in his novel. His authorial comments reveal a consistency and strength of purpose, which leave no doubt that he is arguing in favor of the fallen woman. Hardy's argument is that though Tess had fallen, she should not be judged by her fall alone but by her own intentions, nature and the circumstances that compelled her to be in this position. Tess was too young when her sexual molestation took place and there was no particular intention or even romantic attachment to Alec. She had to submit herself to the will of her employer, Alec, due to her helpless situation and her ignorance about the consequences of such a relationship.

While expounding violence against women, Nye (1988) observes: ''Brownmiller, in her influential Against Our Will placed rape at the threshold of human history as an exercise of male power over women.'' (p.97)

The controversy about Tess of the D'Urbervilles is about moral values. According to Hardy, Tess's purity lies in her innocence and ignorance for not having received any instructions or self-acquired knowledge on the subject from any source. Nevertheless, Hardy and his heroine attracted tremendous commendations as well as furious uproar. Erring wives wrote to him asking advice and seeking sympathy. Hardy made Tess a living entity. Hardy's challenge of the norms of Victorian Age to defend the rights of women and his sympathy for them are strong proofs of his being a feminist novelist. In the preface to the first edition, Hardy wrote:

In respect of the book's opinion and sentiments, I would ask any too genteel reader, who cannot endure to have said what everybody nowadays thinks and feels, to remember a well-worn sentence of St. Jerome's: If an offence come out of the truth, better is it that the offence come than that the truth be concealed. (Hardy, P. 19)

Here, Hardy defends his opinions forcefully. He attacks his critics logically and even invites public judgment that he deliberately treats the theme of the fallen woman by giving it a new dimension.

Tess is presented to us as an independent and a spirited woman. Her relation with Alec was far from being romantic as it proved to be dangerous with unpredictable consequences later. Like Grace Melbury in The Woodlander, a victim of her father's foolishness and vanity, Tess also was a victim of her mother, Joan Durbeyfield, whose opportunism and folly put Tess in danger in the hands of Alec D'Urberville. She rebuked Tess for failing to obtain a marriage ring from Alec. But Tess, instead, held her mother responsible for what had happened to her:

Why didn't you tell me there was danger in menfolk'? Why didn't you warn me? Ladies know what to fend hands against because they read novels that tell them of these tricks: but I never had the chance of learning in that way, and you didn't help me! (Hardy, p. 111)

Tess blamed her mother for being negligent in educating her about guarding herself. Her mother was interested only in rank and fame at the expense of her daughter's happiness. Hardy suggests that the mother should be the ultimate mentor for her daughter in such a cruel world. Therefore, Tess's mother was partly responsible for her miseries which started in Alec's beastly behavior. In the end, the village gossip and the system of feudal life-tenancy forced Tess into accepting Alec's protection.

Tess's tragedy is also brought out by Alec D'Urberville and Angel Clare. As Rode (2006) comments:

Alec and Angel construct Tess's sexual identity and locate her on their own sexual maps. The tragedy of the novel resides in the irreconcilability of these road practices due to the ignorance in understanding the other, a failure that ultimately overwhelms Tess. (p. 67)

In regard to Alec D'Urberville's role in the novel; it does not invite any sympathy at all. His relationship with Tess during her employment under him was strictly on master-servant basis. Tess's seduction, the birth and death of her illegitimate baby "Sorrow" brought her untold pain and sufferings. The village parson's refusal to baptize the infant

before its burial made Tess do it herself. Even the burial site allotted to the newborn was in a remote corner of the graveyard usually set aside for bad characters like murderers and law-breakers. The baptism and the burial scene are highly contemptible for a progressive society and Christian tenets as per the unforgiving nature exhibited in both cases. Subbamma (1985) explains:

Religion has condemned women to slavery from birth onwards. Society has restricted the development of her personality. Man has suppressed her talents. It is a pity that we have not realized that it is not woman alone but entire humanity that will suffer on account of oppression of women. (p. 11)

When Angel Clare deserted Tess after marriage, Alec made another attempt to make Tess accept him. He informed her that Angel Clare would never come back to her and once again he reminded her of her little brothers and sisters who needed financial support. Being unselfish and ready to sacrifice for her family, Tess accepted Alec. At this time, Clare came to look for Tess but failed to meet her. On knowing that she had lost Clare for the second time, Tess became desperate. In addition to this, Alec's taunting about Clare whom she still loved, provoked Tess to take the extreme step of killing him. Such action was due to frustration and the pain inflicted on her throughout the course of her life. She was forced to take the law into her own hands because there was no existing law to protect her rights. However, this invited capital punishment from the authorities regardless of the circumstances which forced Tess to commit the crime. Subbamma (1985) says: "The woman has been relegated to the second place, oppressed by society and religion and dominated by man." (ibid)

Angel Clare with whom Tess was involved in a genuine romantic relationship was also equally responsible for Tess's tragic end. After professing unfailing love for Tess, Angel entered into a marriage with Tess, despite her unwillingness and cautious approach. Angel Clare's voluntary confession of a forty-eight hour dissipation with a strange woman was forgiven by Tess. But a similar confession from Tess about her forced sexual violation by Alec and its consequences was unacceptable to Angel Clare. He not only failed to forgive Tess and forget her past but also at that very moment, rejected her as his lawful wife. MacGregor (1987) points out:

A wife might without any loss of caste… condone an act of adultery on the part of the husband, but a husband could not condone a similar act on the part of a wife, and for this among other reasons. . . that the adultery of the wife might be the means of palming suspicious offspring on the husband while the adultery of husband could have no such effect with regard to the wife." (p. 20)

In spite of her earnest pleading that she was a child then, uninstructed and unaware of man-woman relationship, Angel was not at all ready to accept her: "You were more sinned against than sinning, that I admit I forgive you, but forgiveness is not all." (Hardy, p. 268) Tess quoted some cases worse than hers where the men did not mind at all. To this, Clare replied: "Decrepit families imply decrepit wills, decrepit conduct. Heaven, why did you give me a handle for despising you more by informing me of your descent!" (p. 269)

Angel Clare was referring to Tess as a descendant of the D'Urberville family. He was unconcerned and indifferent to Tess about the consummation of their marriage. He urged Tess to say that her confession was not true, but Tess stood firm by her words. We can see here that Hardy's aggressive attack is mounted against the man and the social attitudes he represents. Schneir (1996) says, according to Seneca's Fall's Declaration:

that the same amount of virtue, delicacy and refinement of behaviour that is required of woman in the social state, should also be required of man, and the same transgression should be visited with equal severity on both man and woman. (p. 81)

Angel Clare is a self-consciously modern thinker who shows considerable indifference to social forms and observances. But he fails conclusively at the first test of his emancipation and proves to be deeply entrenched in convention in his attitude to women. His inconsistency demonstrates the unconscious hypocrisy of the moral codes. His change from a liberal agnostic to a puritanical moralist manifests how deep sexual prejudices are rooted even among progressive people. Angel Clare resembles Henry Knight in Pair of Blue Eyes in his conventional attitude towards women. Like Angel Clare, Knight demands perfection in the woman he marries and when he discovers that Elfride has loved another man, he feels that she is an imposter. Both of them fall in love with a moral quality rather than a woman. When Elfride realizes this, she retorts by saying:

Am I such a—mere characterless toy—as to have no attraction in me, apart from-freshness? Haven't I brains? You said—I was clever and ingenious in my thoughts, and—isn't that anything?. . . You have praised my voice, and my manner, and my accomplishments. Yet all these things together are so much rubbish because I—accidentally saw a man before you! (Hardy, 1975, p. 365)

When he learns about Elfride's overnight escape with Stephen Smith, he jumps to the conclusion that Elfride is a fallen woman and starts reacting as a representative of social morality. He is wrong about Elfride as she has spent the night quite chastely. His attitude to women has been traditional like Angel Clare:

Elfride loved him, he knew, and he couldn't leave off loving her, but marry her he would not. If she could but be again his own Elfride—the woman she had seemed to be-but that woman was dead and buried, and he knew her no more! (p. 389)

However, both Tess and Angel Clare were also guilty of idealizing each other and that was the reason for the failure of their marriage as much as the double moral standards and cruel social laws. Angel Clare could not bear the knowledge of Tess's liaison with Alec because he wanted to believe that Tess was a symbol of purity. This can be seen

in his immediate reaction after Tess made her confession: "You were one person; now you are another . . . the woman I have been loving is not you." (Hardy, pp. 264-65) Tess realized that Angel's response was absurd:

I thought, Angel, that you loved me-me, my very self?. If it is I you do love, O how can it be that you look and speak so'? It frightens me! Having begun to love you, I love you for ever-in all changes, in all disgraces, because you are yourself. I ask no more. Then how can you, O my husband, stop loving me? (ibid)

We can see that Angel Clare, an advanced and well meaning young man, was still a slave to custom and conventionality. The idealistic sexual prejudice overpowered his intelligence and tenderness. In this context, Hardy contends:

The basic flaw in Angel is a morbid idealism—an idealism, derived from certain human institutions, certain social attitudes prevalent in his time and class, which has gone bad and become negative. (p. 17)

However, Tess too idealized Angel Clare with whom she was in love. It was because she almost worshipped Clare, looking up to him for advice and guidance in everything, that she was unable to see his moral judgement of her as simply wrong. She accepted his decision to leave her without any protest or hesitation. Such passivity is taken as a basic flaw in the character of Tess:

I shan't do anything, unless you order me to: and if you go away from me I shall not follow 'cc and if you never speak to me anymore I shall not ask why, unless you tell me I may. (p. 266)

De Beauvoir (1988) explains:

The woman in love who before her lover is in the position of the child before its parents is also liable to that sense of guilt she felt with them; she chooses not to revolt against him as long as she loves him, but she revolts against herself. If he loves her less than she wants him to; if she fails to engross him, to make him happy to satisfy him, all her narcissism is transformed into self-disgust, into humiliation, into hatred of herself, which drive her to self-punishment. (pp. 661-62)

Hardy asserts the dangerous state of such relationship based not on real understanding but on false, self-induced vision of the other person. Tess surrendered totally and resigned to her fate as she saw Clare infallible, almost godlike. Subbamma (1985) states:

Tradition has equated service and devotion to husband as equivalent to a higher and nobler life in world of gods. That is why women worship their husbands as `living gods,' they sing their praise and beg for favours. In return, they receive nothing but humiliation. (p. 12)

Another factor of Tess's misfortune is that she too has absorbed the false moral code in the course of events. She is prepared to accept Clare's judgment of her even though her instincts tell her that he is a hypocrite. Hardy points out that in blaming herself for her seduction by Alec, Tess substituted a false idea of sexuality for a natural one. Hardy says that her own poor opinion of herself and her conduct is:

Based on shreds of convention, peopled by phantoms and voices antipathetic to her, was a sorry and mistaken creation of Tess's fancy—a cloud of moral hobgoblins by which she was terrified without reason. It was they that were out of harmony with the actual world, not she. (p. 114)

Hardy blames social institution and religious establishments for Tess's sufferings as most of her miseries have been generated by her own conventional aspect and not by her innate sensitivity. Schneir (1996) refers to Elizabeth Cady Stanton saying, "Ow laws and constitutions, our creeds and codes, and the custom of social life are all of masculine origin'?" (p. 28)

However, lovers in Hardy's novels find happiness only when both partners have tenderness for each other, for happiness begets happiness. Angel Clare and Tess find true happiness only when Angel learns to care for Tess and her happiness more than for his convictions and principles. In this regard, Hugman (1970) states: "The two halves of the `perfect whole' come together for a few brief moments which seem to be as much as human frailty can bear. But they are unique and glorious moments." (pp. 60-61)

In the final analysis, Tess is portrayed as the most admirable character in the novel while the other two men in her life are depicted as the victims of false human ideals. Alec believed that he could play `the master' to the peasant girl and Angel too believed that there was some kind of mystic purity in the lower classes. Both these characters have destructive notions as they replace individual human values with false concepts of social behaviour. As Mallett (2002) says:

More specifically, both Alec d'Urberville and Angel Clare find their self-conception of masculinity endangered by their desire for Tess. This danger increases when each becomes aware of the other's existence as a rival, because it forces them to confront the precarious status of the masculine identity they have constructed. Their destruction of Tess is a direct result of their attempt to stabilise that identity, and in so doing defeat the rival who embodies an alternative vision of self which they cannot accept. (p. 88)

Again it is observed that Angel is obsessed with the idea of feminine purity and a sceptic lacking in compassion. His ambivalent feelings are clouded by his desire to break free of his religious and social background. But such desires are seen not strong enough to withstand the confession-scene. When Tess confesses her past to him, Angel becomes too blinded by his idealistic notions. Yet, he has a genuine love for Tess which lies beneath his conscious self. The scene of Angel's sleep-walking carrying Tess across the river prepares the readers for his final realization of his true sentiments for her. However, Angel Clare is inconsistent in character. He complains about the social ordinances of marriage as

constraining, when his own view of purity in his wife binds him more to the social law. He is self-alienated and one of the most complex and contradictory of Hardy's male characters.

Tess of the D'Urhervilles emphasizes also the effect of the abstract concepts about conduct. Through Angel's characterization, Hardy illustrates that life-denying ideas are extremely destructive in effect. In this novel, Hardy lifts the tale of a wronged peasant girl into the realm of tragedy. It is not only the tale of Tess Durbeyfield but also the story of sufferings and subordination of any woman. It is about a pure soul struggling against the evils of double standards and the pretentious moral and social forces. It also stands as a sustained attack on false morality with its inflexible demand for purity in women only. It reduced Tess to terrible poverty and drove her back to Alec D'Urbervilles.

In regard to the subordination and resignation of women, De Beauvoir (1988) says:

This resignation inspires the patience often admired in women. They can stand physical pain much better than men: they are capable of stoical courage when circumstances demand it; lacking the male's aggressive audacity; many women distinguish themselves by their calm tenacity in passive resistance. (p. 613)

Tess's meekness and endurance in her love for Angel Clare evoke bitter emotions which pierce the stoniest moral heart. In her last letter to Angel, she pours out her frustration and anger:

O why have you treated me so monstrously, Angel! I do not deserve it. I have thought it all over carefully, and 1 can never; never forgive you! You know that I did not intend to wrong you-why have you so wronged me? You are cruel, cruel indeed? I will try to forget you. It is all injustice I have received at your hands!

It is quite true!" said Angel, throwing down the letter. (p. 414)

But such response is late; it is even seen as an important change in Angel's attitude. In the end, Tess herself realizes that she was mistaken in accepting Clare's estimate of her.

III. CONCLUSION

Tess is the symbol of a country girl who is the victim of social prejudice and male dominance. She is easily swallowed by the brutal beasts of the sexually dominated cannibals of the patriarchal Victorian society. In this society woman is culturally constructed, rather than biologically defined. As Harvey (2003) comments:

The Victorian middle class image of women was culturally controlled.

They were denied political and economic power, and were expected to conform to the idea of separate spheres for men and women. (p. 34)

Tess is caught up in the tragic trap of the brutal social injustice of imposed marriage and sexuality. Finally the study comes to its conclusion by claiming that Tess and Tess like women will always remain the sexual entertainers of the wanton men who see the women nothing more than mere objects for their sexual satisfaction until and unless they start believing in their own autonomy, identity, and this can be only feasible through education. Through education one can gain mental might. It is through the mental might that a woman can stand against the physical might of a man and can stand beside a man claiming the equal social and political status free from any suppression and apprehension. As Bishop (2009, p. 171) quotes Goethe, ''the whole art of life consists in giving up our existence in order to exist.''

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An Analysis of Internet Catchwords from the Perspective of Conceptual Blending Theory

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Abstract—**Internet catchwords are the popular on-line phrases or utterances coined by net citizens during their long-time internet practice. These phrases or utterances are innovative, humorous and widely spread, which fully show the personalities and life styles of the users. Developed from the mental space theory, conceptual blending theory is an important part of cognitive linguistic researches. Based on this theory and integration networks, this paper will explain the meaning construction of internet catchwords and the way people understand them. It proves that conceptual blending theory can provide detailed description and profound explanation of the perceiving process of internet catchwords. Meanwhile this paper will testify the cognitive explanation power of the conceptual blending theory.**

Index Terms—**internet catchwords, cognitive explanation, conceptual blending theory, integration networks**

I. INTRODUCTION

Internet catchwords are popular on-line phrases or utterances. They are innovative, humorous and widely spread, which fully show the personalities and life styles of the users. Through the research of the internet catchwords, people can witness the changes of social culture and social value.

Conceptual blending is argued to be a fundamental cognitive operation that is central to general properties of human thought and imagination (Evans & Green, 2006). Since conceptual blending is a new round cognitive operation based on the normal conception structure, it has always been used to explain certain linguistic phenomenon. As for the internet catchwords, even though people do not realize it, how we understand them is nothing else than the explanation given by conceptual blending theory which integrates the distinctive input spaces.

Certifying the role that conceptual blending theory has played in perceiving internet catchwords by analyzing examples is the research method and highlight of this paper. Through this, readers will have a better idea about how these internet phrases and utterances can be endowed with new meanings from the perspective of cognitive linguistics.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Formation and Development of Conceptual Blending Theory

The origins of conceptual blending theory lie in the research programs of Gilles Fauconnier and Mark Turner. While Fauconnier had developed Mental Spaces Theory in order to account for a number of traditional problems in meaning construction, Turner approached meaning construction from the perspective of his studies of metaphor in literary language. Fauconnier and Turner's researches converged on a range of linguistic phenomena that appeared to share striking similarities and that resisted straightforward explanation by either of the frameworks they had developed. Fauconnier and Turner both observed that in many cases meaning construction appears to derive from the structure apparently unavailable in the linguistic or conceptual structure, functioning as the input to the meaning construction process. Conceptual blending theory emerged from their attempts to account for this observation (Evans & Green, 2006).

Conceptual blending theory is based on the mental space theory. "Mental spaces are small conceptual packets constructed as we think and talk, for purposes of local understanding and action…. [They] operate in working memory but are built up partly by activating structures available from long-term memory." (Ungerer & Schmid, 2001, p.258). Since Fauconnier and Turner first advanced their theory in a seminal paper in 1994, a considerable amount of evidence for conceptual blending has been amassed from a range of non-linguistic phenomena (Evans & Green, 2006).

Based on the mental space theory, Fauconnier and Turner (1995) formally put forward the cognitive operation model of human's mental space---conceptual blending---in the paper "Conceptual Integration and Formal Expression". In the book "Mappings in Thought and Language" (Fauconnier, 1997), Gilles Fauconnier points out the "four spaces" model, namely generic space, input space 1, input space 2 and blending space. Meanwhile, he emphasizes that it is the cross

domain mapping, space chain, structure project, conceptual blending and other unconscious action that create dynamic meaning of natural language. "Conceptual Integration Networks" (Fauconnier & Turner, 1998a) holds the idea that Conceptual integration—"blending"—is a general cognitive operation on a par with analogy, recursion, mental modeling, conceptual categorization, and framing. In blending, structure from input mental spaces is projected to a separate, "blended" mental space. The projection is selective. Through completion and elaboration, the blend develops structure not provided by the inputs. Inferences, arguments, and ideas developed in the blend can have effect in cognition, leading us to modify the initial inputs and to change our view of the corresponding situations. In 1998, "Principles of Conceptual Integration" by Gilles Fauconnier and Mark Turner was published. It discusses the rules in the complex cognitive operation so as to optimize the conceptual blending theory. Fauconnier (1999) points out how blending theory reflects the presumptions and methodology. Fauconnier and Turner (2000) believe that compression enables people handle long logic chain. They examine how blending achieves compressions over vital relations, and thereby achieves one of its important sub goals: the provision of global insight. Grady (2000) illustrates composition, completion and elaboration during the process of selective projects and blending.

"*The Way We Think*" by Gilles Fauconnier and Mark Turner which is published in 2002 can be treated as a milestone in the development of conceptual blending theory. It upgrades conceptual integration to be the basic psychological cognitive mechanism for nearly all cognitive activities. Fauconnier and Turner argue that our ability to perform conceptual integration or blending may have been the key mechanism in facilitating the development of advanced human behaviors that rely on complex symbolic abilities. They emphasize that it is compression that enables the blending from input space to the blending space. The vital relationships in compression are mainly time, space, value, analogy and cause and effect. Furthermore, based on the research of 1998, Fauconnier and Turner (2002) put forward the types of conceptual blending networks, namely simplex networks, mirror networks, single-scope networks and double-scope networks. Meanwhile, conceptual blending can get rid of the restriction of the single network, since there can be more than one input space and the blending space of one network can also be the input space of another network. In addition, they make an explicit statement on those operational principles and working rules, which are topology principle, principle of integration (gestalt principle), principle of unpacking, principle of relevance and principle of human scale.

Fauconnier and Turner (1999, 2000), Grady (2005), and Grady et al (1999), comparing and contrasting conceptual metaphor theory with conceptual blending theory, conclude that the two approaches treat related but complementary phenomena. Conceptual blending combines the speech and action structure and dynamic features of metonymy and metaphor. While metonymy and metaphor project from source domain to the target domain which comes from the original structure in the source domain, the process of conceptual blending is dynamic, in which a new blending space and emergent structure will be established.

B.   The Researches of Conceptual Blending Theory in China

The researches of conceptual blending theory in China mainly explore the theoretical development of conceptual blending theory and its applications, which cover the fields of theoretical development and front issue of conceptual blending theory, the comparative study of conceptual blending theory and conceptual metaphor theory and the application of this theory in the explanation of advertising, literature, jargon, Internet language, translation, English word formation, syntax, and discourse structure analysis. It has proved that conceptual blending theory can provide detailed description and interpretation of the psychological mechanisms in understanding cultural and linguistic phenomenon. Its explanation power has been validated in many areas, verifying its vitality and practical value. Conceptual blending theory has been experiencing various improvement and certification since it was first proposed by Fauconnier in 1994. Up to now, conceptual blending theory has been applied to broader areas, meanwhile cross- and interdisciplinary researches continue to emerge. Through conceptual blending theory, one can understand the cognitive processes of language phenomenon and words formation from the microeconomic perspective. The diversified development of Conceptual Blending theory is in accordance with the develop trend of linguistics today.

The theoretical researches of conceptual blending theory in China can be mainly divided into two aspects: the sole research and the comparative research. Concerning the sole research of conceptual blending theory, Wang (2006) and Zhang & Yang (2008) review the development of this theory based on its foreign researches. Meng (2004) and Wei (2010) point out the advantages and deficiencies of conceptual blending theory. As for the comparative researches between conceptual blending theory and other linguistic theory, Lu (2010) examines the common theoretical premises and similar on-line reasoning of conceptual blending theory and relevance theory. Huo (2010) explores the differences and complementation of conceptual blending theory and prototype theory from the perspective of explanation of euphemism.

The researches of the application of conceptual blending theory in the explanation of linguistic and cultural phenomenon in China are fruitful: Wang (2007) and Zhou & Bai (2006) discuss how to understand the English word formation process from the perspective of conceptual blending theory. Huang (2002), Wang & Fan (2009) and Wang (2005) systematically analyze the differences and similarities between conceptual blending theory and conceptual metaphor theory, pointing out their respective advantages in the explanation of certain linguistic phenomenon. In the field of translation, Dong & Feng (2005) discuss the cognitive explanation in the text translation from the perspective of the conceptual blending of format and meaning and that of culture and images. Hu (2004) and Qi (2010) believe that the

process of translation is in accordance with the establishment of integration networks structure. In the aspect of the combination of conceptual blending theory and creative language formation, Luo (2010) discusses the parody in the advertisement with the help of conceptual blending theory. Liu (2006) and Liu (2006) explore humor based on conceptual blending theory. Shen & Liu (2006) and Bai & Chen (2010) have touched upon the analysis of internet language with the help of this theory. Concerning literature, Wang (2008) explore the metaphors in the Bible, while Wang & Sun (2008) takes "Of studies" as an example. Other works like "The Thought Fox" has been analyzed from the perspective of conceptual blending, image schema and conceptual metaphor (Huang, 2009).

It is not difficult to notice that the focus of the researches of conceptual blending theory in China lies in the exploration of application of this theory. As for the researches of the application of conceptual blending theory in the explanation of internet language, the quantity and covering are limited. As a result, there is still large space in the research in this field.

III.   RESEARCH DESIGN

A.   Feasibility of the Internet Catchwords Research

First, internet catchwords need to be analyzed. One of the reasons that internet catchwords can win people's heart is that they are not the literal combination of words or phrases but the reborn of the old common phrases or utterances based on our background information and imagination. Considering this feature, it is worthwhile for us to find out the implication of these internet catchwords.

Second, internet catchwords can be analyzed. Internet catchwords demand a creative theory to analyze them. Meanwhile, an important function of conceptual blending theory is the provision of global insight. In other words, a blend is an imaginative feat that allows us to "grasp" an idea by viewing it in a new way (Evans & Green, 2006). According to Fauconnier and Turner, conceptual blending achieves this by reducing complexity to human scale: the scope of human experience. The reason why two seemed irrelevant objects can be connected is that people produce association of similarity. As a result, people make use of the combination of the two objects to explain, comment and express their real feelings towards the world. Even though the physical property of the objects plays an important role in cognition, the way people understand objects is not only by visual sense but the combination of several senses. This combination enables people to find the similarities between different objects according to their experience (Zhao, 2001). To guarantee the successful mapping in the blending network, we extend the descriptive apparatus by introducing the notion of mapping scope. The mapping scope is best understood as a set of constraints regulating the correspondences which are eligible for mapping from a concept onto another one. Essentially, the mapping scopes reflect our conceptual experiences in dealing with the world around us (Ungerer & Schimid, 2001). As a result, when hearing "Jim is a pig", we can infer that "Jim is stupid" because we share the background knowledge that in China, pig has the image of slow and silliness. That is also the reason why the net citizens can understand the internet catchwords even if it is the first time that the net citizens read them, for the net citizens all share the similar mapping scope. When we produce or listen to a piece of discourse, we unconsciously fill in an incredible amount of information. If not, we would certainly not be able to understand even the simplest piece of discourse. Since the net citizens all have some internet-surfing experience and common background knowledge, they share a large mapping scope in internet. This common background knowledge can be activated during conceptual blending so as to guarantee the possibility of conceptual blending. For example, when hearing "Da Jiang You (buying soy sauce)", people will associate it with a hit interview: When questioned the opinion of the "sex picture scandal", one citizen said: "I don't care. I just go outside to buy soy source". After the interview, "Da Jiang You (buying soy sauce)" has become a hit internet catchword. As a result, people can easily work out the implication of the phrase "people do not care about something".

The crucial insight of blending theory is that meaning construction typically involves integration of structure that gives rise to more than the sum of its parts (Evans & Green, 2006). As a result, through conceptual blending, people can always deprive something new from the original words or phrases. This is a dynamic and creative process.

B.   The Significance of the Research

Internet catchwords have become another mirror of social culture and human psychology. Analyzing internet catchwords can help people grasp the trend of the people's taste and the desire hoping to be identified.

Furthermore, conceptual blending theory is a relatively new approach. In the past, people often take it for granted that internet catchwords are only entertainment but not a linguistic phenomenon to study. The difficulty to study a changing language phenomenon also stops people. Considering this, to use conceptual blending theory to study internet catchwords will be a safe and good choice. In addition, compared with the application of conceptual blending theory in literature, linguistic acquisition, metaphor, the adoption of this theory in internet catchwords studying will be a refreshing one.

C.   The Choices of Research

Of all the current internet catchwords in 2010, according to their frequency of citation in the news and conversation, this paper chooses three typical internet catchphrases and three utterances to analyze. They will help the readers understand the cognitive mechanism of meaning construction of internet catchwords.

D.   Research Analysis

Adopting the analysis approach of Ungerer and Schimid (2001), the author will neglect the fourth, namely so-called "generic space" proposed by Fauconnier and Turner in the following analysis, because it does not add anything that we regard as essential for understanding the network model (Ungerer & Schimid, 2001). The following are the typical examples of catchphrases and utterances.

1) Phrases:

a) "Pi Li (Thunderbolt)"

This phrase prompts for an integration network in which there are two inputs. In input 1, it contains an INFORMATION frame, containing many kinds of media such as newspaper, television, radio and etc, which are used to inform people of current affairs meanwhile affect people's mood or feeling. In input 2, it contains a NATURE frame, including thunder and lightning which would scare or hurt people. What distinguishes this type of network is that only one frame (here, the NATURE frame rather than INFORMATION frame) serves to organize the blend. In other words, the framing input, NATURE frame, provides the frame, including the roles for lightning or thunder and the consequence to be shocked and hurt, while the focus input that is the INFORMATION frame provides the relevant elements: the information. As for this example, INFORMATION takes the roles of thunder and lightning to affect people's emotion. In this blend, thunder or lightning endows the shocking or ridiculous information with concrete images. As a result, on the internet, when a net citizen says "Pi Li (Thunderbolt)", people can infer that he or she has really been shocked by certain news or event. The details are shown in the following figure 4.1.
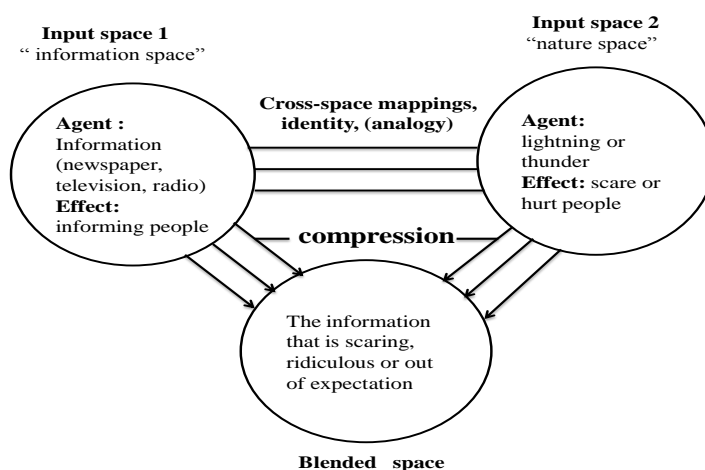

Figure 4.1 conceptual blending network of "Pi Li (Thunderbolt)"

b) "Pi Tui (split)"

This utterance implies two inputs which have different organizing frames: the frame of PLAYBOY who loves at least two women simultaneously and easy to fail in all relationships; the other one is the SPLIT frame in which people separate their legs to different directions and easy to lose balance. The frame in the blend draws from the frame of PLAYBOY---divides his love into several parts and gives them to different women---as well as the frame of SPLIT---the action that divides his legs to different directions. Part of the imaginative achievement here is finding the two frames that, however different, both can contribute to the blended activity in ways that are compatible (Evans & Green, 2006). The playboy in input 1 can be compatible with the "people splitting". The direction of "dividing love" in input 1 can be compatible with the direction of "splitting legs" in input 2. However, there are also some differences between them. The connotations behind "dividing love" and "splitting legs" are different, so is "falling in love" with "losing balance". In input 1 "dividing love" is an irresponsible action. Meanwhile, "splitting legs" is more like an exercise. In emotion aspect, "Failing in love" is more serious than "losing balance". In a word, the compatible elements between " playboy" and "people splitting" and those between the two actions are the foundations of this blending, implying the possibility to compare these two actions. Meanwhile, the contrast between them leads to the new and ironic meaning of "splitting legs". In this blend, Splitting becomes a concrete image of the inconstant people. It forms a metaphor that compares the action of inconstant people to the movement of splitting legs.
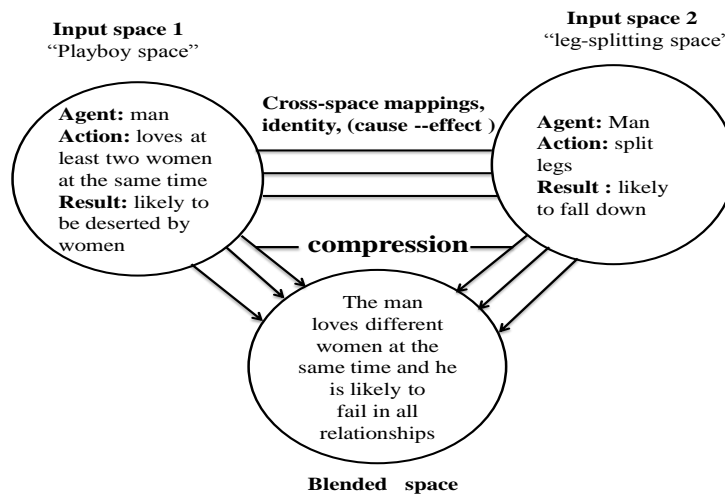
The details are in the figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2 conceptual blending network of "Pi Tui (Split)"

c) "Lu Guo (pass-by)"

This phrase sets up an integration network in which there are two input spaces: one is the NET CITIZEN frame which shows a net phenomenon that some net citizens only causally browse some internet information without giving their own opinions; the other one is the PASSER-BY frame which shows the scene that people only pass some place without lingering. The two inputs contain the similar structure. As a result, the similar behavior pattern of these two kinds of people becomes the link of the two inputs. Elements of the similar behavior pattern are mapped onto counterparts in each of the input spaces, which motivate the identification of cross-space counterparts in the input spaces (Evans & Green, 2006). However, we only elect part of the information from the inputs. In other words, not all the structure from the inputs is projected to the blend, but only the relevant information, which is required for purposes of local understanding. In this example, we only focus on the behavior pattern but not the companion or vehicle of the passer-by or net citizen. Together with the elements in the two inputs spaces, we can complete this blend with our background knowledge of these two kinds of people. Then the emergent structure appears which contains some information from the two inputs and also something new. Since the net citizens have the experience of only going through some information without responses. They would easily find the similarity between these two actions. As a result, it is not difficult for the Net citizens to draw the conclusion that the concrete "Lu Guo (pass-by)" in our daily life can be used to modify the abstract action in the virtual world.

Figure 4.3 conceptual blending network of "Pi Tui (Split)"

2) Utterances:

a) "Li Xiang Hen Feng Man, Xian Shi Hen Gu Gan (the dream is fantastic but the reality is cruelty.)"

This utterance prompts for an integration network in which one input contains a DREAM AND REALITY frame. The dreams people hold can be either very great or small and can be either few or many. The reality can be either very favorable or miserable. The second input contains the FIGURE frame which shows two opposite figures: plump and

slim. In these two inputs, there are four important images: dream, reality, plump figure and slim figure. These four seemed-irrelevant images are linked by cross-space mappings of identity, which undergo compression. In other words, the two images of the first input space amalgamate with the construction activated in the second space and the topology of the first space is overruled by the principle of integration. The result of that is the establishment of an emergent structure in the blended space combining these four images. The meaning contained is more than the sum of its component parts. During the blending, the background information about these four images is completed into the blend. Different figures will give people different impression and psychology feeling. The reader can use the different impression of these two figures to deduct the condition of the dreams and reality. The greatness of the dreams is represented by the visual feeling of the plump figure which is mellow and full, while the cruelty of the reality is showed by the visual feeling of the slim figure that is skinny and delicate. In this way, the once-irrelevant things can be connected. Moreover, this novel metaphor adopts a very relaxing tone to create humor effect and show a concrete image of the abstract conception of greatness and cruelty. Seeing this metaphor, people can easily get the information that the competitive reality will make it hard for people to accomplish their dreams even though the dreams are wonderful. Hearing this, people may show a bitter smile about the gap between ideality and reality.

The details are shown in the following figure 4.4:
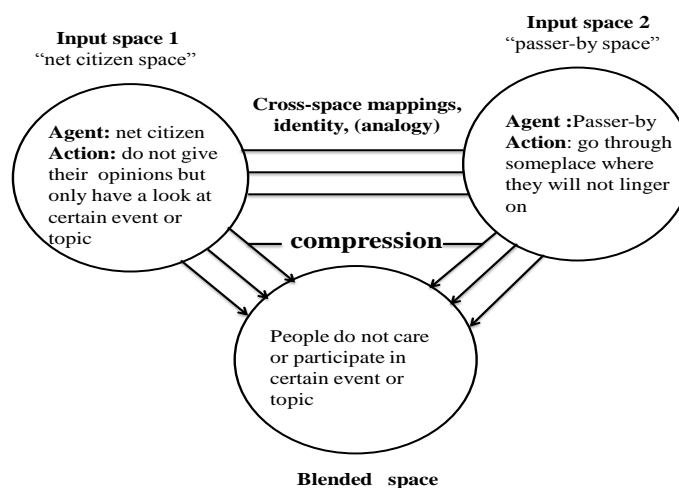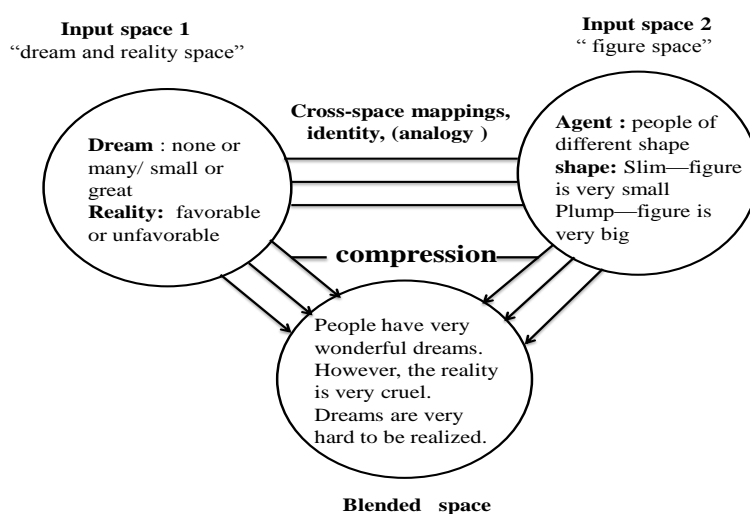

Figure 4.4 conceptual blending network of "Li Xiang Hen Feng Man, Xian Shi Hen Gu Gan (the dream is fantastic but the reality is cruelty.)"

b) "La Zhe Lao Po De Shou Jiu Xiang Zuo Shou La You Shou (when holding wives' hands, people feel like holding their own hands.)"

The utterance sets up an integration network in which there are two input spaces: one relates to the situation that a husband hands his wife's hand and the other relates to a person hands his or her own hand. Each of the spaces in this example contains the frame hand hands another hand, which is the same to the blend that has the additional schema relating to a handing frame. The similar structure of these two frames contains schematic information relating to handing, which motivates matching operations and thus cross-space connections between the two inputs. In the blend, we have two kinds of "hand in hand": one is husband hands his wife, the other one is a person's "own right hand hands left hand". Moreover, in the blend the two "hand in hand" are being compared, in which the husband hands his wife is treated equally as people hands their own hand. However, wife's hand is definitely not the husband's own hand, which shows that the husband has no passion and feeling towards his wife. Despite this, we achieve valuable inferences as a result of setting up the conceptual blend. Indeed, it is only by virtue of blending that we can compare the two kinds of hand in hand.

In achieving this blend, the first process to occur is to select relevant information from the inputs to blend. Not all the information in the input spaces is projected. For example, information is not projected relating to how the hand looks like, how long the handing lasts, or where the handing occurs. Instead, information is projected that is sufficient to accomplish the inference. As in this blend, we only project the feeling when "hand in hand". Secondly, the structure that is selectively projected into the blend is composed and completed. According to our experience, we can easily figure out the different underlying feeling of different "hand in hand". In this blend, we compare the different feelings between husband hands wife's hands and people hand their own hands. Upon running this blend, a new meaning has emerged as a result of composition and completion.

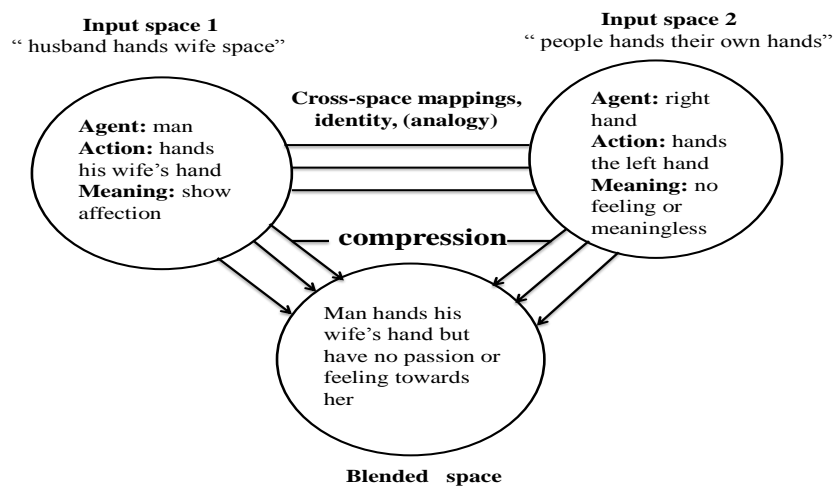The conceptual blending is illustrated in the following figure 4.5:

Figure 4.5 conceptual blending network of "La Zhe Lao Po De Shou Jiu Xiang Zuo Shou La You Shou (when holding wives' hands, people feel like holding their own hands.)"

   c) "Ren Shen Jiu Xiang Ge Cha Ji Chong Man Le Bei Ju He Xi Ju (life is like the tea table which holds cups and dishes.) "
   This utterance prompts for an integration network in which contains two input spaces. In the LIFE input, there is an abstract life and all the elements that a life contains such as happiness or sorrow. In the TEA TABLE input, there is a tea table, cups and dishes. At the first glimpse, it seems that there is no connection between life and tea table. But after reading it again, we will find that "Bei Ju (cups)" is the homophonic tone of "Bei Ju (tragedy)" in Chinese. Moreover, "Xi Ju (dishes)" is the homophonic tone of "Xi Ju (comedy)" in Chinese. In this way, the metaphor is established. In LIFE space, "life is full of tragedy and comedies". Meanwhile, the common structure which is "container—loaded goods" in the two inputs becomes the link between these two inputs. Through selective projections and conceptual blending, the emergent structure of this blending network is formed by these elements. In this blend, while the TEA TABLE input becomes the focus frame, LIFE input turns to be the framing input to organize the blend. The real meaning of this utterance appeared: life is full of tragedies and comedies (as the following figure 4.6 shows).
   We can find that this utterance makes use of the homophonic relationship between "Bei Ju (cups)", "Xi Ju (dishes)", "Bei Ju (tragedy)", and "Xi Ju (comedy), which not only illustrates the real meaning of life but also makes it vivid, humorous and easy to remember. As a result, homophonic relationship has often been adopted to create new expression to establish two contexts---the original meaning and implying meaning---to work out the real meaning of the utterance.

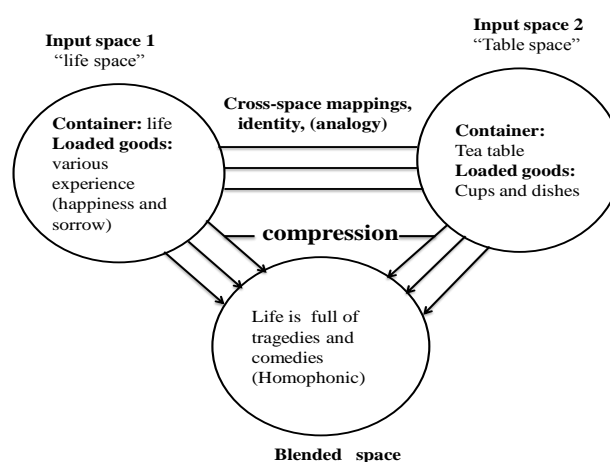Figure 4.6 conceptual blending network of "Ren Shen Jiu Xiang Ge Cha Ji Chong Man Le Bei Ju He Xi Ju (life is like the tea table which holds cups and dishes.)"

IV. CONCLUSION

   Language is dynamic but not a stable system of man-made symbols. Internet catchwords are also the productions of this developing and open-minded world. Internet catchwords have become the flavoring agent of people's life, even the

ice-breaker of strangers.

Blending theory is well suited to capture the conceptual indeterminacy of internet catchwords and open-endedness of the online cognitive processing. During this process, the relevant knowledge based on our experience will be activated and influence our ability to produce and understand the language related to it.

Blending theory emphasizes the dynamic and mutable aspects of blending and its role in meaning construction. By applying the conceptual blending theory into the analysis of internet catchwords, we can see the daily linguistic phenomenon in a new and dynamic perspective and develop a deeper understanding of the cognitive mechanism behind them. This is a process from the macro-research to micro-research which is often neglected by people.

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Sensory Style Preference of EFL Students in Iran

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Abstract—This study aimed at finding a relationship between the sensory style preference of learners and their years of experience as EFL (English Foreign Language) student sat secondary school level in Iran. Two questionnaires were used in this study. The first a demographic questionnaire, the latter which was taken from O'Brian (1990) was the Learning Channel Preference Checklist. The participants of this study consisted of 60 girl junior high school students studying at a state school in the city of Mashhad. The participants were divided into two groups: experienced group and inexperienced group. To answer the question of this study, several descriptive and inferential data analyses were utilized. The implication of this study was that there was in fact a significant relationship between the sensory style preference of learners' and that the experienced learners showed a flexibility towards the different learning styles whereas the inexperienced showed no flexibility.

Index Terms—sensory style preference, cultural difference, individual learning needs

I. INTRODUCTION

It seems that a lot of attention has been given in recent years to students' learning styles in education in general and in FLL (Foreign Language Learning) in particular. To Anderson (2005) an important feature in L2 research is the relationship between language learning strategies and learning styles. These two elements are not in isolation of one another, rather they are intertwined. Cohen & Macaro (2007) suggest that in an ideal world teachers should be aware of learners' styles and wide variety of strategies that are used for these styles. In this way teachers could accommodate learners to help them progress as quickly as possible in their task of learning a language. Teachers should therefore teach learners how to self-assess their learning styles and strategy usage and to then help them monitor theses issues themselves. Researchers can play a significant role in exploring explicit links between learners' use of strategies, their preferred learning style and language learning.

Unfortunately Iranian English language learners struggle a lot with their English classes at all levels. They normally find their classes not so easy, mundane and useless. However, they try very hard to do well in the final exams which they are pressured to perform well on, as a lot is at stake for them partly because of an extremely competitive university entrance exam. In order to do well in such exams they even go to great lengths to memorize a fair amount of their textbooks .This act is possibly due to the wrong approach to learning English, i.e. the Grammar Translation. Celci-Murcia (2001, p.6)) lists the characteristics of the GTM (Grammar Translation Method) as follows:

√ Instruction is given in the native language of the students.
√ There is little use of the target language for communication.
√ Focus is on grammatical parsing, i.e. the form and inflection of words.
√ There is early reading of difficult texts.
√ A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue (or vice versa)
√ The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use the language for communication.
√The teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language.

The entire list above is unfortunately pronounced in Iranian English classes. However, institutes in Iran have adapted the more productive communicative approach, along with task-based, notional –functional syllabuses. The problem of State program regarding English Classes seems to lie on the consequences of adopting GTM approach.

According to Richards & Rodgers (2001) although the Grammar-Translation method creates frustrations for students, more often than not, it makes few demands on the teachers. They continue that, though it may be true to say that the Grammar-translation Method is still broadly executed, it has no advocates. There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory. The question is: then why is it so extensively used in Iran?

Taking a new approach to teaching English at state schools of Iran, could alleviate the problems and frustrations of students. For this to happen, many researches have to be conducted. Problems have to be scrutinized from different angles and analyzed. For starters, looking at students as active participants rather than passive consumers seems to be

helpful. Students are unique and have individual learning needs, for one they have different learning styles. According to Richards &Schmidt (2002), differences in cognitive style are thought to affect how learners approach learning tasks and may affect success on those tasks. Catering for their different needs and giving value to learners as fundamental part of the learning system is paramount.

Harmer (2001) asserts that a preoccupation with learner personalities and styles has been a major factor in psycholinguistic research. The important questions to be dealt with in this field are as follows: Are there different kinds of learner? Are there different kinds of behavior in a group? How can we tailor our teaching to match the personalities in front of us?

Learning Style

It seems that scholars look at learning styles from different perspectives. According to Richards &Schmidt (2002), the terms learning style, cognitive style and cognitive strategy are used synonymously. They define learning style as the particular way in which a learner tries to learn something. In second or foreign language learning, different learners may prefer different solutions to learning problems.

Wright (1987) asserts that four different learner styles within a group can be identified.

√ The enthusiast looks to the teacher as a point of reference and is concerned with the goals of the learning group.

√ The oracular also focuses on the teacher but is more oriented towards the satisfaction of personal goals.

√ The participator tends to concentrate on group goals and group solidarity

√ The rebel while referring to the learning group for his or her point of reference is mainly concerned with the satisfaction of his or her own goals.

Skehan (1998) believes that the main application of style to language learning has been through the concept of field dependence/independence (FD/I). Cook (2001) believes that the FDs' thinking relates to their surroundings, whereas the FIs think independently of their surroundings.. FI and FD are simply two styles of thinking Griffiths & Sheen (1992), believe that the concept of FI/FD has not been sufficiently well defined in the research and is no longer of much interest within the discipline of psychology, from which it came. Ehrman and Oxford (1990 as cited in Oxford 2001, p.360) believe that there are nine major style dimensions relevant to L2 learning, but the four dominant styles that are likely to be among those most strongly associated with L2 learning are: sensory preference, personality types, desired degree of generality and biological differences.

In the end to Oxford (2001), learning styles are not dichotomous (black or white, present or absent), but rather generally operate on a continuum or on multiple, intersecting continua. Cohen & Dornyei, (2002) believe that it is possible that learners over time can be encouraged to engage in ' style-stretching' so as to incorporate approaches to learning they were resisting in the past.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Reid (1987) conducted a research on different learning styles and cultures and subsequently found that ESL students varied significantly in their sensory preferences with people from certain cultures differentially favoring four different ways of learning. In his research he found that students from Asian cultures, for example, were often highly visual, and in his list Koreans were at the top position. He also found that Hispanic learners were frequently auditory and that Japanese were no auditory. He concluded that ESL students from a variety of cultures were tactile and kinesthetic in their sensory preferences.

According to Hansen (1984) cognitive style varies to some extent from one culture to another. There are variations between learners on different islands in the Pacific and between different genders.(Kachru, 1988; Nelson, 1995) seem to agree with Hansen (1984) and believe that learning styles are both individually and culturally motivating. They assert that within a given culture and on a larger scale, certain learning style preferences among individuals are more pronounced. Oxford, Ehrman & Lavine, 1991 (as cited in Christison 2003, p.269) believe that this can lead to conflicts in a second language classroom that is made up of students from different language backgrounds when the teacher does not understand the relationship between the students' learning styles and his/her own. We even contemplate that students from different walks of life may have different learning styles preference, in specific different learning sensory style preferences.

Al-Shehri (2009), Yang & Kim (2011) explored the perceptual learning style, ideal L2 self, and motivated L2 behavior guided by Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2 motivational self system, where he characterizes these future imagined self- states as ideal and ought selves in his L2 motivational self-system, where the ideal self represents vision of oneself in the future, while the ought self represents a vision of oneself bearing attributes one feels one should possess.

Al-Shehri (2009) examined the relationship among the learners' visual style, imagination, ideal language selves and motivated behavior. His expectations was that learners with a visual style preference are more likely to access a richer domain of imagination, and that because of the prominent imagery content of the ideal-self, the learners' overall/ imaginative capacity will be positively related to their ideal language selves. Correlational analysis and regression analysis were conducted. The significant correlation confirmed Sheri's hypothesis, indicating that visual learners are more capable of perceiving a vivid representation of their ideal selves, which in turn is reflected in heightened motivated effort and behavior. We think that the same may apply to auditory learners and that perhaps they too could portray an ideal language self.

Yang & Kim (2011) explored the perceptual learning style, ideal L2 self, and motivated L2behavior of Chinese, Japanese, South Korean, and Swedish high school students.

The statistical analysis found that learners' perceptual learning styles (i.e., visual, auditory, and kinesthetic styles) were significantly correlated with their ideal L2 self and motivated L2 behavior. The results indicated that although the Chinese students were more likely to show motivated L2 behavior than the other students, they showed a significantly lower level of the ideal L2 self than the Swedish students.

Shakarami & Mardziha(2010) study indicate that the highest priority for metacognitive strategies for IMES(industrial management engineering students) is in line with a high value for visual and low value for auditory learning style, possibly emphasizing the importance they put on the observation and logical processing and the role of conscious thinking in their ESL learning and decision making in their occupational management task. On the other hand social strategies were reported to be the most frequently used strategies for PSS. (Political science students)

III. RESEARCH QUESTION

Based on the issues raised above, to our knowledge, not much research has tried to see the relationship between the sensory style preference of learners and their years of experience as English students in Iran. To this end, the authors have tried to address the following question:

Is there any significant relationship between the sensory style preference of learners and their years of experience as EFL (English Foreign Language) students?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study consisted of 60 junior high school students; studying at a state school in the city of Mashhad. They were all girl students with the average age of fourteen. The participants were divided into two groups: experienced group and inexperienced group. The division was done according to the amount of time they had experienced studying English ranging from zero to four years. Those who had studied English for only a year or below that amount were categorized as the inexperienced group. Those who had studied more than one year were categorized as the experienced group. Consequent to outlining the division, twenty-nine students were categorized as inexperienced and the remaining thirty- one students were categorized as experienced.

B. Instrumentation

Two questionnaires were used in this study. The first one was a demographic questionnaire which consisted of ten questions regarding personal information, levels of education, names of school, previous English score, experience of learning English and the discourse of learning English (See Appendix). Some of these questions included some sub-questions like experience sections which asked questions regarding types of input they exposed themselves to for learning or enjoying English. The second questionnaire was the learning Channel Preference Checklist which was taken from O'Brian (1990) for the purpose of this study.

This questionnaire identified three types of styles the author named as Visual. Questions 1 (I can remember something better if I write it down), 5 (I am able to visualize pictures in my head), 9 (I take lots of notes on what I read and hear), 10(It helps me to LOOK at a person speaking. It keeps me focused.), 11 (It's hard for me to understand what a person is saying when there is background noise.), 16 (It's easier for me to get work done in a quiet place.), 17 (It's easy for me to understand maps, charts, and graphs), 22 (When I am concentrating or reading or writing, the radio bothers me), 26 (When taking a test, I can "see" the textbook page and the correct answer on it.), 27 (I cannot remember a joke long enough to tell it later), 32 (When I am trying to remember something new, for example, a telephone number, it helps me to form a picture of it in my head.) and 36(When I get a great idea, I must write it down right away or I'll forget it.)

The second component was named Auditory. Items 2 (When reading, I listen to the words in my head or I read aloud), 3 (I need to discuss things to understand them better), 12 (I prefer having someone tell me how to do something rather than having to read the directions myself), 13 (I prefer hearing a lecture or tape rather than reading a textbook), 19 (I remember what people say better than what they look like), 20 (I remember things better if I study aloud with someone), 23 (It's hard for me to picture things in my head), 24 (I find it helpful to talk myself through my homework assignments), 28(When learning something new, I prefer to listen to information on it, then read about it, then do it, 29 (I like to complete one task before starting another, and 33 (For extra credit, I prefer to do a report on tape rather than write it.

The third component was Hap tic. The items 4 (I don't like to read or listen to directions; I'd rather just start doing), 6 (I can study better when music is playing),7 (I need frequent breaks while studying), 8 (I think better when I have the freedom to move around; studying at a desk is not for me), 14 (When I can't think of a specific word, I use my hands a lot and call something a 'what-cha-ma-call-it' or a 'thing-a ma-jig.'), 18 (When beginning an article or book, I prefer to take a peek at the ending.), 21 (I take notes, but never go back and read them, 25 (My notebook and my desk may look messy, but I know where everything is), 30 (I use my fingers to count and move my lips when I read), 31 (I dislike

proofreading my book), 34 (I daydream in class), and 35 (For extra credit, I'd rather create a project than write a report.)

C.   Procedure

The questionnaires were translated into Farsi and were reviewed by two expert Farsi speakers in order to check the clarity of the sentences. Then the teacher who is the current teacher of the participants in this study kindly helped in gathering the information. The participants answered each question along with the teacher in the sense that after the teacher read the question; she gave them 30 seconds to respond to the question. In this way she could solve any probable ambiguities.

D.   Variables

There are two independent variables in this study. One independent variable includes school (level) which consists of Junior high school. The independent variable is experience or years of learning English outside of high school which has two levels: those who have attended English classroom more than one year and those who have not attended English classroom at all or less than 6 months. These variables are nominal.

Another independent variable which has three levels of Visual, Auditory, and Haptic. These variables are interval.

E.   Data Analysis

To answer the question of this study, several descriptive and inferential data analyses were utilized.

Descriptive Analyses Number One: Percentage and Frequency

To show the distribution of participants over two independent variables different descriptive analyses were run. The independent variables in this study were type of sensory style preference; visual-verbal, visual-nonverbal, and auditory), experience (whether they attended any institution before). The results are shown in Table 1 for the third grade junior high students. As it is shown in this Table, from among 60 participants studying in their third grade junior high school, 31 students stated that they had the experience of going to English institute (51.7%) and 29 students stated that they had not (48.3%). Also, from among this number, 29 students (48.3%), and 31 students (5%) assessed themselves as being elementary, intermediate and advanced respectively.

TABLE 1:
GROUP

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	EXPERIENCED	31	51.7	51.7	51.7
	INEXPERIENCED	29	48.3	48.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

The reliability of the questionnaire was estimated. The result is shown in Table 2.As is shown in this table,Cronbach Alpha for the questionnaire is 0.73. This is fairly acceptable for a 36 item questionnaire.

TABLE 2:
CHRONBACH ALPHA FOR READING MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.73	36

Next, to estimate the validity of the questionnaire, principal component analysis through the varimax rotation method was run. Three components of Visual verbal, Auditory and Visual nonverbal were subjected to SPSS. The result is shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
FACTOR ANALYSIS WITH VARIMAX ROTATION

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.777	44.418	44.418	1.065	26.624	26.624
2	0.874	21.841	66.259			
3	.699	17.482	83.741			
4	.650	16.259	100.000			

Tables 3 & 4 show the construct validity of the components of the learning styles. All of the four components of the learning style load on a single factor which shows that they all tap on the same underlying construct.

TABLE 4
FACTOR ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONNAIRE

	Components
	1
Visual Verbal	.628
VisTacKin	.522
Auditory	.500
VisualNoverbal	.385

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

To answer the question of this study "Is there any significant relationship between the sensory style preference of learners and their years of experience as EFL students?" two sets of Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between the four components of the learning styles (Visual / Verbal, Visual / Non-Verbal, Auditory and Visual / Tactile / Kinesthetic) for experienced and inexperienced students. Tables 5 and 6 are indicative of the results.

TABLE 5
PEARSON CORRELATION COMPONENTS OF LEARNING STYLES FOR EXPERIENCED STUDENTS

		VISUALNON VERBAL	AUDITORY	VISTACKIN
VISUALVERB AL	Correlation	.232	.533**	.423*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.210	.002	.018
VISUALNON VERBAL	Correlation		.212	.060
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.251	.750
AUDITORY	Correlation			.360*
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.047

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

As displayed in Table 5, out of the six correlation coefficients that were calculated, three were significant. There is a significant relationship between visual verbal and auditory learning style (Alphas= 0.53). There is a significant relationship between visual verbal and Visual Tactile Kinesthetic. (Alphas= 0.42); and There is a significant relationship between auditory and Visual Tactile Kinesthetic (Alphas= 0.36).

TABLE 6
PEARSON CORRELATION COMPONENTS OF LEARNING STYLES FOR INEXPERIENCED STUDENTS

		VISUALNONVERBAL	AUDITORY	VISTACKIN
VISUALVERBAL	Correlation	.350	.161	.227
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.063	.403	.235
VISUALNONVERBAL	Correlation		.108	.335
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.577	.076
AUDITORY	Correlation			.247
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.196

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

As it is shown in table 6 none of the correlation coefficients for the inexperienced students were significant.

V. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to find an answer to the research question: "Is there any significant relationship between the sensory style preference of learners and their years of experience as EFL students?" Two questionnaires were used in this study. The first one was a demographic questionnaire which consisted of ten questions regarding personal information, levels of education, names of school, previous English score, experience of learning English and the discourse of learning English. The second questionnaire was the learning Channel Preference Checklist which was taken from O'Brian (1990) for the purpose of this study.

To answer the question of this study, several descriptive and inferential data analyses were utilized. The results showed that out of the six correlation coefficients that were calculated, three were significant, which suggests that there is a correlation between the sensory style preferences of experienced students, hence the experienced students are more flexible in their preference. As mentioned in the literature to Oxford (2001), learning styles are not dichotomous (black or white, present or absent), but rather generally operate on a continuum or on multiple, intersecting continua and the results for the experienced students are indicative of this fact. Perhaps the amount of time that these students have put in studying English have made them more fluid learners who can adapt their styles to best meet their needs. However, the same concept cannot be felt for the inexperienced students. Cohen & Dornyei, (2002) believe that it is possible that learners over time can be encouraged to engage in ' style-stretching' so as to incorporate approaches to learning they were resisting in the past. Consequently it is up to the teacher to try to provide opportunities for students' sensory style development.

VI. CONCLUSION

As the goal of any teacher is to better meet the individual needs of their students, then it seems that the only way would be to address the diversity that is felt in the classroom, and better prepare students for their classroom language learning experiences by working with learning styles and applying concepts regarding learning styles available. The teacher is in an ideal position to aid students become more comfortable with learning approaches they have not previously experienced. Students need to know that their individual needs will not be accommodated at all times, and that even sensitive teachers must make informed decisions about which instructional approach will most efficiently transmit the material to be covered. One of the apparent implications of this study is that experienced learners are more flexible regarding their learning styles. Teachers, especially at elementary level have to be more sensitive to the learning styles of the students. Teachers at higher levels are freer in their approach to learning styles. Leading students to a more critical awareness of their individual learning strengths and challenges results in empowering them to fully realize their potential in academic settings and need to assume more learner responsibility. Teachers may use a variety of activities to provide structured opportunities for students to explore their individual learning styles.

APPENDIX A

Read each sentence carefully and think how it applies to you. On each line, write the number that best describes your reaction to each sentence.

5. -----Almost Always   4. -----Often   3. -----Sometimes   2. ----- Rarely   1. ----- Almost Never

---------1. I can remember something better if I write it down.

---------2.When reading, I listen to the words in my head or I read aloud.

---------3. I need to discuss things to understand them better.

---------4.I don't like to read or listen to directions; I'd rather just start doing.

---------5. I am able to visualize pictures in my head.

---------6. I can study better when music is playing.

---------7. I need frequent breaks while studying.

---------8. I think better when I have the freedom to move around; studying at a desk is not for me.

---------9. I take lots of notes on what I read and hear.

---------10. It helps me to LOOK at a person speaking. It keeps me focused.

---------11. It's hard for me to understand what a person is saying when there is background noise.

---------12. I prefer having someone tell me how to do something rather than having to read the directions myself.

---------13. I prefer hearing a lecture or tape rather than reading a textbook.

---------14.When I can't think of a specific word, I use my hands a lot and call something a 'what-cha-ma-call-it' or a 'thing-a ma-jig.'

---------15.I can easily follow a speaker even though my head is down or I'm staring out the window.

---------16. It's easier for me to get work done in a quiet place.

---------17. It's easy for me to understand maps, charts, and graphs.

---------18.When beginning an article or book, I prefer to take a peek at the ending.)

---------19. I remember what people say better than what they look like.

--------- 20.I remember things better if I study aloud with someone.

---------21.I take notes, but never go back and read them.

---------22. When I am concentrating or reading or writing, the radio bothers me.

---------23. It's hard for me to picture things in my head.

---------24. I find it helpful to talk myself through my homework assignments.

---------25. My notebook and my desk may look messy, but I know where everything is.

---------26. When taking a test, I can "see" the textbook page and the correct answer on it.

---------27. I cannot remember a joke long enough to tell it later.

---------28. When learning something new, I prefer to listen to information on it, then read about it, then do it.

---------29. I like to complete one task before starting another.

---------30. I use my fingers to count and move my lips when I read.

---------31. I dislike proofreading my book.

---------32. When I am trying to remember something new, for example, a telephone number, it helps me to form a picture of it in my head.

---------33. For extra credit, I prefer to do a report on tape rather than write it.

---------34. I daydream in class.

---------35.For extra credit, I'd rather create a project than write a report.

---------36. When I get a great idea, I must write it down right away or I'll forget it.

APPENDIX B

جملات زير را با دقت خوانده و ببينيدآيادر مورد شما صدق مي كنند .
در مقابل هر جمله عددي را كه بهترين وجه عكس العمل شما را نسبت
به جمله ترسيم مي كند بگذاريد .

1. هميشه   2. اكثر مواقع   3. بعضي اوقات   4. به ندرت   5. هيچوقت

5	4	3	2	1	
5	4	3	2	1	1) اگر چيزي را بنويسيم بهتر به خاطر مي سپارم .
5	4	3	2	1	2) در هنگام آرام خواندن ، در ذهنم به تك تك كلمات گوش مي دهم و يا به صورت بلند مي خوانم .
5	4	3	2	1	3) براي اينكه مطلبي را خوب متوجه شوم بهتر آن است كه در مورد آن با افراد مطلع گفتگو كنم .
5	4	3	2	1	4) علاقه اي به خواندن و يا گوش دادن به دستور العمل ندارم ، ترجيح مي دهم بدون مطالعه دستور العمل ، شروع به ياد گيري كنم .
5	4	3	2	1	5) من ميتوانم عكسها را در ذهنم تجسم كنم .
5	4	3	2	1	6) من با موزيك بهتر درس مي خوانم .
5	4	3	2	1	7) در هنگام مطالعه ، من احتياج به زمان استراحت مكرر دارم .
5	4	3	2	1	8) مطالعه پشت ميز براي من مناسب نيست ، اگر آزادي حركت داشته باشم ، بهتر ياد مي گيرم .
5	4	3	2	1	9) در مورد مطالبي كه مي خوانم و يا گوش مي كنم ، يادداشتهاي فراواني مي نويسم .
5	4	3	2	1	10) وقتي كسي صحبت مي كند ، نگاه كردن به آن شخص به من كمك مي كند تا روي موضوع متمركز شوم .
5	4	3	2	1	11) اگر سر و صدا باشد ، براي من سخت است كه صحبتهاي طرف مقابل را متوجه شوم .
5	4	3	2	1	12) براي انجام كاري ترجيح مي دهم شخصي دستور العمل را برايم توضيح دهد تا اينكه خودم آنرا بخوانم .
5	4	3	2	1	13) ترجيح مي دهم به سخنراني و يا مطلبي گوش دهم تا اينكه متني را بخوانم .
5	4	3	2	1	14) وقتي لغت خاصي را بياد نمي آورم ، خيلي از دستهايم استفاده مي كنم و از لغت " چيز " استفاده مي كنم .
5	4	3	2	1	15) حتي اگر سرم پائين باشدو يا خيره به پنجر ه باشم به راحتي حرفهاي طرف مقابل را دنبال مي كنم .
5	4	3	2	1	16) اگر در محيط آرام كارهايم انجام شوند ، برايم راحتتر است .
5	4	3	2	1	17) نقشه ، چارت و گراف برايم به راحتي قابل درك هستند .
5	4	3	2	1	18) در هنگام شروع خواندن كتاب و يا نوشته اي ، ترجيح ميدهم نيم نگاهي به انتهاي متن بياندازم .
5	4	3	2	1	19) گفته هاي افراد را بهتر به خاطر مي سپارم تا قيافه هايشان را .
5	4	3	2	1	20) اگر همراه شخصي با صداي بلند مطالعه كنم ، مطالب را بهتر به خاطر مي سپارم .
5	4	3	2	1	21) يادداشت زياد بر مي دارم ولي هيچ وقت آنها را مطالعه نمي كنم .
5	4	3	2	1	22) وقتي در خواندن و نوشتن دقت مي كنم حتي صداي راديو مرا اذيت نمي كند .
5	4	3	2	1	23) تجسم كردن برايم سخت است .
5	4	3	2	1	24) در انجام تكاليف خانه با خود صحبت كردن به من كمك مي كند .
5	4	3	2	1	25) هر چند دفتر يادداشت و يا ميز مطالعه ام نا مرتب به نظر برسند ، ولي من جاي هر چيز را مي دانم .
5	4	3	2	1	26) در هنگام امتحان دادن ، من ميتوانم صفحه كتابي كه جواب درست در آن است و من قبلا" آنرا مطالعه كردمبه خاطر بياورم.
5	4	3	2	1	27) هيچ جوكي را نمي توانم به اندازه كافي به خاطر بسپارم كه براي ديگري تعريف كنم .
5	4	3	2	1	28) هنگام يادگيري مطلب تازه ، ترجيح مي دهم ابتدا به اطلاعات در مورد آن مطلب گوش دهم ، سپس در موردش مطالعه كنم و بعد انجامش دهم.
5	4	3	2	1	29) ترجيح مي دهم كاري را به اتمام برسانم و بعد كار جديد را شروع كنم .
5	4	3	2	1	30) براي شمردن از انگشتهايم استفاده مي كنم و هنگام خواندن لبهايم را تكان مي دهم .
5	4	3	2	1	31) از بازنگري نوشته هايم خوشم نمي آيد .
5	4	3	2	1	32) هنگامي كه مي خواهم مطلب جديدي را به خاطر بياورم ، مثلا" شماره تلفن ، تجسم اعداد در ذهنم به من كمك ميكند .
5	4	3	2	1	33) براي دريافت پوئن مثبت ترجيح مي دهم ، يك گزارشي روي نوار تهيه كنم تا اينكه گزارش را بنويسم .
5	4	3	2	1	34) سر كلاس درس رويا پردازي مي كنم .
5	4	3	2	1	35) براي در يافت پوئن مثبت ، ترجيح مي دهم روي پروژه اي كار كنم تا اينكه گزارشي تهيه كنم .
5	4	3	2	1	36) وقتي يك ايده عالي به ذهنم مي رسد بايد فورا" آنرا روي كاغذ بياورم و گرنه فراموشش مي كنم .

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Using Humorous Texts in Improving Reading Comprehension of EFL Learners

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Abstract—The present paper investigates the effect(s) of humorous texts on reading comprehension of EFL students. For this purpose, forty students, randomly divided into two groups (n=20), were invited to attend the reading sessions. The humorous group comprised the participants who read the reading texts preceded by a joke, and the non-humorous group consisted of students who studied the same reading text without a joke. The findings with respect to the t-test which compared the scores of recall tests of both groups over the seven sessions revealed no significant difference between the recall performances of the two groups. However, comparing the scores obtained from the first and the last reading by humorous group showed a significant improvement in the recall and comprehension of the experimental group. The findings of this study also suggest a relative influential role of humor and jokes on recall ability and reading comprehension and the implications might be for teachers to include humor and jokes in the reading texts that they provide for students.

Index Terms—humor, jokes, recall, comprehension, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

Humor is a unique, though universal part of human experience and is fundamentally manifested and expressed through language. It is prevalent in all languages and cultures. Therefore, the employment of humor within the context of second language learning offers great advantages to both language teacher and learner.

However, Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers have been very slow to investigate and recognize the great potentials of humor within the language classroom. In recent decades, some studies and surveys have been carried out on the pedagogical effects (both affective and cognitive) of humor whose results show a considerable positive shift of view toward the application of humor in language classroom. Results from a survey by White (2001) show that both teachers and students believe that humor should be used to relieve stress, gain attention, and create a healthy learning environment. Supporting the positive effect of humor on language learning, Schmitz (2002) holds that presentation and study of humor should be an important, integrated part of foreign language classes. He adds that using humor in language courses, in addition to making class more enjoyable, can contribute to improving students' proficiency. He considers humor to be useful for the development of listening comprehension and reading (p. 95).

In addition to fulfilling the aforementioned functions, humor seems to support good memory performance and is believed to have a positive effect on recall of information (Desberg, Henschel, and Marshall 1981; Garner 2006; Schmidt 1994; Schmidt and Williams 2001; Worthen and Deschamps 2008).

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

One frequently seen problem in most reading classes is hat students encounter the reading text without knowing what it is about beforehand and most often they do not have the interest and motivation to go through the reading passage. Without the necessary interest and motivation, they do not give their full attention to the reading task and subsequently show weak memory storage of the reading passage.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The current study aims at seeking answers to the following questions:
1. Is there any significant relationship between recall ability and using English jokes as a pre-reading activity?

2. Are there any significant differences between recall ability of males and females in reading humor related comprehension texts?

The above questions lead to the following hypotheses:

1. There is a positive relationship between recall ability and using English jokes as a pre-reading activity.

2. There are no significant differences between recall ability of males and females in reading humor-based comprehension texts.

IV. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Humor and Memory

Humor and fun are intrinsically motivating and arouse and maintain interest during the lesson (Martin 2006, 354; Medgyes 2002, 5; Shade 1996, 97; Tamblyn 2003, 38). Tamblyn (2003), introducing humor as a mnemonic device, explains that humor entertains learners and this entertainment develops intrinsic motivation which is essentially what is called personal relevancy. In clarifying the role of humor in presenting information visually, he believes that everyone remembers pictures far better than words or thoughts (p. 143). Humor and more specifically jokes qualify as visuals; for a joke to be funny, one has to get a mental picture of it (p. 147). Supporting the same idea, Schmidt and Williams (2001), in their study, provided strong evidence for the mnemonic benefit of humor. They believe that the positive effect of humor on recall maybe that humorous material leads to sustained attention and subsequent elaborative processes. They further emphasize that this sustained attention is not simply verbal rehearsal, nor does it require an intention to learn material (p. 311).

B. Humor and Reading Comprehension

There are some studies which have reported the positive role of using humor in reading classes (Klasky 1979; Shaughnessy and Stanely 1991). Klasky (1979) identifies the reluctancy of readers as a challenge in reading classes and knows humor as the solution to this challenge (p.731). Holding similar idea, Shaughness and Stanely (1991) recognize laughter and humor and the power to play as a way to get students to read and make them take pleasure of their reading (p.4). Based on these pieces of evidence, it is apparent that humor influences the reading classes and reading task by motivating students, providing pleasure and interest for them. Since motivation and attitude towards reading determined a successful reader (Naceur and Schiefel 2005, 167). Some researchers have recommended the insertion of humorous materials into reading classes to motivate and make students interested (Medgyes 2002; Shaughness and Stanely 1991). The results of a survey showed that among the books on and the reading materials selected by students, the categories of humor and horror were among the most attractive, interesting and preferred (Higginbotham 1999).

C. Memory and Gender

Regarding the memory performance of the two genders, there are controversial views. While some studies claim that females tend to outperform males on verbal and language tasks (Anderson 2001; Kolb and Wishaw 1990; Lowe, Mayfield and Reynolds 2003). There are some others who either believe that there is no difference between men and women in memory performance (Hyde and Linn in Hyde and Grab 2008, p.156), or that males have larger verbal memory (Geiger & Litwiller 2005).

D. Text Comprehension

The model of text comprehension used in this study is the construction-integration theory proposed by Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983). According to this model, comprehenders process text one chunk (a sentence or clause) at a time. The processing of each chunk consists of extracting and arranging the propositions underlying the message. Then propositions from one part of a text are connected to each other in a network based on overlap of arguments between propositions. In this network, in addition to propositions, inferences, reinstatements, explicit text ideas and generalizations about the gist of situation are connected to each other. All of these elements are connected to each other based on argument overlap. The propositions of a text are represented in long term memory in three levels. The first level is the surface structure which is a mental representation of the exact wording of the text and is forgotten very rapidly. The second level is propositional representation which includes the explicitly stated semantic information in the text and the third level is situation model which is a mental representation of the state of affairs denoted in the text (Van Dijk and Kintsch 1983 in Carroll 2008, p.168).

Comprehension of test probes is like comprehension of a text and the principles of comprehending a text apply to these items too (Singer and Kintsch 2001, 39). Like a text, the test items are also represented in three levels in memory. Based on this, Singer and Kintsch (2001) claim that when a test item is a paraphrase rather than an explicit form, the surface representation link between test probe and text sentence would be absent in memory (p. 39), because the surface form of the remembered sentence is different from that of the test probe. But the propositional and situation links are still there since the meaning of the probe and its role in the situation model is not changed. Now if the test sentence is an inference, both surface link and propositional link would be absent and just the situation link would be retained. Therefore, in case of a paraphrase or an inference, the test sentence is connected only to a portion of the memory representation of the text. The recall and recognition of test probes is influenced by this relationship between text and

test item. In immediate recall, the acceptance rate for explicit items is considerably higher than for paraphrases and inferences, whereas in delayed recall, the acceptance rate for paraphrases and inferences goes higher. This pattern can be explained with regard to the three levels of propositional representation: in immediate testing, participants still have a detailed representation of surface, text base and situation structure of the text in their memory. Therefore, the explicit items which are consistent with the three levels are accepted the most often, and then are paraphrases which do not match the surface form, but are consistent with text base and situation structure, and finally the least accepted items are inferences that conform only to situation structure. In delayed recall, the exact wording of the message is forgotten and consequently there is a great loss of the content (text base) of the text. Thus, delayed recognition is mostly dependent on situation model.

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Participants of the study were initially 75 male and female English literature and translation students (senior and junior) of Shahid Chamran university of Ahvaz. They ranged in age from 23 to 25. To pull out a group of homogeneous students from this pool, a test of language proficiency was administered. Forty (28 females and 12 males) students whose scores were within a specified range (one standard deviation above and below the mean) were selected to attend the reading sessions.

This selection was done by administering a version of Peterson proficiency test (2005). The reliability of this test computed through KR-21 formula was 0.886. This test consisted of four parts: structure, vocabulary, reading comprehension (which comprised 80 items) and a writing section. The instructions were given orally to students on each part of the test by the researcher. The students were told that: a) They are attending a research; b) They will get negative points for wrong answers; c) The result of the test would not have any effect on the final exam of the course; d) They have 80 minutes time for structure, vocabulary and reading comprehension and one hour for the writing section.

The humorous group comprised the participants who read the reading texts preceded by a joke, and the non-humorous group consisted of students who studied the same reading text without a joke. The gender of participants was also taken into consideration in the present study.

B. Material

The texts chosen for this study were 7 reading passages, each about two paragraphs long. The passages were selected from "Intermediate Reading Comprehension" (Mirzaee 1999). The texts were about different general topics such as astronomy, diamond mining, tornado, and life of great men (See appendix for a sample). The texts were selected randomly from the book and to understand them, no specialized knowledge was required. The proficiency level of the texts was intermediate which corresponded to the level of the students. The seven texts were analyzed in terms of propositions and a coherence graph developed using the construction-integration model of Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978; see also Miller and Kintsch 1980). This analysis was done for the purpose of scoring the free writing protocols generated by students during testing session.

The jokes were selected from "English Jokes" (Ghanbari 2004). The selected jokes corresponded to the topics of the reading passages. To avoid possible distractions, the mirths were relevant to academic content (Shade 1996, 47). For every reading passage, one related joke was selected. The selection of texts and jokes were done by the researcher under the supervision of the EFL specialist.

C. Instruments

Instruments in this study consist of a proficiency test to produce two homogeneous groups of students in terms of language knowledge, a Likert questionnaire to find seven jokes that seem most funny to students, and seven multiple choice tests and free recall writing papers. The proficiency test was a version of Peterson proficiency test (2005). The reliability of this test computed through KR-21 formula was 0.886. This test consisted of four parts: structure, vocabulary, reading comprehension (which totally comprised 80 items) and a writing session. The Likert questionnaire consisted of 4 responses. This test was done before students took part in reading sessions and was administered to select the funniest jokes. The responses were

1. Not funny   2. Little funny   3. Funny   4. Very funny

In order to test the participants' comprehension and thus their recall, seven tests consisting of five multiple choice items were administered. The items were selected from the book "Intermediate Reading Comprehension" (Mirzaee 1999). Since the comprehension tests were selected from the comprehension book, it was assumed that the reliability of tests is counted for by the author.

D. Procedures

The two groups attended the reading sessions simultaneously but in different classes. Each reading session took place at the beginning of the class before students went to any other job. The jokes appeared at the beginning of each reading text, one joke being attached to every text. The texts preceded by jokes were given to the humorous group. In each session, one text was studied and it took 20 minutes to read it. The reading sessions were conducted by the researcher.

Each text was first read aloud by a volunteer to attract everyone's attention and the second time, the students were asked to read it silently. The students could ask the instructor any questions they had about the text. Additionally, they were provided with a glossary of words which were thought may be difficult for them to understand. The glossary was printed on the same page after the reading passage. The texts were taken from participants after they had finished studying them.

The two tasks used in this research to measure the memory performance are question answering and free recall which were performed two days after the reading sessions, i.e. delayed testing. The administration of the two tests like reading the passages was done at the beginning of the session before students got busy and tired by doing other tasks. The two tests were administered in a specific order. The free recall test was given first because if the participants had taken the free recall after the question answering test, they would be able to remember the content of the text and take this information to the free recall test.

In free recall part, students were asked to write whatever they remembered from the reading text on a paper distributed by the instructor. The students were told that it was more important to write as much of the text as they could remember than it was to reproduce the correct grammar and spelling of the original text. The testing phase was repeated seven sessions after each reading session. There was no time limitation in writing the recall protocols and whoever had finished writing was given the question answering paper. Administration of the procedures was done at the presence of the teacher of the class and like any other research project experimenter bias could have occurred.

In the question answering part, students were asked to answer five multiple choice questions regarding the passage they had studied in the previous session. The questions were selected from the same book out of which the reading passages were chosen. So, in sum, there were seven tests of this type, i.e. one test after each reading session.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis was done based on the construction-integration model mentioned earlier in this paper. To analyze the comprehension and recall of texts by participants, a coherence graph which was the propositional analysis of the texts was drawn for every text. To draw a coherence graph, the following steps were taken: (1) coding the text into propositions, (2) chunking the propositions and (3) connecting the propositions to each other based on argument overlap (propositions that refer to or are referred to by one proposition have an argument overlap with it). To further clarify this process, two sentences of a story analyzed by Singer and Kintsch (2001, p.36) are explained.

S1   we are out of touch with problems which were central in the past. [we, out of touch, problems, central, past]
P1m1   out-of-touch [we, problems]
P1-2   central [problems]
P1-3   time: during [past, problems]
S2   but this is not true everywhere. [not-true, everywhere]
P2m2   not-true [p1m1]
P2-2   everywhere {p1m1}

A. Scoring

The written protocols generated during the delayed recall sessions were scored based on the produced coherence graphs of the texts. A lenient scoring criterion was adopted for scoring students' protocols. Credit was given to meaning that preserved gist or paraphrase as well as to exact meaning preservation or verbatim recall. The lenient scoring criteria also allowed scoring of reinstatements and inferences that were produced in written recalls. Then, the number of propositions in the written protocols produced by students, including all forms mentioned above was counted and divided by the number of propositions of the text and a score was obtained. Scoring was done by use of the coherence graphs already drawn. As mentioned earlier, the coherence graphs were drawn for both reading texts and for the free recall writings of all the students based on the C-I model. The number of propositions in the free recall protocols and the reading texts was determined by the graphs. All the protocols were scored by the researcher and the obtained scores were calculated out of twenty. To take care of the reliability of scoring the free writing protocols, the inter-rater reliability method was conducted. One week later, the scoring and rating were reconsidered by the researcher.

Scores from the post-testing (both free recall and question answering) were subjected to two matched t-tests and two independent t-tests to determine whether or not there are significant differences between each group's performances in terms of the condition of the text they had read. In each reading, the independent variables were presence and absence of a joke and gender of the participants; while, the dependent variable was memory. The two paired t-tests were done to compare the scores obtained from the first and the last reading of both (humorous and non-humorous group), and to determine if any significance change occurred in their recall and comprehension during the seven sessions reading and testing. The independent-test was done to compare the scores obtained from the seven sessions reading and testing by both groups to assess their performance with regard to the presence and absence of the jokes. The other independent t-test was done to compare scores obtained by males and females of the experimental group to determine any significant differences between males and females in terms of recall performance. This test was performed between the two genders of the experimental group because the purpose of the study was to investigate the recall of the two genders with regard to the presence of the joke.

VII. RESULTS

In order to find out whether jokes as a pre-reading activity have a positive effect on recall ability of language learners, two different forms of tests were performed: a multiple choice question test and a free recall writing test. The tests were repeated during the seven sessions. The scores obtained from the two types of tests were fed into SPSS and the following results were produced.

Hypothesis one: There is no difference between the recall performance of students who read a joke as a kind of pre-reading activity with those who do not read a joke beforehand.

Regarding the recall performance of humorous group, results of the matched t-test comparing the scores obtained from the first and the last reading text revealed a significant difference between the comprehension and recall of the first reading text and the last one; (P=.021, p<.05) This result shows an increasing trend in recall and comprehension of the seven texts by students of the humorous group (see Table 1).

TABLE 1.
MATCHED T-TEST COMPARING READINGS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Paired Differences							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 VAR00001 - VAR00002	-4.42188	6.88702	1.72175	-8.09171	-.75204	-2.568	15	.021

The results of paired t-test obtained from the comparison of the recall of the first and the last reading texts by students of non-humorous group revealed no significant difference between the recall and comprehension of the two reading texts (P=.832, p<.05). The result shows that no improvement occurred in the recall and comprehension of the students of the non-humorous group during the seven reading sessions (Table 2).

TABLE 2.
PAIRED T-TEST COMPARING READINGS OF CONTROL

		Paired Differences							
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	VAR00001 - VAR00002	.43214	7.46514	1.99514	-3.87810	4.74239	.217	13	.832

Analysis of the scores obtained from the independent t-test which compared the recall of students of the humorous group with the students of the non-humorous group revealed no significant difference by recall condition between the recall and comprehension of the two groups regarding reading the seven texts (P=.905, p>.05). Table 3 displays the statistical findings obtained as a result of comparison.

TABLE 3.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST COMPARING THE RECALL OF STUDENTS IN HUMOROUS AND NON-HUMOROUS GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
VAR00001	Equal variances assumed	8.307	.004	.119	250	.905	.10135	.85240	-1.57745	1.78014
	Equal variances not assumed			.119	235.848	.905	.10135	.85240	-1.57794	1.78063

Hypothesis two: There is no difference between males' and females' recall ability in reading a humor related text.

Finally, the results of the independent t-test which compared the scores obtained from the recall tests of males and females of the experimental group revealed a significant difference between the recall and comprehension of the two genders (P=.009, p<.01). As revealed in tables 4 and 5, comparing the means of the scores obtained by the two genders shows the outperformance of the males over the females.

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST COMPARING MALE AND FEMALE PERFORMANCES

		Levene Test ...		t-test for Equality...						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Significance	t	Df	Sig(2-tailed)...	Mean Difference	Std. Error Diff...	Lower	Upper
VAR00001	Equal variances ...	.002	.966	-2.663	122	.009	-3.59627	1.35064	-6.27000	-.92253
	Not Equal variances ...			-2.618	70.924	.011	-3.59627	1.37345	-6.33489	-.85764

TABLE 5

	VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
VAR00001	0	85	20.5768	6.88375	.74665
	male	39	24.1731	7.19904	1.15277

In light of the above-mentioned results, hypothesis 1 is accepted, but the second hypothesis is rejected since males showed a relatively better performance in their recall and comprehension over females.

VIII. DISCUSSION

The results of the present study revealed improvement in the recall and comprehension of the texts by participants of the humorous group across the seven sessions reading and testing. The scores obtained during the seven sessions of reading and testing revealed no significant difference in recall and comprehension of the two groups. Finally, the results of comparing the scores of males and females of the humorous group showed a relatively better performance of males compared to females. These results will be interpreted in the light of the cognitive and affective processes involved in comprehension.

It appears that the improvement in recall and comprehension of the humorous group over the first and the last reading sessions is related to the presence of the joke before the reading text. One logical explanation for the effect of joke on the better performance of the humorous group compared to the non-humorous group is that reading the joke produces an inner motivation and interest in reader, so the reader goes through reading the text with greater enthusiasm and thus pays closer attention to the content and this "close attention leads to more accurate and more complete remembering" (Reisberg 2006, 23). The attention generated by individual interest functions like a filter and lets the material which is interesting and focused by the reader in the mind and disregards any other irrelevant thought that can interfere with processing the reading text. Thus, reading the joke provokes an interest in the participants of humorous group. The produced interest takes away students' attention from any peripheral and interfering thought and focuses their attention toward reading the text and recognizing and processing its main points. Just as Berk (2002, p.5) points out, humor functions as a "hook" to attract and maintain student's attention. By "hook", Berk means activities or experiences which engage the emotion and mind of students, pulls them into the learning process, and prevent their thoughts from wandering around. Berk believes that humor provides such activities and experiences to focus students' attention especially in long lasting and boring classes.

Bearing in mind that, on the one hand, humor triggers interest and produces intrinsic motivation in individuals (Martin 2006, 354; Medgyes 2002, p.5; Shade 1996, p.97; Tamblyn 2003, p.38), and that the intrinsic motivation deeply engages people in doing the task (Renninger 2000, 38), and, on the other hand, motivation is a key factor in comprehension of a text (Guthrie and Scafiddi 2004, 277), it can be claimed that the improvement in recall and comprehension of participants of the humorous group is due to their increased interest and motivation. Renninger (2000, p.379) states that, "for an individual interest to continue to develop, a person needs opportunities for cognitive challenge". It was already argued that, to comprehend humor, one should be able to solve the incongruity involved with it and resolving the incongruity imposes a cognitive challenge on the mind of the reader. Based on this, it can be said that as the participants of the humorous group continue reading the passages during the seven sessions, reading every joke at the beginning of the passage challenges their cognition and consequently their interest continues to develop over the seven sessions. Individual interest, in addition to, fulfilling the above mentioned functions is an effective factor in attracting the person's attention. As such, it functions like a filter for information to which a person pays attention (Renninger 2000, p.380).

Attention influences memory performance by affecting both working memory and long term memory. Attention is necessary to hold information in working memory and to move information to long-term memory more efficiently (Wickens and Mccarley 2008, 1). The ability to focus attention correlates with working memory capacity. Individuals with good attention control skills, and will better be able to maintain the information stored in short term buffers (Wickens and Mccarley 2008, p.170).

To describe how attention affects recall, it is necessary first to introduce the notion of "priming". Priming is defined as a "nonconscious or implicit form of memory" (Stevens, Wig and Schacter 2008, 66). Increased attention at the time

of study seems to be an important factor in priming. Results of some studies reported by Stevens, and others indicated that top down effects of attention can have an impact on priming, both at the time of study and test and have been shown to involve both spatial attention and task relevant selective attention.

Another plausible explanation for observed improvement is, since the joke is identical in content to the reading passage, it plays as an activator of the related schemata and activates the content schemata of the learners and make them prepared for reading the text material. A content schema is the knowledge about people, the world, culture and the universe. Another possible explanation for the observed outperformance of humorous group over the non-humorous group regarding the first and the last reading text is the functioning of joke as a mnemonic device. In this regard, Millis and King (2001, p.42) believe that the use of mnemonic devices while reading a text helps memory performance. The joke which appears at the beginning of the reading text entertains the readers. This entertainment leads to higher intrinsic motivation and this motivation is called personal relevancy (Tamblyn 2003, p.143). Another function of jokes as a mnemonic device is its role in provocation of sustained attention and the subsequent elaborative processes which lead to better storage and recall (Schmidt and Williams 2001, p.311).

Looking at humor from the emotional side, it was already mentioned that reading and comprehending humor engages emotion (Martin 2006, p.7), and emotion makes remembering the material more accurate and long lasting (Reisberg 2006, p.17). Putting these two comments together, the logical conclusion is that the participants of humorous group showed a better recall performance because reading the joke at the beginning of the reading text arouses their emotion and thus leads to better remembering.

Results of the independent t-test which compared the recall performance of males and females of humorous group revealed that males outperform females in recall ability. This outperformance can be explained in terms of the presence of the joke which improves brain's performance on spatial temporal reasoning tasks (Berk 2001, p.7) and the superiority of males over females in spatial memory (Anderson 2001; Geiger and Litwiller 2005; Kolb and Wishaw 1990; Lowe, Mayfield, and Reynolds 2003) leading to the better performance of males. Spatial memory is one dimension of the situational representation of a text in cognition and has a powerful effect on the reader's memory (Zwaan and Singer 2008, p.93). Zwaan and Singer (2008) further state that "the spatial representations are not detailed unless the reader is instructed, constrained, or intrinsically motivated to construct a detailed spatial representation" (p.94). Based on this, it can be claimed that the presence of the joke has motivated the readers to build a detailed spatial representation and because males perform better on spatial tasks, their recall performance is better than their female counterparts.

Findings of the independent t-test that compared the recall performance of the humorous and non-humorous groups across all the seven reading and testing sessions revealed no significant difference between the performances of the two groups. This finding was contrary to the previous studies claiming that humor has a positive effect on recall ability. The observed unexpectedness could be related to the absence of the jokes at the time of testing. This could be explained through the notion of "specificity of priming". Specificity is "the degree to which priming is disrupted by changes between the encoding and test phases of an experiment" (Stevens, Wig and Schacter 2008, p.72). According to this definition, when study or test changes along a specific dimension, it leads to a reduction in priming. The presence of the joke at the time of study and its absence at the time of testing has produced a change which reduces the amount of priming.

Taking into account the pattern of test probes recall, Kintsch and Van Dijk's (1978) prediction about the acceptance rate of the test probes across immediate and delayed recall intervals states that, in immediate recall test, explicit items, paraphrased items, and the inferences are accepted respectively. With increased delay, this pattern changes and the acceptance rate goes higher toward inferences and then paraphrased items and the least accepted are explicit items. Analyzing the test probes of the present study which were totally 35 items revealed that 40 percent of the probes were explicit (the exact wording of the text was set as the probe), 40 percent were paraphrased items (the test probe was a rewording of ideas expressed in the text), and 20 percent were inferences (the probe asked students about a deduction they had to draw from reading the text). This categorization was done by use of both inter-rater and intra-rater scoring. The analysis of the probes was not consistent with the Kintsch and Van Dijk's prediction. The percentage of correct answers given to explicit items was the highest (86.5%); next were the paraphrased items (61%) and the least recognized items were inferences (49%). This inconsistency may have to do with the limited number of post testing sessions which was one single delayed post testing session, while, the pattern of probe test recall proposed by Kintsch and Van dijk (1978) was drawn by data obtained from immediate and several delayed post testing. They repeated the test 4 times: the first test was performed immediately after reading the text; the second test was done 20 minutes later; the third one was performed 40 minutes and the last one was performed 2 days later while the testing procedure in the present study took place only once and it was 2 days after the reading sessions.

Distinguishing between statements generated in free recall test, Kintsch and Van Dijk classify them into reproductions and reconstructions. Reproductions are "responses which correspond to propositions expressed directly in the original article" and reconstructions are "sensible guesses but do not have counterpart propositions in the text" (Kintsch and Van Dijk 1978 in Zwaan and Singer 2008, 111). Kintsch and Van Dijk found that in immediate recall, the responses are more reproductions and with increased delay, they move toward reconstructions. Analysis of the responses produced in the free recall testing of the present study indicated that 60 percent of the responses were

reconstructions. These results are close to Kintsch and Van Dijk's findings, since with 2 days delay between readings and testing which was a relatively long one, the statements were expected to move toward reconstructions.

IX. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was subject to a number of limitations. The first one was associated with the restricted number of reading sessions. In the case of this study, more passages and more reading sessions would have been preferable. Using the existing data obtained from only one single delayed testing session which occurred after each reading session made another restriction. With both delayed and immediate testing, the obtained results would have been more reliable and would produce more comprehensive interpretations. Another potential limitation may involve the way we assessed the homogeneity of the participants. To carry out this research study, students participated in a general proficiency test based on which they were divided into two homogeneous groups. There existed other variables like short memory span which could not be measured by a proficiency test. Short term memory is one of the factors which affect comprehension and recall of a text (Carroll 2008, 162). While this study examined the effect of jokes on recall performance by arguing that jokes may affect recall because they produce interest and motivation in the reader, it did not measure the topic interest of reading passages which could have affected the recall of the texts by students of both groups.

X. CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The present study was based on our belief that it is necessary to investigate the relations between humor (English jokes), recall ability and reading comprehension in more details. It is not enough to look at the positive effect of humor on recalling some isolated words or sentences without considering a specific context or a language skill. However, when we want to learn more about processes and mechanisms that may help to explain the effects of humor on recall and comprehension of texts then it is essential to use specific memory measures and to examine memory and comprehension processes in a specific situation, and to choose a definite subcategory of humor.

In the present study, we chose a specific text learning situation and a specific category of humor, namely, joke. The major goals were to test whether recall ability and reading comprehension are affected by the presence of a humorous element (joke) in the reading texts and whether males and females show a different performance in recalling humorous texts.

The findings with respect to the t-test which compared the scores of recall tests of both groups over the seven sessions revealed no significant difference between the recall performances of the two groups. However, comparing the scores obtained from the first and the last reading by humorous group showed a significant improvement in the recall and comprehension of the experimental group.

The findings of this study suggest a relative influential role of humor and jokes on recall ability and reading comprehension and the implications might be for teachers to include humor and jokes in the reading texts that they provide for students. By so doing, teachers can motivate students and attract their attention toward reading the text. In this case, jokes coming before the main reading passage can function as a pre-reading activity. In addition, these findings might help curriculum developers and material designers to provide materials which include some humorous elements.

APPENDIX

A sample text used in the study:
Clerk in post office, after weighing letter: "that letter is too heavy".
"You'll have to put another stamp on it".
Man: "what is the good of that? If I put another stamp on it, that will make it still heavier, won't it?"
How can a single postage stamp be worth $16,800?
Any mistake made in the printing of a stamp raises its value to stamp collectors. A mistake on one inexpensive postage stamp has made the stamp worth a million and a half times its original value. The mistake was made more than a hundred years ago in the British colony of Mauritius, a small island in the Indian Ocean. In 1847 an order for stamps was sent to a London printer- Mauritius was to become the fourth country in the world to issue stamps. Before the order was filled and delivered, a ball was planned at Mauritius' government house, and stamps were needed to send out the invitations. A local printer was instructed to copy the design for the stamps. He accidentally inscribed the words "post office" instead of "post paid" on the several hundred stamps that he printed.
since the reading scores of males and females of this study were obtained from 7 sessions reading and testing, so the number of males and females is multiplied by the number of testing sessions and hence the numbers 85 and 39 in (table 5) is the result of this estimation.

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The Interrelationship of Instrumental, Integrative, Intrinsic, and Extrinsic Motivations and the Lexical-oriented Knowledge among Persian EFL Language Learners

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Abstract—It is axiomatic that affective factors play crucial roles in learning a language. Among the numerous affective factors motivation has a salient role. The present study served as an attempt to shed light on the point that is there any interrelationship between the four different types of motivation (intrinsic, extrinsic, instrumental, and integrative) and the lexical-oriented knowledge of Persian language learners. To do so, 360 Persian EFL language learners were randomly selected and three different instruments, two questionnaires on motivation and a vocabulary test were administered among them to respond. The results of the study revealed that first of all, there was a positive but weak correlation between the two main variables of the study. Secondly, it became evident that there was a significant difference just between the instrumental and intrinsic types of motivation. The results of the study will provide substantial implications for better recognition of affective needs of language learners and consequently, causing conditions for more effective language learning.

Index Terms—intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, lexical knowledge

I. INTRODUCTION

It has been, through different studies, a truism that there are various factors affecting the language teaching and learning process. Among these different factors, affective factors in general and motivation in particular play an important role. Moreover, motivation has been widely acknowledged by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influences the rate and success of the second or foreign language learning. For example, Research shows that those students who have higher motivation are more successful and efficient in their learning (for example, Ely, 1986; Gardner, 2000). Moreover, the original impetus in second or foreign language motivation research comes from the social psychology due to the fact that learning the language of another community simply cannot be separated from the learners' social dispositions towards the speech community in question. Gardner and Gardner and Lambert (1972) mentioned two types, or better to say, two orientations for motivation: integrative-oriented motivation and instrumental-oriented motivation. The first former applies to cases when language is learned as a desire to integrate into the target language community; and the latter refers to cases where language is learned with the intention of achieving a certain external reason like getting a job.

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In the literature on motivation, there is no single, integrated definition of motivation. Ellis (1994) for instance in an overview of research on motivation asserted that motivation refers to the extent to which language learners persevere in learning, and to what kinds of behavior they exert and their actual achievement. Wlodwoski (1985) also explained motivation as:

"the processes that can (a) arouse and instigate behavior, (b) give direction or purpose to behavior, (c) continue to allow behavior to persist, and (d) lead to choosing or preferring a particular behavior" (p. 2)".

Gardner's (1985) definition is somehow related to this definition. He defined L2 motivation as "the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (p. 10). Gardner (1985) also proposed a more comprehensive and accurate explanation for the concept of motivation. He noted that motivation is conceptualized as a set of variables. That is, it is a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning and also a combination of the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning

the language. In addition, motivation is hypothesized to have a direct effect on L2 achievement and is itself purportedly influenced by a number of other social-psychological variables. And finally, Brown (2001) in his study stated that motivation simply refers to the intensity of one's impetus to learn. It is conspicuous in all these definitions that learner's attitude, degree of effort, investment of time, and also his amount of energy contribute in determining the extent one is motivated in language learning.

However, there are various taxonomies as to different types of motivation. One common categorization divides motivation into two types of instrumental and integrative-oriented types of motivations. Instrumental motivation refers to the situations where the purpose of language learning is to get a benefit, for example, to get a job, or to get higher payment. Integrative motivation in contrast, is considered as the opposite of instrumental motivation. The purpose of this motivation is not to get a benefit from learning the language, but language is learnt just to be integrated in that language and its culture.

On the basis of another classification, motivation is divided into two types of extrinsic and intrinsic. To make a relationship between this classification and the above-mentioned one, it could be assumed that extrinsic motivation is somehow related to instrumental motivation and intrinsic motivation is related to integrative motivation. Therefore, extrinsic motivation is related to the purpose of getting something in the outside world like getting a prize. But in contrast, intrinsic motivation pertains to internal factors and learning the language just for itself.

As to the relationship between motivation and learning strategies, some studies found that motivation has a far-reaching relationship with the learners' use of different types of strategies. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) for example, asserted that the degree of motivation of students is the single most powerful influence on the choice of language learning strategies.

One aspect of language which is considered as one of the most important aspects of every language is vocabulary. The significance of this part of language is to the extent that even some researchers equate the learning process of a language with learning and in fact, knowing the words of that language. Although this claim is somehow an exaggeration, however, the significant role of vocabulary in learning a language should not be looked down upon. Moreover, researchers and theorists have severally admitted the fact that vocabulary knowledge is multi-faceted. In other words as Harley (1996) righty noted, it is a disarmingly simple term for a complex multidimensional phenomenon. Due to this complexity, classroom teachers must take a more comprehensive approach to vocabulary development in order for students to reach a higher quality and quantity of L2 output (Sanaoui, 1996; Swain, 1996). They state that there are three facets of this complexity: (a) receptive versus productive vocabularies, (b) breadth versus depth of vocabularies, and (c) direct teaching versus contextual inferencing.

Vocabulary learning may occur implicitly in language arts classrooms as well as content area classrooms, especially with regard to incidental word learning through context. Research studies have shown that upper grade students across ability levels can acquire vocabulary incidentally through reading and listening (for example, Nagy & Herman, 1987). Besides, Nagy and Herman also found that new words representing known concepts were more easily learned incidentally during independent reading than words that were more conceptually difficult. In another study, Swanburn and de Glopper (1999) found that middle level and secondary readers acquire partial understanding of approximately 15% of the unfamiliar words they encounter while reading. These studies support wide reading as an important component in a comprehensive vocabulary program. Reading widely and frequently is not only related to school achievement but also to increased vocabulary acquisition. In their study on the amount of time students spend reading, Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding (1988) found a positive correlation between the amount of time fifth grade students spend reading and their reading achievement scores on a standardized reading test. Students with scores at the 98th percentile on the test read approximately 5 million words per year, while those students scoring at the 50th percentile read approximately 600,000 words per year.

As to the vocabulary learning ways, there exist conflicting views among language professionals concerning the relative superiority of two approaches to learning second language vocabulary: learning words in context vs. learning words out of context. Convictions are strong among many language professionals that contextualized vocabulary learning is more effective than learning words in lists. Oxford and Scarcella (1994), for example, observe that while decontextualized learning (word lists) may help students memorize vocabulary for tests, students are likely to rapidly forget words memorized from lists. McCarthy (1990) argues that a word learned in a meaningful context is best assimilated and remembered. However, most studies have failed to produce findings favoring context-dependent vocabulary learning (e.g. Morgan and Bailey, 1943; Wind and Davidson, 1969; Gershman, 1970, Tudor and Hafiz, 1989, Hulstjin, 1992).

Vocabulary knowledge plays also an important role in reading comprehension. Researchers tend to agree that vocabulary knowledge is a major prerequisite and causal factor in comprehension and that there is a relationship between vocabulary size and reading comprehension. Some studies have investigated this relationship and used vocabulary size as a predictor variable for reading comprehension (Hu & Nation, 2000; Laufer 1992, 1997; Liu Na & Nation, 1985). In Koda (1989) further examined the correlation between vocabulary tests and two reading tests. The result of her study showed that vocabulary knowledge contributes to students' reading comprehension in Japanese, and that there was a correlation coefficient of 0.74 between the vocabulary test scores and the comprehension test scores.

Regarding all the above-cited works and explanations and also admitting that few studies have dealt with the role of

the four main types motivation in the depth of vocabulary knowledge especially in EFL contexts including Iran, this study served as an attempt to consider the relationship between instrumental, integrative, intrinsic, and extrinsic motivations and the depth of vocabulary knowledge among Iranian EFL language learners. To clarify its purpose, in this study it was tried to determine firstly, if the four types of motivation have any role in learning the vocabulary part of language, and secondly, in the case of existing such a role, which one has the most effective and which one the least effective role. The study, in fact, attempts to address the following research question:

Is there any relationship between the four types of motivation and the depth of vocabulary knowledge of the Iranian EFL language learners?

Conducting studies like the present one is useful for language teachers because the results of the study may help them be able to employ the approaches which are consistent with the motivations of their students and subsequently, make them learn vocabulary more effectively. It is also significant for language learners since by knowing about this relationship they will be able to know the most suitable kind(s) of motivation for vocabulary learning and so by boosting that kind of motivation in them they will be more efficient in their learning of vocabulary part of language.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the present study were, totally, 360 Persian EFL language learners of three well-known language institutes of Shiraz, Iran. In each of the institutes 120 male and female were selected on the basis of their availability. They were all studying the intermediate average age of 20. with the average age of 20 years.

B. Materials

In order to collect the desired data, two different questionnaires and a test were employed. The questionnaires were derived from Laine (1987) and validated by Salimi (2000). The first one was related to extrinsic and intrinsic motivations (See Appendix B). This questionnaire consists of two parts: the first part provides personal information about the participants. And the second part which involves twenty one items in the Likert scale format and try to get information on those reasons of learning the vocabulary part of language which are related to internal and external sources of motivation.

The other questionnaire utilized in the study was the questionnaire which gathered data on the instrumental and integrative motivations of language learners (See Appendix C). This questionnaire, like the previous one, consists of two sections: the first section is about the personal information of the participants and the second section consists of twenty items in the Likert scale format. One more point regarding this questionnaire is that Sedaghat (2001) states that Salimi (2000) estimated its reliability by Cronbach Alpha; and it turned out to be .71. However reliability estimation repeated in this study for the sake of certainty and it turned out to be almost .76.

The third and the last instrument was the Vocabulary Depth test which collects information about the vocabulary knowledge of the participants (See Appendix A). This test consists of forty vocabulary items which are aimed at assessing the vocabulary power of language learners in different topics. The test has been proved to be reliable by Ieav (1988). Again, the reliability estimation repeated in the present study and it turned out to be .68.

C. Data Analysis

Having gathered the required data and in order to analyze them, the SPSS statistical program in general and first a correlational design in particular was run to investigate the relationship between the variables of the study. Second, a one-way ANOVA was also run to see the influence of motivations on the vocabulary knowledge performance of the participants.

IV. RESULTS

In this part of the paper the main results of the study are presented and detailed. Table 1 represents the descriptive statistics including the mean, standard deviation, and other fundamental information as to the variables of the study. As it is conspicuous from the table, the mean obtained from the participants' attitudes about the four types of the motivation is remarkably high when compared with the number of participants (2.73). It implies that the participants are more or less consistent with each other regarding their attitudes towards the questionnaire items. Moreover, the mean obtained for the scores of the participants in the vocabulary test also shows that the scores were almost the same for the test takers (25. 43). To be able to talk with more confidence and to support these findings examining the table showing the main results of correlation would be a great help.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
motivation	2.73	1.10	360
score	25.43	7.61	360

Table 2 which represents the main findings of correlation indicates a relatively low Pearson product correlation for the variables of the study (= .188). The table also cast light on the point that there is a significant difference among the variables of the study (sig. = .000).

TABLE 2
CORRELATION RESULTS

		motivation	Score
motivation	Pearson Correlation	1	.188**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	360	360
score	Pearson Correlation	.188**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	360	360

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

All in all, correlation showed that first there is a low degree of relationship among the variables of the study. It also ascertained that the variables of the study that is, motivations and the vocabulary scores are significantly different. However, it doesn't reveal where exactly these differences lay. To know about these differences one-way ANOVA was run.

The first table obtained through one-way ANOVA is table 3 presenting the descriptive information like the mean, standard deviation, and some other information regarding each of the four types of motivation. As it is evident from the table, the instrumental and intrinsic motivations possess the highest and lowest of mean respectively. It is in this sense that the participants of the study had more similar attitudes as to the instrumental motivation and less similar ideas about the intrinsic motivations of language learning.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE DATA ON THE FOUR MOTIVATION TYPES

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
intrinsic motivation	60	22.2	7.8	1.0	20.2	24.2	9	36
extrinsic motivation	98	25.5	8.1	.82	23.9	27.2	2	40
integral	80	25.1	6.9	.77	23.6	26.7	10	39
instrumental	122	27.0	7.0	.64	25.7	28.3	11	40
Total	360	25.4	7.6	.40	24.6	26.2	2	40

Table 4 which shows the ANOVA results indicate that there is a significant difference with regard to the four types of the motivation (sig = .001). This inference is the same as what was mentioned for the correlation results. Now in order to see the exact place of differences, let's examine the post hoc test.

TABLE 4
ANOVA RESULTS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	934.43	3	311.4	5.5	.001
Within Groups	199.09	356	55.9		
Total	208.53	359			

Table 5 that is, the post hoc table, reveals that the significant difference is only between the intrinsic and instrumental motivations. But regarding all other types of motivation, there is no significant difference with regard to their relationship to each other.

TABLE 5
MULTIPLE COMPARISON RESULTS

	(I) motivation	(J) motivation	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Scheffe	intrinsic motivation	extrinsic motivation	-3.30	1.22	.06	-6.74	.13
		Integral	-2.89	1.27	.16	-6.48	.69
		Instrumental	-4.79*	1.17	.00	-8.11	-1.48
	extrinsic motivation	intrinsic motivation	3.30	1.22	.06	-.13	6.74
		Integral	.40	1.12	.98	-2.75	3.57
		Instrumental	-1.49	1.01	.53	-4.34	1.35
	integral	intrinsic motivation	2.89	1.27	.16	-.69	6.48
		extrinsic motivation	-.40	1.12	.98	-3.57	2.75
		instrumental	-1.90	1.07	.37	-4.92	1.11
	instrumental	intrinsic motivation	4.79*	1.17	.00	1.48	8.11
		extrinsic motivation	1.49	1.01	.53	-1.35	4.34
		Integral	1.90	1.07	.37	-1.11	4.92

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study served in fact as an attempt to ascertain whether there is any relationship between the four types of motivation (instrumental, integrative, intrinsic, and extrinsic) and the depth of vocabulary knowledge of the Iranian EFL language learners. Here in this part the research question of the study is represented and discussed in detail.

Is there any relationship between the four types of motivation and the depth of vocabulary knowledge of the Iranian EFL language learners?

As to the presence or lack of any probable relationship between the two main variables of the study (motivation and depth of vocabulary knowledge), as it was above-mentioned the results of the study revealed a significant but with a very weak positive degree of relationship between them. In sharp contrast to this result there are some researchers who have reported a very strong positive relationship between the motivation and different aspects of language learning including vocabulary. Gardner (2007) for example noted that motivation plays a crucial role in different ways like classroom behavior, persistence in language study, bicultural excursions, intensive language programs, modes of acculturation, etc. in language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1972) also advocated the important role of motivation (especially integrative-oriented motivation) in the second language acquisition. The study also revealed that the only significant difference among the four types of motivations is between the instrumental and intrinsic motivations. It can be implied from this inference that the more language learners enjoy an instrumental-oriented motivation possess the less degree of intrinsic motivation they will have in their language learning process and vice versa.

In the end, it should be admitted that the present study, like any other ones, suffer from a set of limitations. Although the number of participants seems to be appropriate, one main problem with them is that they all were intermediate-level language learners hence making the findings of the study less generalizable. Moreover, in order to reach and make more reliable findings some other studies can be achieved in other foreign contexts.

APPENDIX A   THE VOCABULARY TEST SAMPLE

دستورالعمل: در این تست 40 سؤال وجود دارد. هر سؤال به صورت زیر می‌باشد.

Items	Column A				Column B			
sound	a.logical	b.healthy	c.bold	d.solid	e.snow	f.temperature	g.sleep	h.dance

لطفاً توجه کنید:

sound.هستند هم معناي كلمه A بعضي از كلمات كه درستون
در يك عبارت يا يك جمله به كار روند.soundاسم‌هايي هستند كه مي‌توانند بعد از كلمه B بعضي از كلمات ستون
هشت كلمه در دو ستون وجود دارد كه فقط چهارتاي آنها صحيح است. شما بايد چهار كلمه صحيح را انتخاب كنيد.
به كار sound dance يا sound snow, sound temperature مي‌باشند. ما معمولاً sound هر سه هم معني solid و A healthy-logicalدرستون
پاسخ صحيحي در اين قسمت است. در همان صفحه بايد جواب‌ها را به صورت زير پر sleep به كار مي‌رود. بنابراين sound sleepنمي‌بريم اما اغلب
كنيد يا دور گزينه صحيح خط بكشيد

a.   b.   c.   d.   e.   f.   g.   h.

Items	Column A				Column B			
1.peak	a.initial	b.top	c.crooked	d.punctual	e.time	f.performance	g.beginning	h.speed
2.accurate	a.exact	b.helpful	c.responsible	d.reliable	e.error	f.event	g.memory	h.estimate
3.dense	a.transparent	b.acceptable	c.compact	d.thick	e.hair	f.view	g.wood	h.material
4.troublesome	a.annoying	b.irritating	c.dangerous	d.bothersome	e.favor	f.relief	g.weeds	h.opportunity
5.devoted	a.dedicated	b.relevant	c.loyal	d.elected	e.follower	f.instance	g.requirement	h.patriot
6.wild	a.sound	b.uncultivated	c.uncivilized	d.disappointed	e.calm	f.mob	g.refinement	h.berries
7.insufficient	a.ungrateful	b.inexpressible	c.discontented	d.inadequate	e.lack	f.resources	g.amount	h.need
8.considerable	a.significant	b.outright	c.great	d.large	e.change	f.condition	g.release	h.nature
9.obscure	a.unclear	b.unknown	c.vague	d.old	e.product	f.appraisal	g.origin	h.demand
10.minute	a.tiny	b.timely	c.incorrect	d.hard	e.adjustment	f.preconception	g.imperfection	h.particle
11.consecutive	a.successive	b.final	c.fateful	d.required	e.attempts	f.matches	g.aspects	h.terms
12.narrow-minded	a.bigoted	b.intolerant	c.stupid	d.uniform	e.remark	f.creation	g.people	h.wisdom
13.key	a.primary	b.fundamental	c.hidden	d.false	e.issues	f.purpose	g.wealth	h.duration
14.overall	a.general	b.special	c.comprehensive	d.best	e.component	f.action	g.responsibility	h.goal
15.surplus	a.valuable	b.problematic	c.strong	d.extra	e.sorrow	f.supplies	g.food	h.revenues
16.appealing	a.prevalent	b.likeable	c.attractive	d.pleasing	e.city	f.conflict	g.prominence	h.objection
17.organic	a.living	b.advanced	c.inspired	d.colorful	e.compound	f.farm	g.matter	h.requirement
18.vivid	a.bright	b.intense	c.intelligent	d.visual	e.description	f.exception	g.reception	h.coloring
19.leading	a.foremost	b.principal	c.developed	d.competitive	e.scientist	f.society	g.work	h.producer
20.daring	a.brave	b.bold	c.late	d.upsetting	e.feat	f.escape	g.problem	h.sleep

Items	Column A				Column B			
21.celebrated	a.renowned	b.festive	c.well-known	d.famous	e.persuasion	f.recognition	g.understanding	h.play
22.fine	a.excellent	b.average	c.constant	d.natural	e.day	f.athlete	g.removal	h.china
23.powerful	a.potent	b.definite	c.influential	d.supportive	e.position	f.engine	g.repetition	h.price
24.conventional	a.traditinal	b.practical	c.neat	d.expensive	e.clothing	f.warfare	g.methods	h.awkwardness
25.deceptive	a.wishful	b.misleading	c.polite	d.dramatic	e.inspiration	f.argument	g.intent	h.appearance
26.crude	a.sympathetic	b.unprocessed	c.unrefined	d.rude	e.respect	f.value	g.detail	h.oil
27.brief	a.short	b.fleeting	c.quick	d.clear	e.help	f.summer	g.tool	h.approach
28.fake	a.fabulous	b.imitation	c.splendid	d.counterfeit	e.fur	f.experience	g.attraction	h.identity
29.remote	a.mental	b.distant	c.reasonable	d.far	e.location	f.knowledge	g.package	h.era
30.essential	a.vital	b.necessary	c.sensible	d.critical	e.loss	f.nutrients	g.outlook	h.luxury
31.adjacent	a.nearby	b.private	c.adjoining	d.genuine	e.property	f.suburbs	g.plans	h.silence
32.avid	a.sarcastic	b.enthusiastic	c.eager	d.reckless	e.report	f.eater	g.reader	h.request
33.elaborate	a.concealed	b.evolved	c.intricate	d.generous	e.void	f.precautions	g.system	h.network
34.terse	a.heated	b.concise	c.delicate	d.abrupt	e.attitude	f.reply	g.expectation	h.style
35.contaminated	a.rejected	b.infected	c.unclean	d.convenient	e.willingness	f.news	g.site	h.needle
36.prolonged	a.lengthened	b.extended	c.continued	d.boring	e.willingness	f.road	g.space	h.illness
37.irrevocable	a.unalterable	b.irreversible	c.unchangeable	d.impossible	e.pretense	f.quantity	g.nonsense	h.step
38.perceptible	a.present	b.surprising	c.visible	d.initial	e.motion	f.personality	g.star	h.flaw
39.perpetual	a.permanent	b.unbelievable	c.everlasting	d.continual	e.level	f.cold	g.book	h.foresight
40.recurring	a.recent	b.repeated	c.respectable	d.resolute	e.dream	f.nation	g.complaint	h.theme

APPENDIX B   INTRINSIC & EXTRINSIC Motivation QUESTIONNAIRE

زبان آموز عزیز
سؤالات زیر مربوط به دلایل شما برای یادگیری زبان انگلیسی است لطفاً پس از تکمیل ویژگی
های فردی به سؤالات پاسخ دهید. به یاد داشته باشید که جواب های شما به شکل صحیح یا
غلط ارزیابی نمی شود. بنابراین با دقت به سؤال ها جواب دهید. در جواب هایتان به هر
سؤال تنها یکی از گزینه ها را انتخاب کنید و علامت بزنید. پیشاپیش از همکاری شما
سپاسگزاری می کنیم.
نام و نام خانوادگی
جنس :   زن   مرد   سن :
تحصیلات پدر : بی سواد   زیر دیپلم   دیپلم   فوق دیپلم
لیسانس   فوق لیسانس و بالاتر
تحصیلات مادر : بی سواد   زیر دیپلم   دیپلم   فوق دیپلم
لیسانس   فوق لیسانس و بالاتر
وضعیت شغلی مادر :   خانه دار   شاغل

کاملاً مخالفم	مخالفم	نظری ندارم	موافقم	کاملاً موافقم	سؤالات	
					انگلیسی را بیشتر از سایر درس ها دوست دارم.	1
					دوست دارم تمرین بیشتری در درس انگلیسی داشته باشم.	2
					اگر جهانگردی را در خیابان ببینم دوست دارم با او انگلیسی صحبت کنم.	3
					دوست دارم بیشتر انگلیسی صحبت کنم.	4
					هنگام مطالعه انگلیسی سخت می کوشم.	5
					تا آن اندازه تکالیفم را ادامه می دهم که آن را خوب بفهمم.	6
					دروس انگلیسی را بیشتر از سایر درس ها مطالعه می کنم.	7
					اگر میزگردی در رادیو به زبان انگلیسی پخش شود می کوشم تا آن را بفهمم.	8
					یادگیری زبان انگلیسی برایم مهم است زیرا می خواهم شغل خوبی پیدا کنم.	9
					اگر یک زبان خارجی بدانم مردم مرا مهمتر می پندارند.	10
					یادگیری زبان خارجی سبب می شود که باسوادتر بشوم.	11
					دوست دارم زبان انگلیسی را یاد بگیرم زیرا می خواهم آن را تدریس کنم.	12
					یادگیری زبان انگلیسی برایم مهم است زیرا از این راه می توان با افراد انگلیسی زبان تماس برقرار کنم.	13
					دوست دارم انگلیسی یاد بگیرم زیرا می خواهم همانند یک انگلیسی زبان باشم.	14
					انگلیسی را برای پیوستن به انگلیسی زبان ها یاد می گیرم.	15
					انگلیسی را برای آشنایی با فرهنگ انگلیسی یاد می گیرم.	16
					دوست دارم زبان انگلیسی را بطور کامل یاد بگیرم.	17
					در مورد زبان انگلیسی کنجکاو هستم.	18
					یادگیری زبان انگلیسی را حتی اگر اجباری نباشد انتخاب خواهم کرد.	19
					احساس می کنم یادگیری یک زبان خارجی به راستی مرا یاری می دهد تا خود خویشتن خود را گسترش دهم.	20

APPENDIX C.   INSTRUMENTAL & INTEGRATIVE Motivation QUESTIONNAIRE

سؤالات زیر مربوط به دلایل شما برای یادگیری زبان انگلیسی است لطفاً پس از تکمیل ویژگی های فردی به سؤالات پاسخ دهید. به یاد داشته باشید که جواب های شما به شکل صحیح یا غلط ارزیابی نمی شود. بنابراین با دقت به سؤال ها جواب دهید. در جواب هایتان به هر سؤال تنها یکی از گزینه ها را انتخاب کنید و علامت بزنید. پیشاپیش از همکاری شما سپاسگزاری می کنیم.

نام و نام خانوادگی

جنس :   زن   مرد

تحصیلات پدر : بی سواد   زیر دیپلم   دیپلم   فوق دیپلم   سن :

لیسانس   فوق لیسانس و بالاتر

تحصیلات مادر : بی سواد   زیر دیپلم   دیپلم   فوق دیپلم

لیسانس   فوق لیسانس و بالاتر

وضعیت شغلی مادر :   خانه دار   شاغل

کاملاً مخالفم	مخالفم	نظری ندارم	موافقم	کاملاً موافقم	سؤالات	
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم به دلیل آنکه فکر می کنم این انتظار از من می رود.	1
					صادقانه بگویم، من نمی دانم چرا زبان انگلیسی مطالعه می کنم. من حقیقتاً تصور می کنم که مطالعه زبان انگلیسی اتلاف وقت است.	2
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم به دلیل آنکه زمانی که به یک مفهوم مشکل در این زبان دست می یابم احساس لذت می کنم.	3
					نمی دانم چرا زبان انگلیسی مطالعه می کنم. من نمی توانم آنچه را که در هنگام مطالعه این زبان انجام می دهم بفهمم.	4
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم به دلیل احساس خوشایندی که از شنیدن انگلیسی بوسیله افرادی که زبان مادریشان انگلیسی است به من دست می دهد.	5
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم تا بتوانم به خودم نشان دهم که یک شهروند خوب هستم چرا که می توانم به زبان انگلیسی صحبت کنم.	6
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم تا در آینده به منزلت شغلی بالاتری دست یابم.	7
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم چون اگر این زبان را ندانم احساس شرمساری می کنم.	8
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم به دلیل آنکه تمایل دارم فردی باشم که می تواند با این زبان صحبت کند.	9
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم به دلیل آنکه فکر می کنم برای رشد فردی من خوب است.	10
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم به دلیل آنکه اگر نتوانم با دوستانی که زبان مادری آنها انگلیسی است صحبت کنم، احساس شرمندگی می کنم.	11
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم چون از اینکه درباره ادبیات انگلیسی آگاهی بیشتری به دست آورم، احساس خوشایندی را تجربه می کنم.	12
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم به دلیل آنکه تمایل دارم شخصی باشم که می تواند با بیش از یک زبان صحبت کند.	13
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم چون از اینکه درباره افراد انگلیسی زبان و روش زندگی شان آگاهی پیدا کنم لذت می برم.	14
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم چون وقتی که خودم را در این زبان پیشرفته می بینم لذت می برم.	15
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم به دلیل آنکه احساس رضایتی که از یافتن چیزهای جدید به دست می آورم.	16
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم تا در آینده حقوق بیشتری دریافت کنم.	17
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم به دلیل آنکه احساس خوبی که زمان صحبت کردن با این زبان تجربه می کنم.	18
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم به دلیل آنکه احساس خوبی که درزمان شنیدن زبان انگلیسی تجربه می کنم.	19
					من نمی توانم بفهمم که چرا زبان انگلیسی مطالعه می کنم. بی پرده بگویم به مفت هم نمی ارزد.	20
					من زبان انگلیسی را فرا می گیرم به دلیل آنکه زمانی که در حال انجام تمرینهای مشکل این زبان هستم احساس رضایت می کنم.	21

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A Contrastive Analysis of Thematic Progression Patterns of English and Chinese Consecutive Interpretation Texts

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Abstract—As a grammatical device, Theme-Rheme structure plays an important role in organizing and analyzing discourse. Theme Progression patterns (hereinafter called TP patterns) are significant method of the analysis of textual cohesion and organization. Based on linguist Danes' theory about TP patterns, this paper tries to present a contrastive analysis of the texts of consecutive interpretation in English and Chinese from the perspective of TP patterns, then the TP patterns in it will be analyzed and concluded.

Index Terms—consecutive interpretation, discourse, Theme-Rheme structure, TP patterns

I. INTRODUCTION

It is linguist Frantisek Danes who puts forward the concepts of TP patterns for the first time. He states that the organization of information in texts is determined by the progression in the sequence of utterance of themes and their corresponding rhemes, and this progression between the successive themes and rhemes can be defined as TP (Danes, 1974). He focuses on the "the choice and ordering of utterance themes, their mutual concatenation and hierarchy, as well as their relationship to the hyperthemes of the superior text units (such as paragraph, chapter), to the whole of text, and to the situation." (Danes, 1974, p.114) He defines this kind of complicated thematic relationship as TP patterns.

Some famous linguists, such as Mathesius and Halliday, etc. hold the view that the Theme-Rheme structure is an important method of discourse organization. According to communicative function, a complete sentence can be divided into Theme and Rheme. Halliday defines the Theme as the beginning or starting point of the sentence, first element of sentence. Rheme is defined as the remainder, main content of the sentence, statement and description of Theme. This division not only helps in exploration and demonstration of the formation characteristics of discourse but also helps to get a good knowledge of how author establishes topic framework and develops text. Halliday (1985) points out that functional grammar aims at serving as a tool of discourse analysis. In practice of translation, texts are often regarded as basic units of translating by translator (Si, 2001). In the course of consecutive interpretation, source language is naturally divided into short discourses, and textual meaning is naturally displayed in utterances of source language and version of target language. Therefore, it is feasible to apply functional grammar to analyze the texts of consecutive interpretation. Even though experts and scholars from home and abroad have been doing extensive and intensive research in TP patterns, yet applied research is hardly done in the translation of consecutive interpretation texts and interpretation. As a result, it is meaningful to do research in this. Relying on systemic-functional grammar, this paper presents a contrastive analysis of the texts of consecutive interpretation in English and Chinese from the perspective of TP patterns. Then the similarities and differences of TP patterns in it are analyzed, thereby it can be taken as the guidelines for practice.

II. THEORETICAL OVERVIEW OF TP PATTERNS

In 1969, Frantisek Danes proposes the concept of Theme Progression for the first time. On the basis of a wide and deep research in massive languages data, he formulates three major patterns of TP: simple linear progression, constant progression, derived hyperthematic progression. As an effective way of organizing texts, since the theories of TP patterns are brought forward, some domestic and overseas linguists have deep discussions about the theory of TP patterns, others put forth their own TP patterns. Van Dijk comes up with two TP patterns: Parallel structure and Chain structure (Huang, 1988). Xu (1982) puts forward four models of TP patterns: the Parallel pattern, the Continuous pattern, the Concentrated pattern and the Crossing pattern. Zhu (1995) also offers four patterns: the same Theme, the same Rheme, Continuous model and Alternative model. Then, Huang (1985), based on Danes' and Xu's TP patterns, provides seven patterns, which is the most comprehensive up to date: the Parallel, the Continuous, the Concentrated, the Alternative, the Coordinate, the Derivative and the Irregular. Hu (1994), after the analysis of discourse characteristics in English and Chinese, draws the conclusion that there should be three basic models. The first model is to repeat the previous Theme. That is, the Theme in the first sentence continues to be the Theme of the second sentence. The second model is to develop a new Theme from some content of the previous Rheme. The third is to develop a new Theme from

the combination of the previous Theme and Rheme. Referring to various viewpoints of TP patterns, which is considered as theoretic framework, author presents a contrastive analysis of TP patterns of the texts of consecutive interpretation in English and Chinese.

III.   CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF TP PATTERNS OF TEXTS OF CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETATION IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE

To discuss characteristics of English and Chinese consecutive interpretation texts, author chooses some texts of consecutive interpretation (in English and Chinese) from wen premier press conference from 2008 to 2010. After analysis of related language data, three main basic TP patterns are found. They are the same Theme model, the same Rheme model, Continuous model.

A.   The Same Theme Model

This (also called Parallel TP pattern) is a pattern in which all sentences have the same Theme but different Rhemes. Those different Rhemes elucidate the Theme from various perspectives. That is to say, the theme of the first clause is taken as the themes of other ensuing clauses. Specifically, all clauses describe the theme from various perspectives.

Its expression, as follows:

T1 → R1

T2 (=T1) → R2

…

Tn (=Tn-1)→ Rn (n>1) (T refers to Theme, R refers to Rheme, Number "n" refers to number of layers. The same below)

Example One

Source Language:

The previous government (T1) encountered two sudden disasters about which the Chinese all over the world were deeply concerned (R1). Five years ago, you (T2), as the newly elected premier, led the fight against the SARS epidemic (R2). People (T3) still want to know what was on your mind at the time (R3). Five years later, when the disaster of sleet and snowstorms hit Southern China, people (T4 = T3) once again saw you at the forefront of the fight against the disaster (R4). What (T5) was on your mind this time (R5)? What kind of challenges (T6) do you expect in the next five years (R6)?

Target Language:

Shang jie zheng fu (T1) ceng jing yu dao liang ci ling quan qiu hua ren wei zhi qian gua de tu f axing zai hai (R1). 5 nian qian, xin ren zong li de nin (T2) jing li le fei dian (R2), ren men (T3) hai bu zhi dao nin dang shi de xin lu li cheng (R3). 5 nian zhi hou, tu ru qi lai de nan fang bing xue zai hai, ren men (T4=T3) you kan dao nin ben zou zai kang ji xue zai de qian xian (R4), zhe chang zai hai (T5) rang nin gan shou dao le shen me (R5)? wei lai 5 nian nin (T6) jiang hai hui mian lin shen me yang de tiao zhan (R6)?
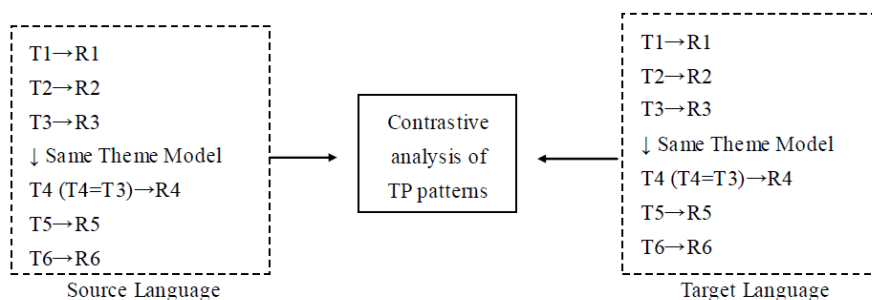
Figure 1.   Note contrastive analysis of the same theme model

B.   The Same Rheme Model

This (also called Concentrated TP pattern) is a pattern which has always the same Rheme but different Themes for all sentences. In this model, all sentences have the identical Rheme. Different starting of sentences concentrated on the same situation or condition.

Its illustration, as follows:

T1 → R1

T2 → R2 (=R1)

…

Tn → Rn (=Rn-1) (n>1)

Example Two

Source Language:

We (T1) have noted (R1) that in your Report on the Work of the Government you (T2) indicated (R2 = R1) that the central government (T3) will go all out to support and consolidate HK's status as international financial centre (R3). The

central government (T4 = T3) will also go all out to support the diversified development at a proper level by Macao (R4). At the end of last year, the central government (T5 = T3) also approved the reform and development plan (R5) for the peal river delta area. HK and Macao (T6) have a lot of expectations of this plan (R6 = R5). As you just said that the international financial crisis (T7) is still spreading (R7) and it (T8 = T7) has yet to hit the bottom (R8).

Target Language:

wo men (T1) zhu yi dao (R1), zai nin de zheng fu gong zuo bao gao li ti dao zhong yang hui quan li (T2) zhi chi gong gu xiang gang guo ji jin rong zhong xin de di wei (R2=R1), tong shi ye hui (T3) cu jin ao men jing ji shi du duo yuan fa zhan (R3). wo men (T4) ye zhu yi dao (R4), zai qu nian nian di de shi hou, zhong yang zheng fu (T5=T3) ye tui chu le zhu san jiao gai ge fa zhan gui hua gang yao (R5), gang ao ge jie (T6) dui zhong yang de zhe xie ju cuo dou you hen da de qi dai (R6). tong shi wo men (T7) ye kan dao (R7), zheng ru nin suo shuo de, zhe chang jin rong wei ji (T8) hai zai man yan (R8), hai (T9) mei you jian dao di (R9).
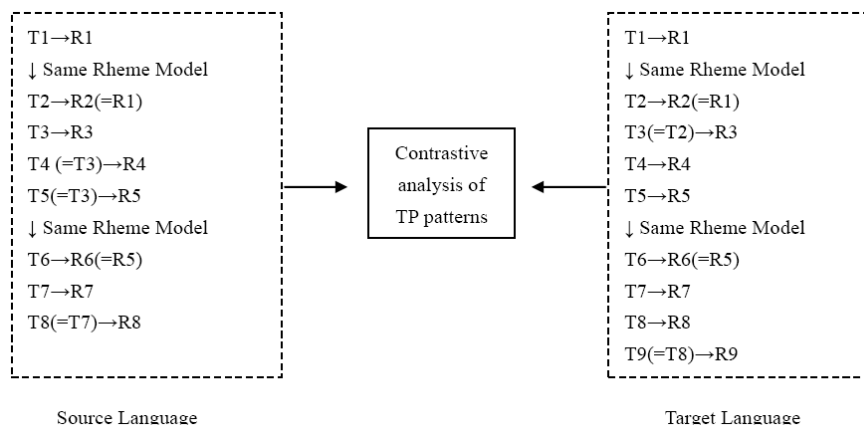
Figure 2.   Note contrastive analysis of the same rheme model

C. Continuous Model

This is a pattern in which the Rheme of the previous sentence becomes the Theme of the next sentence which works with a new Rheme. The new Rheme serves as the Theme of the next new sentence. The model continues on and on and is expounded in the following example.

It is expressed as follows:

$$T1 \rightarrow R1$$
$$\downarrow$$
$$T2 \,(= R1) \rightarrow R2$$
$$\ldots$$
$$Tn \,(Rn\text{-}1) = Rn$$

Example Three

Source Language:

According to media reports, some American officials and analysts (T1) say (R1) that the Chinese delegation (T2), the representatives at Copenhagen, the Climate Change Summit in December, were perceived as arrogant (R2=R1), and that you, Mr. Premier (T3), your decision not to attend the key meeting there even though other heads of state, including President Barack Obama, were in attendance at the meeting was a reason for disappointment and surprise by some of the other participants (R3). What (T4) is your response to this (R4) and how (T5) did the proceedings in Copenhagen look from your perspective (R5)?

Target Language:

you mei guo de guan yuan, hai you fen xi jia yi ji mei ti (T1) ren wei (R1), zai qu nian 12 yue ju xing de ge ben ha gen qi hou da hui shang, zhong guo dai biao tuan (T2) biao xian ao man (R2=R1), wen jia bao zong li nin ben ren (T3=R2) shen zhi ju jue can jia yi ge bao kuo mei guo zong tong ao ba ma zai nei de ruo gan guo jia yuan shou huo shou nao can jia de zhong yao hui yi (R3), zhe (T4) ling yu hui ge fang gan dao shi wang he chi jing (R4). nin (T5) dui ci zuo he hui ying (R5)? nin (T6) ru he kan dai ge ben ha gen jin cheng (R6)?
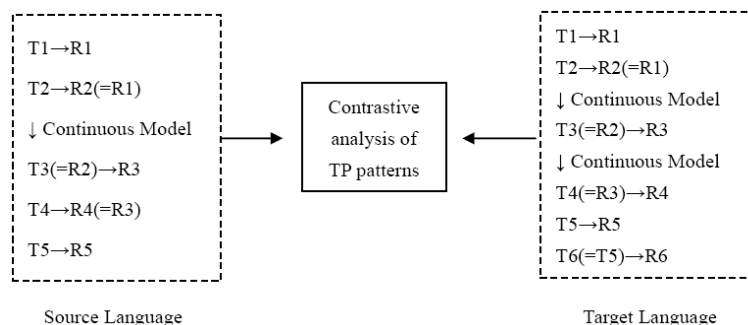
Figure 3.   Note contrastive analysis of continuous model

IV.   RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Based on previous contrastive analysis, we draw the conclusion: First, discourse of source language for the most part coincides with that of target language in TP patterns. TP patterns of most source language texts are kept by translator during consecutive interpretation. Although in rare cases some changes are made, generally translators organize information and short sentences according to TP patterns of source language texts. Second, discourse of source language differs from that of target language because of many reasons. As follows: a. Target language texts are more than source language texts in TP patterns. The reason is that long sentences and grammatical structure in English are dealt by way of breaking up the whole into parts in practice of interpretation. b. source language texts from government press conference. Under formal context, source language texts habitually use long sentences and complex short sentences. Therefore, this adds occurrence of particular long sentences and structure, which results in the difference of TP patterns between source language texts and target language texts. c. English is far from Chinese in language feature. Chinese is often referred as topic-prominent language, whereas English is subject-prominent language. Therefore, theme may be different from rheme in description of same information in English and Chinese. d. Influence from particular translation form of consecutive interpretation and personal abilities of translators. During consecutive interpretation, translators often use short sentences to reduce pressure of information memory because they have no enough time to analyze and organize language and seldom make changes on texts-translated. In addition, personal style and performance of translators also may lead to the difference between discourse of source language and that of target language in TP patterns.

V.   CONCLUSION

Some main TP patterns are concluded in this paper by analysis of the texts of consecutive interpretation in English and Chinese from government press conference. At the same time, author points out two viewpoints: For one thing, discourse of source language for the most part coincides with that of target language in TP patterns. For another, discourse of source language may differ from that of target language with the occurrence of complex structures, such as long adverbial clauses, attributive clauses, appositive clauses, etc. Based on above analysis and discussions, some helpful inspirations perhaps come to us. That is to say, in most cases, translators may interpret according to TP patterns of source language texts. With the occurrence of complex structures, such as long adverbial clauses, attributive clauses, appositive clauses, etc. translators should try to abandon previous information form, and make proper changes. Raising awareness of TP patterns may help translators complete interpreting jobs more effectively. Besides, it is instructive for English teaching practice in interpretation.

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Analysing of EFL Learners' Linguistic Errors: Evidence from Iranian Translation Trainees

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Abstract—This paper aims to investigate the Linguistic errors of Iranian translation trainees. The question this study tries to answer is what the most frequent linguistic errors of English translation students are. To answer this question 50 junior students of translation training programme from the Islamic Azad University of Lahijan participated in the experiment. They were selected randomly from among 80 students who participated in an OPT general proficiency test. They were given 20 Persian sentences. The sentences were simple, declarative, affirmative and active. For the analysis of errors "Corder's" taxonomy was used. The analysis indicated that the errors resulting from wrong selection of words, permutation and errors of incorrect use of tenses were the most frequent errors respectively.

Index Terms—translator training, directionality, errors, error analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

During the years of experience, I have encountered many cases in which a number of students fail to present an acceptable translation of Persian sentences into English; moreover, these errors may be revealed in writing and even speaking of the learners. Therefore the linguistic errors found in this present study may help teachers and material designers choose an appropriate pedagogical method. It needs to be stressed here that this study seeks more to aid teachers of translation rather than professional translators, because obviously there are many discussions and view points about errors of translation and linguistic errors are only a portion of this sort. This research aims to study both global and local errors.

According to Burt and kiparsky (1974) a global error is one which involves the overall structure of a sentence like misuse of prepositions and a local error is one which affects a particular constituent such as omission of prepositions (P.73). Global and local errors which have been. considered in this research are omission and addition of definite and indefinite articles, omission and addition of plural "S", omission, addition and wrong selection of prepositions, omission of possessive "'S", third singular person "S", "Copula" and auxiliary verbs, wrong selection of "words", "parts of speech" and tenses and "misordering of elements". Corder's taxonomy has been used in this study. According to this taxonomy, both global and local errors can be classified. Errors in Corder's taxonomy (1973) have been classified according to their processes; i.e. ways in which errors are made or committed by language learners. There are four main processes in Corder's taxonomy: Omission (omission of some required element), Addition (addition of some unnecessary or incorrect element), Substitution (selection of an in correct element), and Permutation (misordering of elements)

A. Translator Training and Directionality

Translator training has undergone considerable changes since the beginning of the nineties, attempting to bridge the gap between the academic and professional worlds of translating. Scholars on translation teaching seem to agree that there is a difference between translation in foreign- language teaching and translation for professional purposes.

According to Menck (1991), translation in foreign- language teaching is a means to an end e.g. to facilitate the understanding of a text or test certain capabilities (i.e. grammar, vocabulary) in foreign language. In foreign- language teaching translation is therefore used to achieve purely the second language relevant. In contrast, translation for professional purposes is an end in itself.

It is a skill acquired on the basis of first and second language proficiency (Nord, 1991, P.140). Thus, professional translator should have sufficient knowledge in both languages.

According to linguistic knowledge of many English translating students (that they don't have adequate linguistic knowledge either in English or even in Persian) and also time limitation there is in the translation training programme we can not seek for professional purposes, whereas in most of Iran universities Language teaching is accompanied by translation instruction, and in fact translation is an instrument for language learning.

"Directionality" is another subject in translation which should be considered. According to Mahmoodzadeh (2003), in translation, directionality takes translator work into consideration, in other words, it defines whether translator translates from foreign language to native language or vice versa.

At this point, it should be mentioned translation into the second language is rather controversial and frowned by many translation scholars and teachers. This is based on the assumption that most translators learned their mother tongue first and one or more foreign languages at a later stage. As a result, they are more confident comfortable and thus more efficient in their mother tongue. They are what Wilss (1982) calls compound bilinguals. In contrast, coordinate bilinguals have grown up or spent the better part of their childhood in a bilingual environment and are thus equally competent in both languages. It is therefore a widely held belief that only coordinate bilinguals should translate into a foreign language (P.59).

Unfortunately we have to say majority of the students believe that in translation, the native language is the target language. Even most of the teachers do not favourable opinion about translating from native language.

For example Mirza Ibrahim Tehrani (2003) believes that enforcing students to translate in foreign language does not contain only time and energy consuming, for the students do not have skills and knowledge about foreign language and in their translating make mistakes they had never been committed in their native language. She also eagers to omit translating to foreign language from translation training programme.

However it should be mentioned that the above attitude is contrary to translation practice since more than half of the work produced by translators is into the foreign language (Pym, 1992, P.36).

As a matter of fact for translating, constantly it is not possible to consider foreign language as source Language and native language as target language (Mahmood zadeh, 2003, P.44). For extra exercising and acquiring necessary skills it is better in translation classes students practice translating into the foreign language too.

Furthermore translations of this sort reveal the linguistic ability of language learners. As mentioned in introduction, most of these errors may be appeared in writing or speaking of foreign language learners. Thus, for students with poor language abilities translating becomes an instrument for foreign language learning (Nord, 1997, P.78).

B. Errors and Error Analysis

Before the 1960, when the behaviouristic view point of language was the dominant one, learner errors were considered as something undesirable.

With the appearance of the concept of "Universal Grammar" proposed by "Chomsky" (1957) and his rationalistic claim that human beings have innate capacity which can guide them through a vast number of sentence generation possibilities , cognitive approach instead of behaviouristic viewpoint was emphasized by many scholars. The largest contribution of this new linguistic theory of "Chomsky" is the interest it raised from researchers into learners' errors , as a means of hypothesis formation. Accordingly, a more favourable attitude has developed for error analysis during the 1970 s and 1980 s. Toury (1995) mentions that Corder in 1967 was the first to advocate the importance of errors in the language learning process. He suggested that by classifying the errors that learners made, researchers can learn a great deal about the processes and strategies that language learners are used. Corder also believed that errors are systematic and reflect a defect in knowledge; i.e. linguistic competence (P.83). Regarding translation errors, there are different viewpoints. Errors in translation influence the quality of the final product and the degree of miscomprehension from the reader. Accordingly, translation errors are often judged based on their importance and frequency. According to Nord (1997), the most serious error in translation is pragmatic (P.78). Larose (1989) thinks that the textual level where the errors occur (superstructure, macro structure, microstructure) will decide the seriousness of the error, i.e. if the error occurs on a higher level of text, it is considered more serious (P.35). However Newmark (1988) simply divides most of the "mistakes" into two types: referential and linguistic. In his categorization, referential mistakes refer to all mistakes relation to facts or information in the real world. Linguistic mistakes, on the other hand, result from the translator's lack of proficiency in foreign language. Linguistic mistakes include words, collocations and idioms (P.189). In the case of second or foreign language learners, identifying translation error is harder, as translation errors may be mixed up with linguistic errors. When the translators are also language learners, the model of analyzing errors and translation assessment should be based on the learning model, which is a combination of training in linguistics at the same time on training in translation. Sager (1983) agrees that the most serious errors are those resulting from the incompetence in a second language (P.125). Wilss (1982) also describes a translation error as "an offence against a norm in a linguistic contact situation" (P.201).

Regarding linguistic errors in translation Nord (1997) believes that they are caused by inadequate translation when the focus is on language structures. They represent deviations from standard target language paradigms and usages. Nord continues that for students with poor language abilities, the focus should be on linguistic correctness rather than communicative or functional appropriateness (P.75).

II. METHOD

The purpose of this study is to show the most frequent linguistic translation errors of Iranian translation students. This research deals with some global and local errors which are classified according to Corder's taxonomy into four main categories: omission, addition, substitution and permutation.

A. Participants

The participants of the study were 50 students of translation training programme studying at the Islamic Azad University of Lahijan, IRAN.

They were selected randomly from among 80students who participated in an OPT (Oxford Placement Test) general proficiency test. Their scores were below the average (below 50). All of them had passed the course of principles and methods of translation.

B. Materials

Twenty Persian sentences which were simple (contain one full subject and predicate), declarative, affirmative and active, were given and asked to translate into English. The sentences were contextually rich enough; because these sentences contained linguistic items which were going to be studied in this research. The tenses used in this study were the simple present tense, the present progressive tense, the present perfect tense, the simple past tense, the past progressive tense, the past perfect tense and the simple future tense.

C. Procedures

For the analysis of students, translation errors, Corder's taxonomy of errors was taken into consideration, i.e omission, addition, substitution and permutation.

1. Errors of Omission
1.1. Omission of the definite article "the"
* He has increased his awareness of - world.
1.2. Omission of the indefinite article "alan"
* John's father is now running - factory in New York.
1.3. Omission of preposition
* The little boy usually walks - home to school.
1.4. Omission of plural "s"
*They have come by a couple of small horse -.
1.5. Omission of the third singular person "s"
*John respect - the old man as a father.
1.6. Omission of possessive ",s "
*The soldier - parents saw their son on TV.
1.7. Omission of possessive pronoun
* He was playing with - elder brother.
1.8. Omission of copula
* Some kinds of goods - very cheap in my country.
1.9. Omission of auxiliary verb
* The government - continued its struggle against inflation since 1999.
2. Errors of Addition
2.1. Addition of the definite article "the"
* The most of the families go to the parks on Fridays.
2.2. Addition of indefinite article "alan"
*The soldier's parents saw their son on a TV.
2.3. Addition of preposition
* We visited from Mashhad two years ago.
2.4. Addition of plural "s"
* In Iran participations of womans in social activities are remarkable.
3. Errors of Substitution
3.1. Wrong selection of words
* She had made many wrongs in spelling.
3.2. Wrong selection of parts of speech
* His parents spoke to him with a loudness voice.
3.3. Wrong selection of tenses
* Most of the families are going to the parks on Fridays.
3.4. Wrong selection of preposition
* The little boy usually walks from home until school.
4. Errors of Permutation
4.1. Wrong order of elements
* They about the war a bad news received.

III. FINDINGS

The results of the translation's analysis along with a report on their frequencies have been illustrated as follows:

TABLE 1.
NUMBER OF ERRORS OF OMISSION AND THEIR FREQUENCIES

Errors of omission	Number of correct responses	Number of wrong responses	Frequency of correct responses	Frequency of wrong responses
Omission of the definite article " the "	377	50	68.54	27.28
Omission of the indefinite article "a/an"	82	57	41	28.5
Omission of plural " s "	466	80	77.66	13.34
Omission of third singular person " s "	100	50	66.66	33.34
Omission of possessive " 's "	120	30	80	20
Omission of copula	140	10	93.34	6.66
Omission of auxiliary verbs	243	57	81	19
Omission of prepositions	991	85	82.59	7.08

TABLE 2.
NUMBER OF ERRORS OF ADDITION AND THEIR FREQUENCIES

Errors of addition	Number of correct responses	Number of wrong responses	Frequency of correct responses	Frequency of wrong responses
addition of the definite article " the "	377	23	68.54	4.18
addition of the indefinite article " a/an "	82	61	41	30.5
addition of prepositions	991	67	79.42	5.58
addition of plural " s "	466	54	77.66	9

TABLE 3.
NUMBER OF ERRORS OF SUBSTITUTION

Errors of substitution	Number of wrong responses
Wrong selection of Words	354
Wrong selection of parts of speech	48
Wrong selection of tenses	256
Wrong selection of prepositions	57

TABLE 4.
NUMBER OF ERRORS OF PERMUTATION

Errors of permutation	Number of wrong responses
Errors of misordering of elements	303

The tables show the errors resulted from the analysis of translations. According to these tables, wrong selection of words (substitution); misordering of elements (permutation) and incorrect use of tenses are the most frequent linguistic errors of the study.

However, regarding the errors of tenses, it should be mentioned that most of the students used:

a. The present progressive tense instead of the simple present tense (70%), e.g. Most of the families are going to the parks on Fridays.

b. The simple past tense instead of the past progressive tense (67%), e.g He usually played football with his elder brother.

c. The simple past tense instead of the present perfect tense (65%), e.g He increased his awareness of the world.

d. The simple past tense instead of the past perfect tense (63%), e.g They came by a couple of small horses.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of research demonstrated errors related to inaccurate selection of the words (substitution), misordering of elements (permutation), and the wrong selection of tenses (substitution) are the most frequent errors in translation of simple, declarative, affirmative and active Persian sentences. Concerning of incorrect selection of words, it is necessary to mention that most of the students do not have got sufficient knowledge about correct usage of words according to context. For example the students are not familiar to contextual differences of the set of vocabularies such as "clock and hour," "voice and sound", "mistake, wrong and error," "son and boy", "bigger and elder" and etc. The other error included in this research was wrong order of elements which can be said literal translation was the root cause of this kind of error, since the structure of Persian sentences had been exactly translated into English, like "they about the war a bad news received".

In this research, lack of students' knowledge about the use of tenses was quite obvious too, (mentioned in previous section). Another problem was errors related to prepositions (especially adding a preposition) that literal translation in many cases, was the root cause of this sort of errors too. For example "we visited from Mashhad two years ago".

Base on this research, lack of language knowledge is the primary problem of the students. Most of the students intend to compensate their linguistic deficiencies through reading of grammar books. But this solution is not certainly useful solution to remove their language problems.

In reading and comprehension, morphology or even translation classes it would be better to emphasize on learning vocabulary according to context. Even in grammar classes, if there is a possibility to compare with native language structures, for recognizing practical use of grammar structures, learners should compare them.

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A Study of Culture Teaching in College English Teaching

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Abstract—Language and culture are intertwined and language is an inseparable part of culture. Language, as the carrier of culture, is influenced and shaped by culture, it reflects culture and plays a very important role in it. Because of different cultural backgrounds, misunderstandings often arise among people who speak different languages even there are not any grammatical mistakes in their conversation, thus intercultural communication failure occurs. With the development of economic globalization, intercultural communication is greatly increasing. More and more foreign language educators have realized that we should attach more importance to culture in our foreign language teaching and a new term "culture teaching" is introduced. We should have correct attitudes towards language and culture, towards language teaching and culture teaching. At the same time, we should be fully aware that putting culture teaching in English teaching practice is still a challenging task and it still has a long way to go. Not only relevant scholars and experts but also common English language teachers should have a clear macroscopical grasp of culture teaching in order to cultivate students', especially non-English major students' intercultural communicative competence to catch up with the development of the world.

Index Terms—language, culture, language teaching, culture teaching, intercultural communicative

I. INTRODUCTION

Foreign language learning is comprised of several components, including grammatical competence, communicative competence, language proficiency, as well as a change in attitudes towards one's own or another culture. For scholars, cultural competence, that's the knowledge of the conventions, customs, beliefs, and systems of meaning of another country, is indisputably an integral part of foreign language learning, and many teachers have seen it as their goal to integrate the teaching of culture into the foreign language curriculum. At any rate, foreign language learning is foreign culture learning. As a matter of fact, culture has, even implicitly, been taught in the foreign language classroom from many aspects and for different reasons. What is debatable, though, is what is meant by the term "culture" and how culture is integrated into language learning and teaching.

In China the term "culture teaching" was first officially presented in the early 1990s, the concept of culture teaching is based theoretically on people's new cognitions of linguistic functions and the latest research production of the relationship between language and culture. While in practice, it resulted from the introduction and reference of the new teaching ideas and methodologies in the foreign countries, especially the former Soviet Union, America, British and Germany. In terms of the development of FLT in China, culture teaching is undoubtedly a great shock to our teaching idea, teaching conception, teaching content and teaching methodology from 1980s.

II. LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

With the development of global economy and the increasing communication among different countries and peoples, "culture" has become a hot topic. At the same time, the relationship between language and culture has been a focus of attention from a variety of disciplinary perspectives for many years. Linguists, anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists, and others have sought to understand whether and how cultural factors influence aspects of human behavior such as perception, cognition, language, and communication. Within language teaching, cultural factors have occasionally attracted the interest of both theoreticians and practitioners. Robert Lado was one of the first to suggest that cultural systems in the native culture could be compared with those in the target culture and serve as a source of transfer or interference in much the way other types of contrasting Linguistic systems do. Others have examined a range of different aspects of second language use that are subject to culturally based influences, including classroom interaction, roles of teachers and students, and teaching styles.

A. Definitions of Culture

It is fashionable these days to talk about culture. Culture has become an interdisciplinary word. Every discipline seems to have something to do with culture, such as culture and society, culture and economy, culture and politics, culture and nature, etc. Culture appears to be the most frequently seen or heard word in the modern times. But what's culture?

In Raymond Williams' (1983) opinion, culture is one of the two or three most complicated words in the English language. According to his analysis, this is so partly because of its intricate historical development in several European languages; and partly because it has now come to be used for important concepts in several distinct intellectual disciplines and in several distinct and incompatible systems of thought. Scholars, in various disciplines, such as linguists, anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists, all tried to define it from different aspects.

Culture is viewed as communication and all that people of a particular culture use to communicate, namely language, verbal and nonverbal, including a variety of forms: body movement, eye contact, time, space, smells, touching, and the use of the social situation.

Culture is viewed as a general concept, without reference to any specific culture. This view is prevalent in intercultural education and training and consists of culture-general components that apply to any and all cultures.

Culture is viewed in terms of intercultural communication, the capacity and ability to enter other cultures and communicate effectively and appropriately, establish and maintain relationships, and carry out tasks with people of these cultures.

We can see from the above that up till now, linguists, anthropologists and other experts have given many kinds of definitions about culture; each has its own focus in a particular aspect.

B.   Language and Language Learning

As we all know, it is language that distinguishes us from animals. Then what's language? Webster's New World dictionary offers several most frequently used senses of the word "language". To give the barest of definition, language is a means of verbal communication. As the main channel through which human beings make contact with each other, 1anguage is the most easily felt and seriously considered barrier for intercultural communicators. Students struggling with a different language are widely aware of the trouble brought about by the strange ways of expressing meanings: vocabulary, syntax, idioms, slang, dialects and so on. However, learning a language is one thing, and using it is another. We do not deny the importance of acquiring vocabulary and grammar but the application of one's knowledge of a language to specific situations is far more complicated than language learners expect. There is a kind of tenacity with which one will cling to just one meaning of a word or phrase in the new language, regardless of the connotation or context.

Learning a foreign language well means more than merely mastering the pronunciation, grammar, words and idioms. It means learning also to see the world as native speakers of that language see it, learning the ways in which their language reflects the ideas, customs, and behavior of their society, 1eaming to understand their "1anguage of the mind". Learning a language, in fact, is inseparable from learning its culture.

C.   Relationship between Language and Culture

It has become axiomatic to state that there exists a close relationship between language and culture. It has long been recognized that language is an important part of a given culture and that the impact of culture upon a given language is something intrinsic and indispensable. More evidence can be gathered to substantiate the close relationship between language and culture if we have a brief survey of what has happened in the field of linguistics over the past century.

Admittedly, ever since the beginning of the 18th century, the linguistic inquiry of language has been either comparative and historical or structural and formalized in nature, some change, however, was observed at the start of the 20th century: an anthropological orientation in the study of language was developed both in England and in North America. What characterized this new tradition was its study of language in a sociocultural context. While Bronislaw Malinowski and John P. Firth can be regarded as the pioneers of this movement in England, Franz Boas, Edward Sapir, and Benjamin Lee Whorf are naturally seen as the representatives of a parallel but independent tradition from North America.

Those anthropologists began to make substantial contributions to the study of the relationship between language and culture around the early 1920s.From the 1920s to the 1940s, when engaged in a demanding but significant task -- the reconstruction of American Native languages, they came to know the significance of culture in the study of language use. Their anthropological approach to the study of language and culture laid a firm foundation in the history of 1inguistic development.

With their innovation, commitment, and perseverance, a lot of important and creative work has been done in the research of the relationship between language and culture. More importantly, a paradigm was thus set up, which has led to a diversity of research of the issue in the following years.

III.   INFLUENCE OF CULTURE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING

A.   Existence of Cultural Differences

Cultural differences fall into different categories. As professor Deng Yanchang (1989) suggests, the differences

might be grouped according to four aspects: (1) a term in one language that does not have an equivalent in another language; (2) words or terms in both 1anguages that appear to refer to the same object or concept on the surface, but which actually refer to quite different things: (3) things or concepts that are represented by one or perhaps two terms in one language, but by many more terms in the other language, that is, finer distinctions exist in the other language; (4) terms that have more or less the same primary meaning, but which have secondary or additional meanings that may differ considerably from each other.

Besides, cultural differences also exist in idioms, proverbs, sayings, allusions, taboos, etc. And failures to observe them often result in breakdown in intercultural communication. Additionally, attention should also be given to nonverbal communication. Although we may not realize it, when we converse with others we communicate by much more than words. By our expressions, gestures and other body movements, we send messages to those around us. But not all body language means the same thing in different cultures. Different peoples have different ways of making nonverbal communication. Hence, cultural differences also exist in body language, such as physical contact and eye contact between Chinese and English native speakers.

B. Influences of Cultural Differences on English Language Learning

Intercultural communication occurs whenever people from different cultural backgrounds come into contact with each other. Because of cultural differences, misunderstandings and miscommunication may arise in spite of grammatically correct utterances. The same words or expressions may not mean the same thing to people from different cultures. A serious question may not cause seriousness, and a happy statement may cause unhappiness or anger because of cultural differences. Therefore, students have to master the knowledge of cultural differences so as to achieve appropriate intercultural communication and avoid pragmatic failures.

Thomas points out that interference in communication is generally referred to as pragmatic failure, which has nothing to do with grammatical mistakes but comes from inappropriate ways of speaking or the unconventional expressions resulting from different perceptions of what is considered as appropriate linguistic behavior. According to Thomas, pragmatic failure falls into two types: pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure.

Pragmalinguistic failure is the wrong use of the language itself, including incorrect use of English language and one's mother tongue. Here is an example:

A: Thanks a lot. That's a great help.

B: Never mind

The meaning, that B intends to express, is "Not at all" or "That's all Right". But influenced by the Chinese way of expressing in the same situation, he uses "Never mind", whose literal meaning is similar to the response to "thanks" in Chinese culture. However, the English expression "Never mind" is actually used as a response to the expressing of an apology of the other side.

Sociopragmatic failure results from different cultural norms and pragmatic principles that govern linguistic behaviors in different cultures. Sociopragmatic failure finds its way in many aspects of daily communication, such as ways of greeting and addressing people, ways of expressing modesty and apology, inquiring or offering, bidding farewell or making introduction, and views of value systems like privacy, etc. Sociopragmatic failures may directly lead to serious misunderstanding or even breakdown in intercultural communication.

From the example mentioned above, we can see that misunderstandings do exist in intercultural communication. Cultural differences between English and Chinese languages lead to different assumption of what constitute appropriate linguistic behaviors. The lack of knowledge about target cultural traits is the main cause of those pragmatic failures.

After the research, professor Hu Wenzhong (2002) draws a conclusion: An analysis of the students' "cultural mistakes" shows that some are obvious errors which can be put right fairly easily while those that have to do with values, beliefs and concepts require a great deal of work over a period of time. Whatever the case may be, the respondents' feedback has confirmed my belief that "cultural mistakes" are often worse than linguistic ones and tend to create ill feeling between native speakers and Chinese speakers of English.

C. Understanding of Cultural Differences

As mentioned above, examples of pragmatic failures and cultural mistakes can be found far and wide in intercultural communication, and some may be more serious. When learning English, we couldn't take no notice of the cultural difference between China and the west countries.

One major reason of the students' cultural mistakes is that whether our teaching or our teaching materials all attach importance to language forms instead of the social meanings of language or the application of language in authentic situations. For example, many texts contain the "dialogues" like this:

-- What's your name?

-- My name is Sun Li.

-- How old are you?

-- I'm eighteen.

-- Where are you from?

-- I am from Shanghai.

-- Where are you going?

-- I'm going to the library.

…

The dialogues above are made up by "Chinese ideas + English forms". Though the forms are correct, appropriateness is neglected. In fact, the English native Speakers' psychological response to such questions as Where do you come from? is Why do you ask? or even It's none of your business. Unfortunately, little attention is paid to the cultural and psychological differences in our teaching materials and students just imitate and use mechanically what they have learned regardless of all the explicit and implicit differences existing in the two languages and cultures.

So awareness of cultural differences and recognizing where cultural differences are at work is the first step toward understanding each other and establishing a positive working environment. In a word, we should be clearly aware of the influence of culture on our English language learning and attach importance to not only language teaching, but also culture teaching.

IV. CONTENT OF CULTURE TEACHING

Wang Zhenya divides intercultural communication into three forms by means of different media: verbal interaction, non-verbal interaction and extra-verbal interaction.

A. *Verbal Communication*

Since language is a means of verbal communication and we mainly depend on language to communicate with each other, verbal communication is also vitally important in intercultural communication. So in our culture teaching we should focus more on this important component. Three aspects of verbal communication will be covered here: words and idioms, grammar and discourse.

1. Words and Idioms

Words and idioms are the most culturally-loaded element in language. The material civilizations, social institutions and spiritual beliefs of a nation are firstly reflected in words and phrases and idioms. We should pay more attention to them when we introduce cultural knowledge to the students in class.

Idioms are fixed structures including set phrases, proverbs, sayings and slang. Idioms are gems of languages and reflect lives of people. Idioms are culture-specific. They carry cultural connotations and meanings and are associated with historical background, economic life, geographical surroundings, religions, customs, thought patterns and value orientations. Both Chinese and English have a huge amount of idioms, and most of them reflect the specific characteristics of Chinese culture and English culture. For example, attitudes towards dog are greatly different in Chinese and English. In Chinese dog is a kind of humble animal and idioms related to dog mostly have derogatory sense. While in the western countries, dog is regarded as the most loyal friend of human beings and most idioms concerning dog don't have derogatory sense. For example, you are a lucky dog. Every dog has his day. Love me, love my dog.

2. Grammar

Differences in sentence structures often give rise to certain difficulties in language learning, teaching, translation, and intercultural communication. Language gives structure to experience, and helps to determine our way of looking at things, so that it requires some intellectual effort to see them in any other ways than that which our language suggests to us. In different languages the ways in which language components are organized insentience might be different. The typical complex sentences in English look like trees with trunks, branches, twists and leaves at different levels. The branches are generally introduced by relative pronouns, non-infinite verbs, prepositions, subordinate conjunctions, etc, explicitly marking their subordinate status. In contrast, holistic thinking, which is to view an event as a whole, has been an important aspect of Chinese culture.

In addition, there are differences in word order between the two languages. In English items representing the smallest units or the individual parts precede those representing the bigger units or the whole. While in Chinese, it is just the opposite.

3. Discourse

The term "discourse" refers to any piece of spoken or written language, which expresses a complete meaning. Discourses, like words, phrases and sentences, are language units. There are also some cultural differences concerning the organization of discourses in different languages. The American scholar, Kaplan found that typical English writing style is like a straight line with topic sentences at the very beginning of each paragraph, followed by developing sentences and concluding sentences at last, or illustrative sentences at first, ending up with topic sentences. While the typical writing style of the students whose mother tongues are oriental languages including Chinese is like a helix, that's to say, they don't go directly to the theme of the discourse, but demonstrate it indirectly. The English native speakers are usually greatly puzzled by this type of writing.

In Kaplan' opinion, different modes of written discourses indicate different cultural thought patterns. Differences in writing English compositions arise from the negative transfer of students' native languages.

B. *Non-verbal Communication*

Although we place more emphasis on verbal communication, we can't take no notice of non-verbal communication.

A smile and an outstretched hand show welcome. A frown is a sign of displeasure. Nodding one's head means agreement—"Yes". But nonverbal behaviors are spontaneous, fleeting, and often beyond people's consciousness and control. Samovar and Porter say, "all human beings use nonverbal symbols to share their thoughts and feelings. Although the process of using our actions to communicate is universal, the meanings for those actions often shift from culture to culture. Hence, nonverbal communication becomes another element one must understand if one is going to interact with people from different cultures." If we cannot understand the non-verbal behaviors of native speakers, misunderstandings will appear. Now let's just look at some important aspects of non-verbal interaction.

1. Spatial Concept

The study of how human beings use space to communicate is called proxemics. Spatial concept concerns how people transmit information through body distance in communication. The way in which people use space is determined by their cultural orientation, age, social status and sex. An American may be upset when his private space is violated. While in China, since most of Chinese are brought up to share space with their brothers and sisters, people do not value privacy as important as the westerners. When they converse, they tend to stand closer than the westerners do. Therefore, when conversing with the English native speakers, the important thing we must keep in mind is that they do not like people to be too close. Being to far apart, of course, may be awkward, but being too close makes people uncomfortable.

2. Physical Contact

The appropriateness of physical contact varies with different cultures. In English speaking countries, physical contact is generally avoided in conversation among ordinary friends or acquaintances. Merely touching someone may cause an unpleasant reaction. If one touches another person accidentally, he/she usually makes an apology.

In China when we see babies or very small children, we often fondle them. The Chinese mothers can't become unhappy because of our behavior -- whether touching, patting, hugging of kissing their children. In their opinions, such gestures are merely signs if friendliness or affection. On the contrary, such actions in the English culture would be considered rude, intrusive, and offensive and could arouse a strong dislike and even repugnance.

3. Eye Contact

Eye contact is an important aspect of body language. One could draw up quite a list of "rules" about eye contact: to look or not to look; when to look and how long to look; who and who not to look at.

American custom demands that there should be eye contact in conversation with people who know each other. This applies to both the speaker and the listener. For either one not to look at the other person could imply a number of things, among which are fear, contempt, uneasiness, guilt, indifference. Even in public speaking there should be plenty of eye contact. But if a Chinese speaker is in the habit of doing, he would be regarded as inconsiderate and disrespectful.

In short, there are some other means of non-verbal communication, such as facial expression, posture, gesture, etc. Taking no notice of them is impossible. For example, gestures can be particularly troublesome, for a slight difference in making the gesture itself can mean something quite different from that intended. A wrong interpretation of a gesture can arouse quite unexpected reactions.

C. Extra-verbal Communication

Besides verbal and non-verbal communication, there exists another one, which we can refer to as extra-verbal communication. Extra-verbal communication is closely related to verbal and non-verbal communication and they are often intertwined together. Now it will be discussed from three aspects: communicative customs and etiquettes; social institutions and interpersonal relationships; and value orientations.

1. Communicative Customs and Etiquettes

Communicative customs and etiquettes refer to a set of rules or habits that all certain cultural members follow in their interactivities, including not only verbal actions, such as greetings and farewells; ways of address; compliments and praise, etc., but also complex communicative activities, such as visiting friends, giving someone a ring and shopping, etc. Here I'll mainly talk about visiting friends or being a guest, and giving somebody a present.

2. Social Institutions and Interpersonal Relationships

Interpersonal relationships involve familial relationship, relationship between friends and colleagues. Family is the most basic unit of our society and it is also a prevalent phenomenon of today's human culture. Nevertheless, in different countries and nations, the familial structures are not always the same. As Chinese, we all know that our Chinese people have a strong familial concept and the relationship between family members is very close. Though more and more young couples choose to live in their own houses, they will live with their parents after their babies are born or after their parents are old enough in order to look after each other. On the other hand, parents and children are greatly dependent on each other in terms of money.

3. Value Orientations

There are remarkable differences between the easterners' and the westerners' value orientations resulting from their respective traditional cultures. Chinese culture is known for its fine traditional standards of humility, comity, and sense of collective responsibility, etc.

In short, since culture is an extremely complex concept and an enormous subject, and it embraces almost everything in the world, whether material or spiritual, it's a challenging task for us to teach the target culture. What I mentioned above is just a part of the content of culture teaching and there are also some other aspects that we should pay attention

to in culture teaching. Of course, culture teaching can't be separated from language teaching and as English teachers, we should also adopt some practical techniques to teach culture.

V. TECHNIQUES OF CULTURE TEACHING

From the mid of 1960s, especially after 1970s, culture teaching scholars introduced a series of techniques of teaching culture in classroom. The most important ones are briefly as follows.

A. Comparative Method

It refers to the teacher introducing one or more items in the home and target culture before discussion class and then indicating the differences between them. In class the teacher and students discuss the possible problems in language communication resulting from the cultural differences.

B. Culture Aside

It refers to the introduction and discussion of culture during the teaching of language. For example, when involving the information about Thanksgiving Day during language teaching, the teacher can present the origin, ways of celebration and customs, etc. of Thanksgiving Day incidentally.

C. Culture Capsule

A culture capsule is a short description given by the teacher orally, usually one or two paragraphs in length, of one minimal difference, misunderstanding or conflict in intercultural communication, accompanied by illustrative photos, slides, or realia. Then a series of questions are given to be discussed in class. The technique can be used for independent study, in small groups, or within the full class.

D. Culture Island

Culture island refers to the placards, photographs, blackboard newspaper that are used to attract the students' attention and discussion of the target culture. At any rate, the foreign language classroom should become a "cultural island", where the accent will be on "cultural experience" rather than "cultural awareness". From the first day, teachers are expected to bring in the class posters, pictures, maps, and other realia in order to help students develop "a mental image" of the target culture.

E. Mini-drama

A mini-drama can be constructed from three to five episodes in which a cultural conflict or miscommunication occurs. As each episode is experienced, students attempt to explain what the source of the miscommunication is through class discussion, led by the teacher. After each episode in the series, more cultural information is given, but not enough to identify the precise cause of the problem, which becomes apparent only in the last scene. Seelye (1985) explains that function of this technique is to lead students to experiencing the vagueness of much intercultural communication due to differing assumptions in the two cultures about the connotation of words or about everyday events and practices. Students see how they might easily jump to false conclusion about the people in the target culture because they are reacting on the basis of their own ethnocentric biases and perceptions.

Of course, there are also some other techniques, such as culture clusters, culture pervasion, literature analysis, ethnographic techniques training, deriving cultural connotations, hypothesis refinement and artifact study, etc.

The techniques of teaching culture mentioned above have been proposed since the early 1970s and have been tried and tested by classroom teachers. Selection of instructional ideas from among these techniques should be guided by the level of cultural awareness and sophistication of the students, as well as by their level of linguistic proficiency, especially in the case of those activities that draw on textual materials.

VI. CONCLUSION

With the development of science and technology and the globalization of world economy, the communication between various cultures has become closer and more frequent. The intercultural communication has become one of the themes of modem society, which calls for the emergence of culture teaching. The teaching of culture should become an integral part of foreign language instruction. People from different cultures weave their lives into an international fabric that is beginning to fray at the edges by virtue of miscommunication and propaganda. In order to avoid this ignominious cultural and political disintegration, and foster empathy and understanding, teachers should "present students with a true picture or representation of another culture and language". And this will be achieved only if cultural awareness is viewed as something more than merely a compartmentalized subject within the foreign language curriculum; that is, when culture "inhabits" the classroom and undergirds every language activity. After all, culture teaching is vitally important, applicable, and challenging.

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Do C-Tests with Different Number of Gaps Measure the Same Construct?

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Abstract—**Constructing C-Tests with 20-25 blanks in each passage is the standard practice among C-Test users and researchers. The present study explores if C-Tests with different number of blanks measure the same construct as those with standard 25 gaps. Out of data from a four-passage C-Test with 40 blanks in each passage, two other datasets with 10 and 25 blanks in each passage were constructed. The three datasets were separately analysed with the Rasch model and the psychometric characteristics of the three test forms were compared. Results showed that the three forms have similar fit indices and are equally unidimensional. But C-Tests with more gaps turned out to be more reliable. Cross plotting students' ability measures from pairs of C-Test forms on x and y axes revealed that test-takers have identical ability measures regardless of the number of gaps in the C-Tests. This was interpreted as evidence of the invariance of the C-Test construct when the number of gaps in the passages is altered. Implications of the study for C-Test applications with an important word of caution are given.**

Index Terms—**C-Test, Rasch model, invariance, fit statistics**

I. INTRODUCTION

Raatz and Klein-Braley (2002) and Grotjahn (1987) in their guidelines for C-Test construction suggest four to six passages with 20-25 gaps in each passage. Almost all C-Test researchers and practitioners have followed this recommendation and have developed C-Tests which contain 20-25 gaps (Babaii&Shahri, 2010, Baghaei, 2007; Daller & Phelan, 2006; Koller & Zahn, 1996; Kontra & Kormos, 2006; Linnemann & Wilber, 2010; Norris, 2006; Traxel & Dresemann, 2010). The issue of the optimal number of gaps in C-Test passages has not received much attention in the literature. Among few researchers who have touched on the topic is Grotjahn (1987). He states that with small number of gaps we cannot measure macro text-level skills and argues that 25 or even 30 blanks are needed to measure these skills. Baghaei (2011) systematically monitored and compared the psychometric properties of C-Tests with different number of gaps. He compared eight C-Tests which contained 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, and 40 gaps in each passage and concluded that as the number of gaps in each passage increased the internal consistency reliability, item discrimination and factrorial validity increased accordingly.

Nevertheless, Baghaei's (2011) results indicated that the boost in reliability and factorial validity of the C-Tests after 15 gaps was very small.The findings showed that C-Tests which contained 10 and 15 gaps also enjoyed acceptable indices of discrimination and reliability and correlated as high as C-Tests which contained 30, 35 and 40 gaps with a reading comprehension tests which was used as anexternal criterion. The direct implication of these findings is that for low stakes and medium stakes tests where very precise measures are not required, practitioners can construct C-Tests with 10-15 blanks in each passage to save on administration and scoring time.

Research on optimal number of response categories in Likert-type items, which are extensively used in psychology, also shows that Likert scales which contain seven to nine points result in highest psychometric characteristics for psychological instruments and increasing the number of response categories above nine does not improve scale characteristics(Bendig 1954; Cicchetti, Showalter &Tyrer, 1985; Cox, 1980; Dolan, 1994; Ferrando, 2000;Finn, 1972; Hofmans, Theuns&Mairesse, 2007; Jenkings & Taber, 1977; Lozano, Garcia-Cueto& Muniz, 2008;McKelvie, 1978; Neumann, 1979; Nunnally, 1970; Preston & Colman, 2000; Ramsay, 1973; Weng, 2004). Since C-Tests are analysed like Likert scales by considering each passage as a super-item and entering the aggregated passage scores into analysis, 10-gap C-Tests produce psychometrically adequate results. But psychometric equivalence which is investigated by comparing internal consistency reliability and item discrimination does not guarantee construct invariance.

The important question which is raised here is whether C-Tests with different number of gaps measure the same construct. It is extremely important to ascertain that C-Tests which contain say 10 gaps measure the same construct as those which contain 25 gaps, before one embarks on using C-Tests with smaller number of gaps.The purpose of the present study is to empirically show that this is in fact the case.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

Participants of the study were 104 Iranian undergraduate students of English at two universities in Mashhad, Iran. There were 73 girls and 31 boys among them; mean age of the subjects was 21.6 with a standard deviation of 3.8.

B. Instrument

For the purposes of this study data from Baghaei (2011) were reanalyzed. A C-Test battery containing four passages each having 40 blanks was the instrument used in Baghaei (2011) and the present study. The internal consistency reliability of the C-Test considering each passage as a super-item was .91.

C. Procedures

Out of the dataset for the C-Test battery with 160 blanks two other datasets were constructed. In the first dataset the scores on the first 10 gaps in each passage were aggregated as if each passage had only 10 gaps to complete; this C-Test battery was named C-Test-10. In the second dataset the scores on the first 25 gaps were aggregated (C-Test-25) and in the third dataset the scores on all the 40 gaps were aggregated (C-Test-40). In this way data for three C-Test batteries with 10, 25 and 40 gaps in each passage were created.

D. Data Analysis

In order to investigate the construct invariance of C-Tests with 10, 25 and 40 blanks, Rasch rating scale model (Andrich, 1978) as implemented in WINSTPES (Linacre, 2009) was utilized. The three datasets were separately analysed with rating scale model by considering each passage as a polychotomous super-item. The difficulty estimates of the items (passages), their associated standard errors, and fit statistics were computed. Table 1 shows the results for the four items in each C-Test.

TABLE 1:
ITEM STATISTICS FOR C-TESTS WITH DIFFERENT NUMBER OF GAPS

Test	Measure				Standard Error				Infit MNSQ			
	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4
C-Test-10	.32	-.15	-.28	.11	.07	.07	.07	.07	.84	1.29	.77	1.06
C-Test-25	.29	.03	-.48	.16	.04	.04	.04	.04	1.09	1.17	1.02	.84
C-Test-40	.23	.04	-.29	.02	.03	.03	.03	.03	1.39	1.14	1.01	.82

Table 1 shows that the difficulty measures of the items only slightly change across the three forms. The greatest change is for Item 3 which has a change of .20 logits, from C-Test-10 to C-Test-25. These changes in item estimates are negligible although one should not expect stability of itemsin this case because the nature of C-Test items changes when more blanks are added to them. When 15 more blanks are added to a C-Test item the item is in fact a new item and expecting it to maintain it difficulty measure is unrealistic. The other point is that to compare the difficulties of items across forms the forms should be equated and a common origin should be set. The results show that even without equating the item estimates have remained invariant across forms. One reason for this is that the items share part of their content. It is worth mentioning that changes of less than .50 logits are considered negligible in the literature (Bond & Fox, 2007).

The fits of the items have also remained stable across the forms, except for item 1 which slightly over fits in C-Test-40, while it fits well in C-Test-10 and C-Test-25.The table indicates that as the number of gaps increases the standard errors of the item estimates decrease since there is more information in scales with more categories.

The statistics in Table 1 clearly indicate that C-Tests with different number of gaps are equally unidimensional and the C-Test construct has remained stable across the three forms. In other words, regardless of the number of gaps C-Tests measure the same construct.

TABLE 2:
SAMPLE STATISTICS FOR C-TESTS WITH DIFFERENT NUMBER OF GAPS (N=104)

Test	Error		Infit MNSQ		Outfit MNSQ		Measure	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
C-Test-10	.39	.11	.97	.74	.97	.73	.70	1.04
C-Test-25	.22	.03	.95	1.29	.94	1.29	.37	.79
C-Test-40	.16	.03	1	1.44	1	1.46	.34	.64

Table 2 shows summary statistics for the sample. C-Test-40 is the most precise test with the smallest average error. The mean of infit and outfit indices are very close across the three forms. The ideal value for infit and outfit mean square values is one but values in the range of .7 to 1.3 are acceptable (Linacre, 2009). Although the means of infit and outfit values are one in C-Test-40 their standard deviationsare larger in this form. Acceptable infit and outfit statistics for persons show that persons have behaved as expected and they are located on an interval scale which is independent of the distribution of items.

TABLE 3:
SEPARATION, RELIABILITY AND RMSE FOR PERSONS AND ITEMS IN C-TESTS WITH DIFFERENT NUMBER OF GAPS

Test	Separation		Reliability		RMSE	
	Persons	Items	Persons	Items	Persons	Items
C-Test-10	2.13	2.92	.82	.90	.44	.08
C-Test-25	2.94	6.51	.90	.98	.25	.04
C-Test-40	3.27	5.69	.91	.97	.19	.03

Table 3 reveals that person reliability and separation are highest in C-Test-40 although for items these indices are higher in C-Test-25. Root mean square error (RMSE) for persons and items has the smallest value for C-Test-40, meaning that as the number of gaps increases measurement becomes more precise.

E. Checking Person Measure Invariance

Under the Rasch model two tests measure the same construct if test-takers have the same ability estimates on them-after their estimates are brought onto the same scale. "The invariance of relative person ability … is good evidence to suggest that these tests [BLOT and PRTIII] can be used interchangeably. Invariance of person estimates and item estimates within the modeled expectations of measurement error over time, across measurement contexts, and so on, is a key Rasch strategy" (Bond & Fox, 2007, p. 88).

If two tests measure the same construct then persons' ability measures on the two tests should be equivalent within measurement error (Baghaei, 2009). In traditional correlational studies non-linear raw scores are used for this purpose. Cross-plotting the Rasch linear transformations of the non-linear raw scores which are in the form of person measures are more informative. These linear measures contain more information about the locations of individuals on the ability continuum and the precision of the locations, i.e. the extent to which the location is blurred. The precision of measures is embodied in the standard errors of the person parameter estimates.

If the measures from the two tests are identical, after plotting them on x and y axes the dots would exactly fall on a diagonal line with the slope of unity (45 °). This happens under ideal error-free conditions which is not achievable in practice. When cross-plotting traditional raw scores, dispersion of the points from the 45 ° diagonal line is considered as unmodeled variance (Bond & Fox, 2007). That is, we do not know how much of dispersion is tolerable under practical measurement conditions to sustain that the two scores are similar enough to consider the tests as measures of the same dimension. "Consequently, test development approaches based on the inspection of correlations generally are less than adequate" (Bond & Fox, 2001: 59).

In Rasch measurement, conversely, we have the standard errors of estimates which can be exploited to model the deviations of the points from the perfect diagonal line. On the basis of the standard errors of ability estimates from both test 95% quality control lines are drawn (cf. Baghaei, 2009/2010). If the dispersion of scores is within the modeled 95% quality control lines, the test-developer can argue that the two tests are measuring the same dimensions even if the correlation between the two tests is "disastrously" low (Masters & Beswick, 1986, cited from Bond & Fox, 2007, p.88). Therefore, if the deviations of scores from the 45 ° diagonal line are within modeled measurement error, which is indicated by the two parallel quality control lines, one can argue that the measures from the two tests are invariant enough to use them interchangeably.

Figure 1 shows the cross plot of person measures from C-Test-10 against C-Test-25. The plot shows that all the persons are clustered around the best fit line and no person falls outside the parallel quality control lines. In other words, whether we administer a C-Test battery with 10 gaps in each passage or 25 gaps in each passage, test-takers will have the same ability estimates. The coefficient of correlation between measures from the two tests is .94.
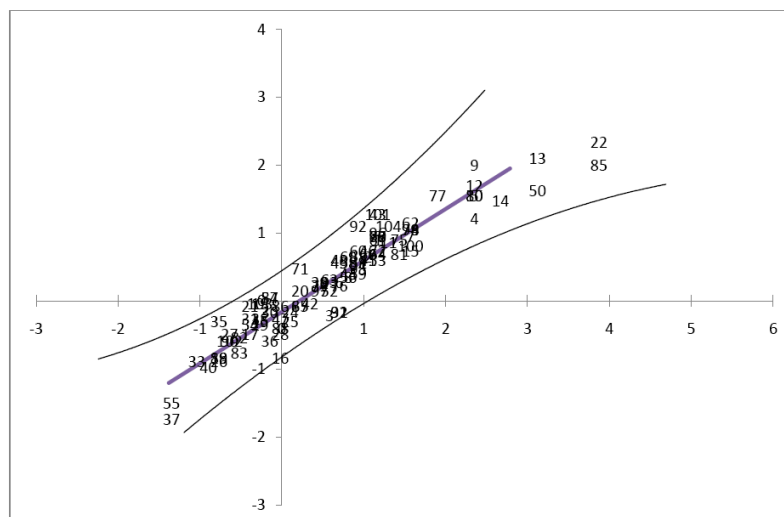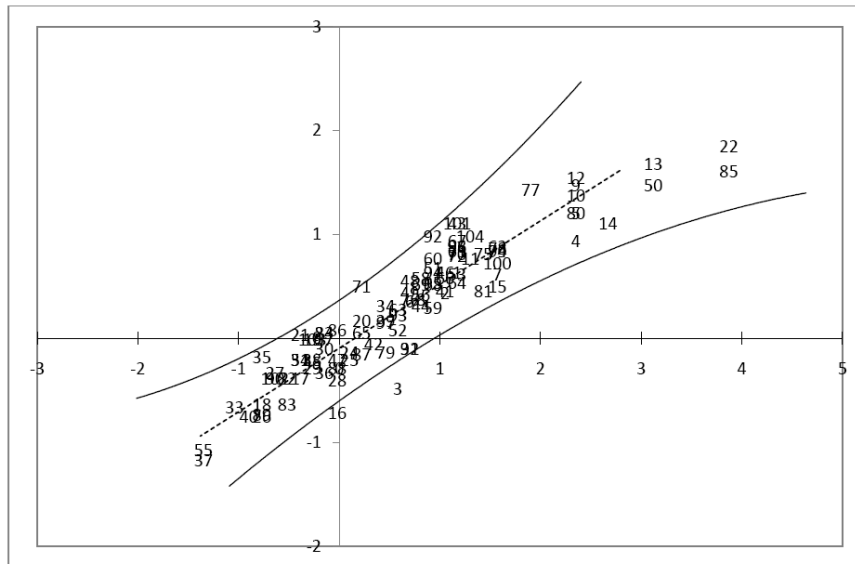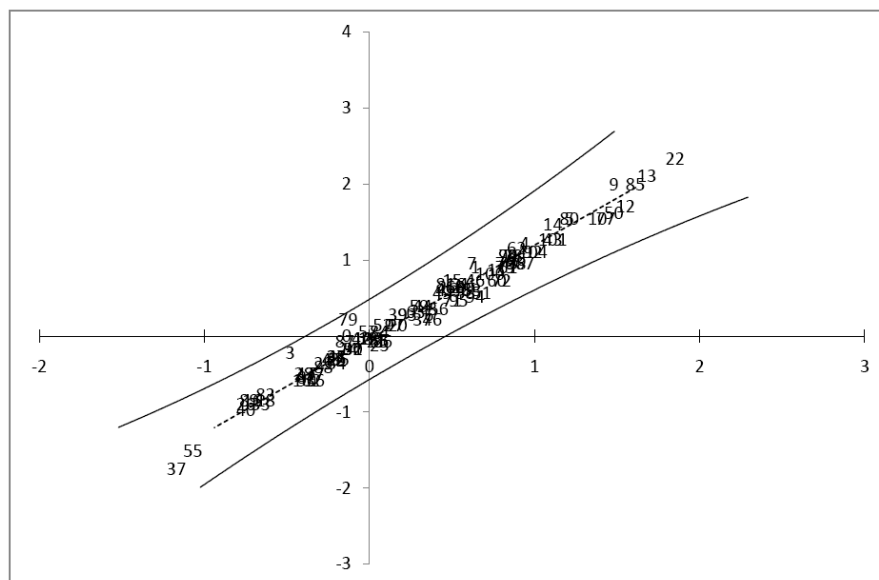

Figure 1: Cross plot of person measures from C-Test-10 against C-Test-25

Figure 2 shows the cross plot of person measures from C-Test-10 against C-Test-40. This plot also shows that all the persons are clustered around the best fit line and no person falls outside the parallel quality control lines. That is, whether we administer a C-Test battery with 10 gaps in each passage or 40 gaps in each passage, test-takers will have the same ability estimates. The coefficient of correlation between measures from the two tests is .92.

Figure 2: Cross plot of person measures from C-Test-10 against C-Test-40

Figure 3 shows the cross plot of person measures from C-Test-25 against C-Test-40. This plot also shows that all the persons are clustered around the best fit line and no person falls outside the parallel quality control lines. That is, whether we administer a C-Test battery with 25 gaps in each passage or 40 gaps in each passage, test-takers will have the same ability estimates. The coefficient of correlation between measures from the two tests is .98.

Figure3: Cross plot of person measures from C-Test-25 against C-Test-40

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Graphical investigation of the invariance of person measures estimated from C-Tests with 10, 25 and 40 gaps in each passage revealed thatexaminees have the same ability estimates regardless of the number of blanks in each passage. That is, the construct of C-Test remains invariant across C-Tests with different number of gaps. Fit analyses of the tests showed that C-Test-10, C-Test-25 and C-Test-40 are equally unidimensional. Results showed that, however, with more gaps in each passage the measurement of the latent trait is more precise as C-Tests with more gaps turned out to be more reliable with smaller RMSE's.

The results of this study are in line with Baghaei (2011). He demonstrated that the correlations between C-Tests with different number of gaps (5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40) and a reading comprehension test, which was used as an external criterion, were almost the same for all the eight C-Tests. This is evidence that C-Test construct is independent of the number of gaps in each passage. Comparing this finding with those of Alderson (1979, 1983) about cloze, which showed that the correlations of cloze tests with different number of deletions and external criteria drastically change, demonstrates the stability of C-Test construct.

The implication of the study is that C-Tests with 10 to 15 gaps are equivalent to C-Tests with 25 to 40 gaps in terms of the construct they measure. For practical testing purposes, when there are constraints of testing time and when not very precise measures of proficiency will do, C-Test with 10-15 gaps in each passage can be employed.

A note of caution is necessary though. The data from C-Test with 10 and 25 gaps were not from separate C-Tests. As was stated in the Method section there was only one C-Test in this study with 40 gaps in each passage given to one sample. Data for C-Tests with 10 and 25 gaps were created out of this dataset by adding the scores on the first 10 and 25 gaps in each passage respectively and ignoring the rest. This means that when performing on C-Test-10 and C-Test-25, test-takers had the entire passage with 40 blanks to resort to. That is, they had all the contextual clues available in the larger context. The results might be different if we construct short C-Tests which contain only 10 gaps without further context to help test-takers, except leaving the first and last sentences intact, which is standard in C-Test construction. The reason why C-Tests with different number of gaps turned out to be measuring the same construct could well be that the psychological processes underlying the performance on C-Test-10,C-Test-25 and C-Test-40 weremade similar by the larger context which was at the test-takers' disposal to the same degree. Further research is needed with separate C-Tests with small number of items to ascertain that C-Tests with fewer numbers of gaps are measuring the same construct as those with more gaps.

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Hamlet's Communication Strategies—A Review of Hamlet from Sociolinguistics Approach

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Abstract—**Shakespeare, who has learned Latin in childhood, has a wide vocabulary and no one can overtake him up to now. His masterpiece Hamlet is not only famous for its rich social content and profound philosophy meanings but also extolled by the ingenious use of language. with the analysis of his speeches and different strategies Hamlet used to communicate with different people who have different social and cultural background, This paper tries to study Hamlet from a sociolinguistic perspective in order to show that how different social and cultural background experiences will affect one's communication strategy and how language forwards the plot.**

Index Terms—**Hamlet, sociolinguistics, communication strategy**

I. INTRODUCTION

Shakespeare, a great English poet and dramatist, is called as the greatest drama genius of human beings by Marx. While mentioning him, almost everyone will think of his masterpiece *Hamlet*. The leading character Hamlet, the famous lines "To be or not to be, that is the question" and the sad and graceful love… all of these has been taken delight in talking about them by people. *Hamlet* leaves its mark on history not only due to its rich social content and profound philosophy meanings but also the ingenious use of language. Shakespeare has learned Latin, literature and rhetoric which laid the solid groundwork for his later literature works. There are two linguists who have counted up Shakespeare's language vocabulary: Mueller from Germany and Holden from America. Mueller thinks that the language vocabulary Shakespeare has used is as large as about 15,000; while Holden's conclusion is about 24,000. This is why Shakespeare can use dialogs which seem as the simplest type of language to successfully portray the character of Hamlet. His Hamlet is good at using communication strategies in different human groups and is a shadow of humanists during Renaissance.

In the drama, Hamlet voices his bitter aspirations by talking to himself- soliloquy sometimes; he gives a long sign as an aside sometimes; sparking a debate with others stormily sometimes or allegorizing sulfurous and bitterly sometimes. There are full of endless powerful sentences, magnificent and wonderful writings, or frivolous and uninhibitedly current slangs and disorderly and unrestrainedly jokes. All these extraordinary communication passages can never be better without speaker's language use and his or her social and cultural background. These passages are also one of the hottest points that sociolinguists study nowadays. Actually, Sociolinguistics is still young for there are only 40 years since it established; consequently, it is necessary to introduce this new subject at first.

II. SOCIOLINGUISTICS

"Sociolinguistics is a subject which studies the relationships between language and society and it approaches language from different social subjects as Sociology, Anthropology, Ethnology, Psychology, Geography and so on" (Chinese Encyclopedia, 1988, p.336). Generally speaking, Sociolinguistics takes the 9th International Linguistics Conference as a mark of its establishment. This interdisciplinary research area which began from mid1960s develops, improves and spreads rapidly later. "Compared with other linguistic subjects, sociolinguistics takes language as a kind of social phenomenon. It advocates the language study by being set in the context of human social background where language started and being used" (Yang, 2007, p.10). At present, the study of Sociolinguistics is in full swing. The new subject, of great value to many areas as law, advertisement, diagnosis and education, now becomes part of our social culture and has attracted more and more attention.

This paper divides Sociolinguistics into three main schools according to different research area. The three schools focus on different aspects. The first one focuses on the variation and variant of language, and Social Dialectics is its representative subject. Social Dialectics, also called language school or variant school, mainly explores and studies the relation between language variation/variant and social aspects, belonging to the Micro-sociolinguistics. Its core issue is

just the dialect which has much to do with job occupation, classes, ages and gender. The second school starts from this point of view: language problem is part of social problems; it specifically studies the more actual social language problems like diglossia/bilingualism, multilingualism or language planning. This school belongs to the Macro-sociolinguistics and sociology of Language is its representative subject. The last one pays more attention to the combining with other subjects and emphasizes on actual communication among people in our daily life. The main subjects include Ethnography of Communication, Social Psychology of language and Interactional Sociolinguistics. All the strategies used below belong to Interactional Sociolinguistics.

Interactional Sociolinguistics is a newborn subject and widely identified by public as an interdisciplinary and closely linked to Anthology, Sociology, Psychology, and other subjects. It "explores and studies language used in real interaction process of daily life to analyze how mutual influence works between language structure as well as its using model and interactional communicating, and make contributions for partners to finish interactional communications in real or scenic situation" (Lin, 2003, p.412), and "it applies to situations of all kinds and do not assume complete cultural homogeneity of linguistic and cultural background" (Gumperz, 2003, p.4). Interactional Sociolinguistics analyzes such interactional communication to show how some specific communication strategies that people used affect workplace climate and individuals to achieve their communicative goal.

To sum up, Sociolinguistics, a young subject has a wide development space and must make contribution to language research and language development as well as its application. At the same time, in literature, "no matter how creative the author is, his language must be limited by social factors" (Li, 2002, p.694), dialogues of portrayed characters must be affected by individual's social and cultural background. In Hamlet, Hamlet uses different strategies to communicate with different people to achieve his final goal-revenge for his father. This paper tries to analyze the dialogues between Hamlet and others from approaches in Sociolinguistics to show his changing in using strategies to various kinds of people whose social cultural backgrounds are different as well.

III. HAMLET'S STRATEGIES

The author of this paper divides all characters in Hamlet into three types: enemy, lover, and friend. The first kind is two "foxes" who have been living in the palace of Demark, enemies of Hamlet: King of Demark- Claudius and Principle Secretary of the State -Polonius. They are the ones who are so familiar with mutual suspicion and deception and good at going out of their way to curry favor to others. The second type is lover whom Hamlet loves and who loves Hamlet deeply as well. They are Queen of Demark, Hamlet's mother-Gertrude and Polonius' daughter-Ophelia. They love and be loved as deep as being hurt by Hamlet's bitter cruel words. The last one is Hamlet's friends. There are loyal ones like Horatio and perfidious old classmates Rosencrantz and Guildenstern. During his revenge, all the communications with these people show high wisdom and also the weak characteristics. The employment of strategies helps to develop the plot of this drama.

A. To Enemies-Give an Irrelevant Answer or Change Topic

Hamlet's dialogues with these two people are full of puns and paradoxes which are used to make others feel that Hamlet is mad and also to satirize Claudius and Polonius, thus, they can relax their vigilance to Hamlet's revenge. At first, appellation Hamlet uses shows that they are not closely related at all. After usurping his brother's throne, Claudius called Hamlet in the hall as "My cousin Hamlet, and my son-" (Act I, Scene II: 496), which sounds full of love. But Hamlet says "A little more than kin, and less than kind" in return. The bad or ice indifferent relation is uncovered. To traitorous minister Polonius, the situation is even worse: Hamlet adds his irony. Look at this dialogue:

Polonius: Do you know me, my lord?

Hamlet: Excellent well, you are a fishmonger. (Act II, Scene II: 523)

Hamlet is the prince of Demark and that is why Polonius use "my lord"-for his social class. No matter how unwilling Polonius is, he has to respect Hamlet all the time. However, Hamlet needs not to do this and he uses "fishmonger" instead which is the first bitter jests he used to satirize old fool Polonius. Thus, "fishmonger" is often explained as slang for "pimp". It just expresses how deeply Hamlet loathes and abhors Polonius. Secondly, Hamlet always gives an irrelevant answer or change the topic directly. The followings are good examples.

Claudius: How fares our cousin Hamlet?

Hamlet: Excellent i'faith, of the chameleon's dish, I eat the air; promise-crammed-you cannot feed capons so.

Claudius: I have nothing with this answer, Hamlet. These words are not mine. (Act III, Scene II: 543)[1]

Claudius: Now, Hamlet, where's Polonius?

Hamlet: At supper.

Claudius: At supper? Where?

Hamlet: Not where he eats, but where'a is eaten- a certain convocation of politic worms are e'en at him: your worm is your only emperor for diet, we fat all creatures else to fat us, and we fat ourselves for maggots. Your fat king and your lean beggar is but variable service, two dishes, but to one table-that's the end. (Act IV, Scene III: 565)

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[1] All the quotations of dialogues in this paper are from the following book: William Shakespeare. Tom Griffith. (eds.) (2005). William Shakespeare: The Great Comedies and Tragedies. London: Wordsworth Editions: 488-602.

Actually, there are not too much communication between Hamlet and Claudius. Once they talk, Hamlet always uses this strategy to fend off Claudius' question. Claudius is a well-educated and wise man as Hamlet, that's why Hamlet chooses this strategy; if not, Claudius would see through Hamlet's intention of retaliation. In spite of communication like that, Claudius has been suspecting Hamlet the whole story. On the face of it, to communicate with someone who has the similar social and cultural background, Hamlet has to use this communication strategy-give an irrelevant answer or change topic directly-to achieve his goal. Of course, he cannot use it all the time, no could do that. The same thing happens to Polonius, the only difference is the addition-jests. Besides "fishmonger", there is more:

Polonius: Not I, my lord.

Hamlet: Then I would you were so honest a man. (Act II, Scene II: 523)

That is to say that Polonius is lower than the lowest of the low, worse than the worst of bad. In fact, Polonius has found something in Hamlet's dialogues, he says, "Though this be madness, yet there is method in't"(Act II, Scene II: 524), however, he would rather to believe that Hamlet is mad and his daughter is the reason, may be more proud of that idea. These strategies protect one again to hide his real thoughts.

B.   To Lovers- Use Bitter Language to Express True Feelings

It is known from the story that Hamlet actually loves the two women deeply: his mother-Gertrude and his girlfriend-Ophelia. Nevertheless, when talking with them, he chooses the most brutal and rough language and even lots of disgusting words. As a matter of fact, Hamlet is trying to express his true feelings: to his mother, he shows his displeasure of her second marriage with Claudius and wants to tell her the truth of his father's death; to Ophelia, Hamlet just wants to protect her to be away from this dangerous revenge; however, the results never come as expected.

What Hamlet calls his mother "your husband's brother's wife" (Act III, Scene IV: 556) is the soft needle he uses to hurt her mother. When telling the truth, he says:

"O shame, where is thy blush?

Rebellious hell,

If thou canst mutine in a matron's bones,

To flaming youth let virtue be as wax

And melt in her own fire. " (Act III, Scene IV: 556)

Each word of each sentence can drive Gertrude mad, but Hamlet never stops. Accordingly, the revenge to Polonius is not only for his father's death, but also his mother's second marriage. This is because of the society Hamlet lives in: they take this kind of marriage as disgraceful one, and what's more his uncle to his father is just like hell to heaven. All the interactional dialogues show readers an unconventional and uninhibited Hamlet.

To Ophelia, Hamlet's more like this: "Get thee to a nunnery, why wouldst thou be a breeder of sinners?" or "God hath given you one face and you make yourselves another, you jig, you amble, and you lisp, you nickname God's creatures, and make your wantonness your ignorance" (Act III, Scene I: 538-9). "Jig, amble, lisp and wantonness" each word goes through Ophelia's body like a knife. However, if listening more carefully, she would find this "I did love you once" (Act III, Scene I: 539). This is true, but being buried by the cruel words. In order to pretend to be mad more truly and believable, Hamlet has no choice but pick this strategy; Ophelia's death will be the last thing he can image. Thus, all the used strategies promote more development of the plot.

C.   To Friends- Neither to Humble Oneself Nor to Show Disrespects and Reforms Them

Shakespeare loves to admire great friendship in his works. In Hamlet, Horatio' loyalty has been taken as the classical one. What Horatio calls Hamlet proves that well: "your poor servant ever". Horatio is supposed to call Hamlet like a friend, but considering the social and cultural background, he does not call Hamlet like that, but he calls him "my lord" the whole drama. Instead of it, he has done whatever he can to help Hamlet. At the last moment, Horatio calls him "sweet prince" (Act VI, Scene II: 601) soulfully. The different classes decide the appellation, at the same time, the love and friendship words as well. Hamlet's success cannot be accomplished without Horatio. So even when dying, Hamlet chooses Horatio, the only one he trusts most, to utter his last words:

"O God, Horatio, what a wounded name,

Things standing thus unknown shall live behind me!

If thou didst ever hold me in thy heart,

Absent thee from felicity awhile,

And in this harsh world draw thy breath in pain,

To tell my story." (Act VI, Scene II: 600)

To the hypocritical friends who influenced by the social and cultural aspects as well, Hamlet does not use bitter and cruel language but reforming them instead. Like Rosencrantz and Guildenstern who has been classmates of Hamlet. They may be right, the society is wrong: they must obey the King's order. So Hamlet chooses to reform them. As Hamlet says: "To withdraw with you, why do you go about to recover the wind of me, as if you would drive me into a toil?"(Act III, Scene II: 551), actually Hamlet knows exactly what they want to do "That you must teach me: but let me conjure you, by the rights of our fellowship, by the consonancy of our youth, by the obligation of our ever-preserved love, and by what more dear a better proposer can charge you withal, be even and direct with me whether you were sent for or no? "(Act II, Scene II: 526) Just because these strategies as a magic bean to let them open their mouth "My lord,

we were sent for."(Act II, Scene II: 526). Just as mentioned above, to them, Hamlet neither to humble oneself nor to show disrespects. On the other side, Hamlet says "Why, look you now, how unworthy a thing you make of me! You would play upon me, you would seem to know my stops, you would pluck out the heart of my mystery, you would sound me from my lowest note to the top of my compass-and there is much music, excellent voice, in this little organ, yet cannot you make it speak. 'Sblood, do you think I am easier to be played on than a pipe? Call me what instrument you will, though you can fret me, you can not play upon me" (Act III, Scene II: 551). In a word, Hamlet accomplished his plan finally.

IV.   CONCLUSION

Reviewing Hamlet's communication with other characters in the Hamlet from Sociolinguistics, the author has found out different kinds of strategies applied for three kinds of people. With studying the different strategies, we can see that contextualization strategies are decided by the social and cultural background of both speaker and hearer which also further illustrate that language is a social phenomenon, what's more, we truly appreciate the excellent details of Shakespeare's language using for depicting the characters and promote the developments of the plot.

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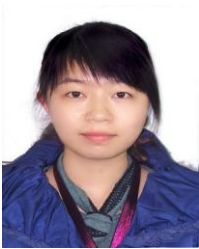
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A Short Analysis of the Fundamental Issues in Language Teaching Research

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Abstract—The design that is selected for any study is like a skeleton which supports the different parts of the research. It is the research design which determines how the data should be collected, analyzed and interpreted. This article attempts to delineate the different research approaches: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods design. At this juncture, the crucial issue is the gathering of information in order to get an understanding of the problem more deeply and find appropriate ways of dealing with it. Therefore, the data collection discusses the different types of data that should be obtained. After collecting the necessary data, the researcher should analyze them in detail. Thus, the data analysis is dealt at length. It is crucial that before carrying out the real study, the researcher ensure that the research design, data collection instruments and data analysis work well. Therefore, the pilot study comes to the aid of the researcher to help approach the actual phase of the research more confidently. Finally, every researcher should consider the rights of the participants and take heed of some rules during and after the research process. Therefore, the ethical issues explain how the researcher should act in conducting a study.

Index Terms—research design, data collection & analysis, pilot study, ethical issues

I. INTRODUCTION

The researchers should choose an appropriate research design based on the objectives of the study. The design of the study has a crucial role because it glues the different parts of the research together. This article elaborates on five important points in any research endeavor: research design, data collection, data analysis, pilot study, and ethical issues. Clearly, conducting research requires some theoretical and practical knowledge. Also, every research design has its own particular rules and regulations. It is hoped that this article could give some useful insights to the postgraduate students and researchers who are about or intend to embark on conducting a study.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

In the main, the vital aspect of any research process is the selection of an appropriate and pertinent research design. First, the design of the study is determined based on the problems that should be investigated. Second, it is selected based on the research questions and objectives. Burns (2000, p. 3) defines research as "a systematic investigation to find answers to a problem." More broadly, with regard to three approaches to research design (i.e. quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method), the factors that influence our choice include: "the research problem, the personal experiences of the researcher and the audience" (Creswell, 2003, p. 21). On the whole, language courses are dynamic entities and subject to change according to the ever changing needs and wants of the students. To this end, Alderson (1996, p. 292) holds that "designs for evaluation should be practical, realistic and flexible."

The determining factor in the choice of one design over another is the purpose of the inquiry. "The potential range of methods is large, but the important element here is to ensure that they are accessible and reproducible; selection of them will depend on purpose and point of application" (Murphy, 1985, p. 11). On the other hand, Brown (1989) emphasizes that selecting the research design depends on the evaluation dimensions. That is, whether our evaluation is summative and carried out at the end of the program or formative and performed during the lifetime of the course. Also, whether our emphasis is on the product and/or what the students have achieved or on the process of teaching-learning activities. Also, it should be clarified whether the research emphasis is more on the quantitative or qualitative data. It can be added that the research emphasis might be on both types of data at the same time. At this juncture, Blaxter et al. (2006) argue that if we could try to think methodologically on research design, the following questions might help illuminate our selection better. They (ibid., 62) argue that:
- What are the main purposes of your research?
- What is your role in the research?
- Do you think your values should affect research?
- Can you accommodate several methodologies in your research?
- Who are the audience for your research?

It can be concluded that factors affecting the choice of one approach over another include the objectives, researcher's experience, nature of the problem(s), audience, availability of the resources and facilities, availability of the budget and

so on. Opting for a naturalistic and/or qualitative approach or a positivistic and/or experimental approach, Lynch (1996, p. 171) stresses "the inherent difficulties of trying to carry out experimental research in field settings, and of the limitations to what such an evaluation strategy can tell us about the programs we are investigating …" He believes that applied linguistics is gradually distancing itself from the experimental methods and moving towards the naturalistic inquiries. Burns (2000, p. 3) also is of the opinion that since 1960s the gulf between "the scientific empirical tradition and the naturalistic phenomenological method" has deepened. However, he (ibid.) prefers a naturalistic approach and argues that "Social reality is regarded as a creation of individual consciousness, with meaning and the evaluation of events seen as a personal and subjective construction."

Most of the researchers prefer a mixed method (i.e. both quantitative and qualitative approaches) because of its advantages and flexibility. Lynch (1996, p. 171) states that "The preferred evaluation approach … is mixed strategies (i.e. quantitative analysis of qualitative data) or mixed design (positivistic and naturalistic)." The mixed method easily allows the inquirer to collect both numerical data and text data. The researcher can use both types of data to increase the validity and reliability of his/her investigation. Creswell (2003, p. 22) also believes that "A mixed methods design is useful to capture the best of both quantitative and qualitative approaches." He maintains that in order to gain a better understanding of the problem "both closed-ended quantitative data and open-ended qualitative data prove advantages" (ibid.).

III. DATA COLLECTION DESIGN/SYSTEM

In order to conduct a research properly, the researcher should make every effort to choose a robust and adequate design based on the program's various stakeholders and his/her own objectives. To this end, a researcher can opt for a quantitative, qualitative or a mixed method design. Generally, Lynch (1996) refers to quantitative designs as positivistic research and to qualitative designs as naturalistic research.

A. Quantitative Research

Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 436) state that quantitative research "uses procedures that gather data in numerical form … [It] aims at causal explanation of phenomena through the identification of variables which can be made the basis of experimental investigation." In fact, quantitative research is called traditional approach because it was dominant in the 1960s and 1970s. In most cases the focus of attention is on the end product, i.e. the students' attainment of course objectives. Also, the research process merely consists of comparison of different teaching methods. Mainly, students are divided into two groups: control and experimental groups. The experimental group receives a treatment and the control group is taught through the regular program. A pretest and posttest is administered and the students' scores are studied accordingly. Alderson (1996, p. 283) confirms that "the results of such experimental methodologies were less than encouraging, and … such approaches are inappropriate to program evaluation." In this regard, Long (1984) also disapproves of laboratory-like, experimental methods because of their lack of attention to the process of teaching-learning. That is, without the proper description of the process the product will be meaningless. At this juncture, Lynch (1996, p. 96) argues that "it is not enough simply show that a program was successful on some outcome measure. It must also be possible to make some judgments of what … made the program successful." In the main, there are some differences between quantitative and qualitative researches. Blaxter et al. (2006, p. 65) mention some of these disparities as follows:

Qualitative paradigms	Quantitative paradigms
- Concerned with understanding behavior from actors' own frames of reference	- Seeks the facts/causes of social phenomena
- Naturalistic and uncontrolled observation	- Obtrusive and controlled measurement
- Subjective	- Objective
- Close to the data: the 'insider' perspective	- Removed from the data: the 'outsider' perspective
- Grounded, discovery oriented, exploratory, expansionist, descriptive, inductive	- Ungrounded, verification oriented, reductionist, hypothetico-deductive
- Process-oriented	- Outcome-oriented
- Valid: real, rich, deep data	- Reliable: hard & replicable data
- Ungeneralizable: single case studies	- Generalizable: multiple case studies
- Holistic	- Particularistic
- Assume a dynamic reality	- Assume a stable reality

Obviously, quantitative and/or positivistic research can hardly be of any use in a study. In any research endeavor there are various unexpected occurrences which the laboratory-like experimental designs cannot account for them. However, in the qualitative and/or naturalistic researches, the researcher takes part in the actual process of study and is always involved in the program rather than being an unknowledgeable outsider. In the naturalistic approaches the researcher usually does not disrupt the normal process of the classroom activities. Generally the qualitative approach is

exploratory in nature and does not attempt to verify predetermined hypotheses. Finally, the qualitative approaches presume that a program is a dynamic reality which changes over the time and is not stable.

B. Qualitative Research

The qualitative research allows the researcher to investigate the research setting, context and individuals' activities closely. This type of research attempts to study the participants and their performances in their natural milieu. For this reason, it is also referred to as naturalistic research. Therefore, the naturalistic research is heuristic with barely any predetermined questions or hypotheses to dictate the research process. Seliger and Shohamy contend that this approach is very useful when a researcher attempts to study the learning-teaching process in its natural setting. Blaxter et al. (2006, p. 64) elaborate on the qualitative research as follows:

Qualitative research… is concerned with collecting and analyzing information in as many forms, chiefly non-numerical, as possible. It tends to focus on exploring, in as much detail as possible, small numbers of instances or examples which are seen as being interesting or illuminating, and aims to achieve depth rather than breath.

In this type of inquiry the researcher tries to focus on the specific context in which the research is being carried out and at the same time "collaborates with the participants" (Creswell, 2003, p. 19). The qualitative research is innovative as well as emergent and is concerned with individuals and their perceptions rather than with numbers and figures which are abstract and out of context. Lynch (1996, p. 14) insists that naturalistic paradigm "views the educational program being evaluated… as a process that is continuously changing rather than a stable, invariant treatment." Lynch also emphasizes that as more researchers use this approach in the field of English language teaching, therefore, the more sophisticated and elaborate ways of adapting its methodology to the particular context can be seen. By and large, the naturalistic approaches allow the researcher to collect data through different techniques such as observations, interviews, questionnaires, and field notes and also from various sources such as students, teachers, program staff and so on. Consequently, the variety of sources and techniques makes the data more valid and convincing.

C. Qualitative vs. Quantitative Data

In order to gather information, the researcher can opt either for qualitative or quantitative data. As usual, it depends on the purpose for which the research takes place. However, for any research to be rich and have convincing evidence, it is preferable that both types of data to be collected and used. The qualitative data can be described as the type of information which can be obtained through observations, interviews, open-ended questionnaires, field notes, and so on. Alderson (1996, p. 282) believes that exploring "attitudes and opinions are important to the evaluation." He then emphasizes that "observation, recording and interpretation of events, activities and feeling of participants" (ibid., 283) are also of paramount importance. In addition, Brown (1995, p. 227) assumes that the qualitative data contains "more holistic information … that may not readily lend themselves to conversion into quantities or numbers." Nevertheless, Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 435) assert that the qualitative data "can often be converted into quantitative form." On the whole, in order to interpret the qualitative data, the researcher can utilize them "in a principled and systematic manner [because] they are more important to actual decisions made in a program" (Brown, 1989, p. 232). In contrast, the quantitative data are countable pieces of information which are usually numerical in form. They can be obtained through "tests and objective-question questionnaire" (Dudley-Evans & St John, 2000, p. 128).

Generally, a researcher might attempt to gather both the qualitative and quantitative information. The qualitative data are mostly obtained through observations, interviews and open-ended questionnaires and the quantitative data are gained through closed-ended questionnaires and tests. A researcher might not use testing procedures to collect data because as Elley (1989, p. 270) affirms "Samples are biased or unmatched… contamination occurs between experimental and control groups, and tests prove too difficult or too easy for students." Also, it can be stated that though tests may be important, "they are not the exclusive, or even the primary, focus of all evaluations" (Nunan, 1999, p. 190). Moreover, the information that can be gathered through tests has rather limited interpretational value because "They provide answers to what questions but cannot easily address the how or why" (Dudley-Evans & St John, 2000, p. 128). More importantly, tests assess what teachers think are the objectives of the course, however, many vital and unexpected issues surface incidentally in the actual teaching-learning process. To this end, Slimani (1996, p. 199) reasons that: "However, since we are concerned with relating learning outcomes to their immediate and potentially determining environment, it appears rather difficult to think of ways of getting at learning evidence through testing and elicitation procedures as traditionally understood."

The main concern of any study is to obtain information that can modify the teaching and learning process. The crux of the matter is that students can somehow answer the questions on the exam paper. However, they can hardly perform this passive knowledge in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Therefore, the tests are the artificial way of measuring the students' knowledge which barely yield any valuable information about their real performance.

IV. SEARCHING FOR FACTS

Naturally, the type of data that the researcher gathers almost entirely depends on the type of design that has been chosen. It is obvious that the most important step in any research process is the data collection procedure. If the aim of the research is to enquire about the students' achievements of course objectives then the researcher can gather data

through the students' end-of-program tests. On the other hand, if the goal of the study is to improve the whole course, then the researcher can collect data through questionnaires, interviews, observations, course documents, and so on. However, the important point that the researcher should take care of is "the appropriate conduct of the data-gathering procedures" (Lynch, 1996, p. 7). Therefore, the researcher should decide on the pertinent types of data to be collected in order to make necessary interpretations according to them. As Murphy (1985, p. 15) stresses, we should "know what sort of information we want and the appropriate ways to choose from to get it." It can be concluded that the researcher should try to gather not only relevant data but also through suitable ways.

The main issue in the data collection process is the diversity of the information that is gathered. It is reasonable that the researcher attempt to gather as varied sorts of data as possible. Creswell (2003, p. 21) affirms that "collecting diverse types of data best provides an understanding of a research problem." Therefore, collecting more miscellaneous data increases the validity and consequently adds to the legitimacy and authenticity of the research endeavor. For instance, Nunan (1999, p. 189) argues that the researcher should also try to inquire into the "institutional facilities, the prevailing intellectual and emotional climate, relationships between administrative and teaching staff, and so on." To this end, Brown (1989, p. 233) proposes different ways of gathering data as follows:

TABLE 1.
EVALUATOR'S ROLE, CATEGORIES AND PROCEDURES

Evaluator's role	Categories	Procedures
Outside looking in	Existing information	- Records analysis - Systems analysis - Literature review - Letter writing
	Observations	- Case studies - Diaries studies - Behavior observation - Interactional analysis - Inventories
Facilitator drawing out information	Interviews	- Individual - Group
	Meetings	- Delphi technique - Advisory - Interest group - Review
	Questionnaires	- Biodata surveys - Opinion surveys - Self-ratings - Judgmental ratings - Q sort

Source: Brown 1989, p. 233

The list suggested by Brown (1989, p. 233) is rather comprehensive and detailed. However, a researcher cannot gather data through all these procedures because of the constraints of time, money and expertise. Brown (ibid.) himself asserts that "Obviously, it would be absurd to attempt the use of all the procedures … but a reasonable selection can be made…" By and large, the researcher should attempt to gather data according to the objectives of the study. If the researcher tries to collect more than necessary data, then he/she will, naturally, be lost among the mass of unnecessary information. On the other hand, if he/she gathers less data, he/she will not gain enough insights towards the problem. A moderate amount of information is usually more preferable.

Certainly, the important issue that any researcher might encounter is the conflicting types of data that are gathered. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 155) argue that "feedback from one party [e.g. learners or teachers] may contradict feedback from another." This is a type of problem that usually an outsider researcher might face because of his/her rather incomplete knowledge on the setting from which the data are collected. On the other hand, an insider researcher may fairly have thorough understanding of the context and tackle the issue more easily. In this regard, the researcher should try to gather more data and, of course, from different sources in order to gain more insight into the problem and into the contradictory data.

Data collection is a phase in the research cycle in which different type of information is gathered through different sources. Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 142) believe that data are a collection of "information, evidence or facts" that are gathered in order to gain a "better understanding of a phenomenon." Seliger and Shohamy (1989) assert that there are two types of data collection procedures. First, data can be collected by means of a low degree of explicitness usually through informal and open interviews, observations and so forth. Second, it can be gathered by means of a high degree of explicitness usually through formal and structured questionnaires, interviews, observations, etc. However, they contend that in the latter procedure, the respondents are constrained to answer predetermined questions. The fact is that a researcher should attempt to gather both types of data in order to penetrate more deeply into the phenomenon. In this

regard, Blaxter et al. (2006, p. 153) state that "data may be numerical, or may consist of words, or may be a combination of the two." To this end, Creswell (2003, p. 220) advises the researchers to be clear and specific about the type of data that they collect. That is, whether the data should be qualitative or quantitative.

Before attempting to collect data, the researcher should try to answer this question: "What type of data will need to be gathered – quantitative, qualitative, or both?" (Lynch, 1996, p. 6-7). It goes without saying that it mainly depends on the purpose of the evaluation and the research design. For instance, Elley (1989, p. 277) expresses that "if the objectives focus more on attitudes or interests, then suitable attitude scales, or observation techniques or diary reports will be more appropriate." On the whole, the most appropriate way of collecting data depends on evaluation question(s) and goals.

Lynch (1996: 7) stresses that if our primary question is "Are the students of this program making significant gains in their language abilities?" then we should use the quantitative design and gather quantitative data. These data can be obtained through administering some pretests before the start of the program and some posttests after the end of it. Therefore, the students' language ability and their achievements throughout the course can be measured through their scores before and after the program. However, if our primary question is: "How can we improve this program?" (ibid.) then we should use a qualitative design and collect qualitative data. In this process, data can be obtained through observations, interviews, and questionnaires. Palmer (1996) cautions that data collection and the research design should not disrupt the natural and normal schedule of a language learning-teaching process. Also, he emphasizes the practicality of the procedures used in the research design and the data gathering process. In the main, a study might avoid to administer and use tests because of its objectives. The reasons for avoiding tests as the source of data are as follows:

- A few number of the students attend private language institutes at the same time that they take part in an experimental study. Therefore, the results of the pretest and posttest data cannot be representative of the treatment and would consequently contaminate the results and their interpretations.

- Generally, constructing a uniform, fair, and identical test items for all the learners is rather difficult though not impossible. In evaluating the ESP programs at the Federal Universities of Brazil, Alderson and Scott (1996, p. 54) deliberately shunned using tests because "Appropriate standardized tests do not exist, and the variety of learning situations within the project is probably so great as to preclude the use of any common instruments in all participating universities."

- Certainly, process is more important than the product. The fact is that though most of the learners succeed in passing an instructional program with a pass mark, they can hardly use their knowledge practically in real situations. Therefore, test scores hardly reveal anything about the real and actual knowledge of the students.

- Some of the learners are quite interested in learning English and, therefore, they try to learn it at home through more reading, watching different English TV programs, or working with different educational soft wares and internet sites. So that, administering pretest and posttest to measure their achievement cannot indicate the effect of classroom learning and treatment. Consequently, the result of these tests might be questionable, because we do not know whether the high level of scores obtained by these students is related to classroom instruction and/or treatment or students' own self-study.

- It has been emphasized that the current proficiency tests assess the learners' competence rather than their performance. That is, the available tests measure the learners' passive rather than active knowledge. Also, these tests estimate the learners' word and sentence level knowledge and not beyond it. To this end, Lynch (1996, p. 164) attests that "The student improvement evidenced by the positivistic [experimental] analyses thus confirms the sentence-level-only interpretation from the naturalistic data."

More importantly, Elley (1989, p. 277) is of the opinion that the available standardized tests have the following shortcomings:

- They are widely used and frequently too familiar …
- They are often unsuitable culturally, by virtue of language or assumed background knowledge.
- The skills measured do not match those of the new program.
- They are too easy or too difficult … at the beginning or end of the program.
- They are too costly or time-consuming for the purpose.

V. MAKING SENSE OF DATA

The researcher ought to opt for the type of data analysis based on the design that has already been selected and carried out in the data collection process. It should be emphasized that the main issue in the research process is the data analysis phase which "follows logically from the type of design chosen for the evaluation (Lynch, 1996, p. 7)". However, Creswell (1994, p. 153) claims that "The process of data analysis is eclectic; there is no right way." Nevertheless, this statement does not mean that the researcher is free to choose any method of analyzing data. It means that within the special design chosen for the study, the researcher might approach data analysis from different perspectives according to the research objectives, have necessary expertise in the data analysis and also have necessary facilities and resources at hand.

Data analysis does not take place only at one phase. An experienced researcher goes through the data at several stages and analyses them throughout the whole research process. To this end, Blaxter et al. (2006, p. 193) believe that

"Analysis is an ongoing process which may occur throughout your research…" The purpose of this continuous data analysis is mainly to extract meaning from a pile of data. As Creswell (2003, p. 190) contends, it means "moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data, representing the data, and making an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data." In this regard, the researcher ought to find some appropriate ways of making sense out of a mass of data. Therefore, in order to interpret the data and present the results, the researcher should read through the data, analyze, categorize, condense and finally synthesize them (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). Obviously, data analysis demands that the researcher form some categories and at the same time make some necessary comparisons and contrasts. The researcher might face various types of contradictory data during this stage. He/She should make a wise and logical analysis according to the existing evidences. Creswell (1994, p. 153) argues that "the researcher be open to possibilities and see contrary or alternative explanations for the findings." Therefore, this stage is very important because it affects the results and conclusions of the study.

After the data have been collected through different procedures and from different sources, the researcher should find some appropriate ways of analyzing them. The quantitative data appears in numerical form and the qualitative data in a mass of words, sentences and texts. Brown (2001, p. 11) acknowledges that data analysis "rely fairly heavily on the human ability to find patterns in the data." Therefore, the researcher should find some proper ways of converting the data to patterns in order to make sense of them. The data which are obtained from the qualitative data are, in fact, voluminous and massive. Creswell (1994) holds that these bulky qualitative data need to be sorted into suitable categories. To this end, Lynch (1996) argues that data analysis is an iterative rather than a linear process. Therefore, he maintains that the primary steps in this process are to focus the study. That is, the researcher might create a thematic framework which consists of key evaluation questions that should be answered.

Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 56) contend that though the qualitative data are voluminous "than numbers, they can render more meaning, than numbers alone." Obviously, the qualitative data are more concrete, natural and understandable than the numerical data which are abstract, obscure and complex. Also, the qualitative data represent more elaborate information about the setting, situation under study, participants, instruments, procedures and so on. Therefore, in order to make sense of the data, the researcher should analyze them. The analysis is carried out so that necessary interpretations could be made. In this process, Blaxter et al. (2006) discuss that the data should be managed. That is, they should be sorted, reduced or summarized and finally reported. To manage the data more properly, Huberman and Miles (1994) offer three phases in which they can be analyzed. First, the data are reduced, then they are displayed, and finally some conclusions are drawn and verified. It is clear that the researcher should move step by step in order to make the data more understandable. The following six stages have been drawn upon Creswell's (2003) generic steps in analyzing data and are used in the analysis of the qualitative data. Thus, the researchers should.
- systematize and arrange the data.
- pore over the data.
- analyze and code the data.
- create categories, themes and patterns for analysis.
- think of ways of representing themes.
- interpret and make sense of data.

It is through data collection that the researcher has compiled a great deal of information through different means. These data need to be organized, coded, reduced and finally interpreted (Lynch, 1996). It goes without saying that data analysis is one of the demanding phases of any research process. If the researcher does not take adequate precautions, he/she may not be able to properly analyze the data and consequently interpret them. The following steps are drawn upon Blaxter et al.'s (2006) suggestions for data analysis.
- The researcher should try to manage the data through decreasing their size and scope, in this way they can be reported properly.
- The researcher should try to analyze the organized data through focusing on key aspects.

It can be said that the researcher should attempt to organize the data. Then, he/she should manage to peruse them so that to find some "patterns, categories, or themes" (Creswell, 1994, p. 154). After that he/she needs to reduce them "in advance to manageable dimensions" (Brown, 2001, p. 213). After reducing the data, the researcher needs to code them. These codes have to "be short enough to serve its purpose as a time-saving data marker" (lynch, 1996, p. 142). Also, the codes should be long enough so that they could be distinguished from other codes. After coding the data, the researcher needs to display the data in order to make necessary interpretations. Generally, the data are displayed in tables, matrices and various graphical forms. In this way, analyzing and interpreting them can become easier. Also, the displayed data allow the researcher to compare and contrast similarities and differences in the patterns and themes.

VI. FIRST STEP IN RESEARCH

In fact, without piloting the instruments the researcher cannot ensure whether his/her design, data collection procedures and data analysis work in the real phase of the study. Pilot study is one of the important phases of any research endeavor. Dane (1990, p. 336) defines pilot study as "an abbreviated version of a research project in which the researcher practices or tests the procedures to be used in the subsequent full-scale project." Alderson (1996, p. 292) contends that "The instruments being used for the collection of data may themselves be opaque and therefore difficult

for respondents to respond to." Therefore, all the data gathering instruments should be piloted and adjusted according to the necessities of the actual research situation. To this end, Blaxter et al. (2006, p. 137) argue that piloting allows the researcher to "see how they [techniques & methods] work in practice, and, if necessary, modify your plans accordingly."

Seliger and Shohamy (1989) maintain that piloting is a kind of quality control in which the researcher has the opportunity to make any necessary changes and revisions. Furthermore, Brown (2001, p. 62) emphasizes that pilot study "can help you spot ambiguities, confusion, or other problems" and "to see what types of answers respondents produce." Therefore, a researcher can learn many useful things from data collection and data analysis process through the pilot study. As Blaxter et al. (2006, p. 41) express, the inquirer can at least get "an idea of the amount of time collecting data can take." Moreover, Brown (2001) believes that the pilot study should be carried out at similar situations to the real project and with the similar types of subjects. On the whole, the primary purposes of conducting the pilot study include the following points:

- to probe the reliability and validity of the research instruments;
- to check the acceptability and adequacy of the questionnaires and interview items;
- to modify and improve vague and ambiguous questions in the questionnaires and interview items;
- to discard the ineffective, inadequate and weak questions in the questionnaires and interview items;
- to practice interview skills and classroom observation process;
- to practice initial data collection and analysis processes.

VII. RESEARCH ETHICS

Ethical issues should be considered from the planning stage to data collection through to data analysis to reporting the findings. Therefore, every researcher needs to take heed of the ethical issues at any stage of the research process. As Flick (2006, p. 49) contends, "You will be confronted with ethical issues at every step of research." In this regard, Burns (1999, p. 70) points out that "Ethical considerations are an important part of any research." The main issue in any research is to protect the rights and interests of the participants. However, the research ethics is somehow a complicated issue and we can hardly "find easy and very general solutions to the problems and dilemmas" (Flick, 2006, p. 52). Generally, in the field of research, ethics can be defined as being sensitive to the rights of others. Fraenkel and Wallen (2003, p. 56) state that "The term ethics refers to questions of right and wrong." On the whole, it can be inferred that to a large extent ethics is a matter of agreement among the researchers.

In order to conduct a study, the researchers should observe several essential issues. In this regard, Cohen and Manion (1994) mention some of these issues: privacy, anonymity, confidentiality, betrayal and deception. Privacy can be described as the private and personal life of people as opposed to their public life. Therefore, the researchers should not violate the private life of the respondents "through publication or other means of dissemination" (Merriam, 1998, p. 217). The personal information that the informants provide is sometimes sensitive and might be threatening. Thus, the researchers should observe the privacy of the information and not allow the respondents to be identified. To this end, the anonymity of the participants is very important. That is, the researchers should not reveal the identity of the respondents during and after the research process. The interviewees might be referred to by letters, numbers or pseudonyms and the questionnaires should not require the respondents to write their names. Therefore, the respondents must remain anonymous and the provided information should not reveal their identity.

Meanwhile, the researchers "need to guarantee participants complete confidentiality" (Flick, 2006, p. 49). That is, the respondents should "be assured that any data collected from or about them will be held in confidence" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 59). One more issue is the betrayal. This term refers to occasions in which the confidential information disclosed by the subjects is made public. Therefore, the publication or dissemination of information may harm the participants and consequently embarrass them. Thus, the researchers should abstain from betraying the respondents. The final dilemma that Cohen and Manion (1994) mention is deception. Deception in research means that some researchers intentionally do not tell the whole truth to the participants. Some researchers conceal the true nature of the research and do not explain to the subjects the whole truth. These researchers try to obtain information or expose the informants to situations in which the subjects do not know the real objectives of the research.

In the main, there is hardly any ethical contention in the quantitative approaches to research because the data are in aggregate and numerical form (Merriam, 1998). However, in the qualitative approaches, there are many ethical controversies because these approaches directly deal with human beings, their opinions and behaviors. The degree of ethical problems is much more acute and tense in social, psychological and medical sciences than in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). In the field of ELT, ethical problems may arise out of carelessness, negligence and the like. On the whole, the ethical issues may result from the nature of the problem under study and the methods that are used to investigate them. Each stage in the research has its own potential set of problems. For instance, in writing the research report we might come to a conclusion which "If your participants read these results, they may find it embarrassing to be compared with other people" (Flick, 2006, p. 50).

There are many sources of tension in research. Cohen and Manion (1994, p. 360) mention two sets of these sources: "First, a belief in the value of free scientific inquiry versus a belief in the dignity of individuals, second, the absolutist versus relativist positions." On the one hand, researchers try to obtain more information and knowledge, on the other

hand, there is the issue of individuals' rights which should not be disregarded or violated. Also, there is the absolutists' camp which contends that there should be some set principles and rules which should guide the researchers in their research. However, the relativists hold that the ethical issues might arise during the research process and no set guidelines can determine what to do and what not to do.

The data collection phase has its own dilemmas. For example, participant observation is criticized because of "the questionable ethics of deceiving the other participants" (Merriam, 1998, p. 100). That is, the privacy of the students is threatened or they may disclose some information which they might regret it later. Also, some researchers might prefer the use of covert observation in order to reduce the effect of the observer in the classroom. However, Flick (2006, p. 219) expresses that "this is highly problematic with respect to research ethics." Also, collecting data during the interview encounter, the researcher should not ask questions which might hurt the respondents. The researcher should not try to argue with the subjects because his/her task "is first and foremost to gather data, not change people" (Patton, 1990, p. 254). Moreover, the topics to be interviewed should not induce pain or bad memories on the part of the interviewee. Furthermore, the interviewers should not invade the interviewees' privacy nor should they coerce or persuade the respondents to reveal information that they do not intend to do so. In general, in conducting a study, the researchers should consider the subjects' rights as follows:
- The subjects should be free to choose to participate voluntarily in a research.
- The subjects can refuse to participate or withdraw from participation at any time without providing any reason.
- The subjects' anonymity should be considered.
- An instructor cannot require the students to participate in a research as a classroom project.
- The subjects should not be asked or directed to furnish the desired type of information.

Certainly, the researchers have some responsibilities which they should observe during and even after the conduct of the research as follows:
- The researchers should ensure the confidentiality of the data.
- The researchers should not deceive or betray the subjects.
- The researchers should obtain the informed consents of the participants.
- The researchers should explain the purpose of conducting the research to the informants.
- The researchers should honestly present a complete account of the research process.
- All the subjects must be treated equally.
- The researchers should think about the consequences of the study before conducting it.
- The results of the study should not harm or hurt participants and other stakeholders.
- The possible biases should be controlled and contained as far as possible.
- The researchers should respect the subjects and consider their needs and interests.

The researchers should obtain the informed consent of the participants before starting the data collection procedure. Flick's (2006, p. 46) definition of informed consent is: "the study's participants have agreed to partake on the basis of information given to them by the researchers." Therefore, the subjects decide whether to participate in the study based on their own choice. The researchers should completely explain to the subjects the procedures, possible risks and benefits of the research.

Overall, some ethical codes or principles have been developed in order to organize and regulate the researchers' behavior and make them aware of their responsibilities towards the subjects and their profession. Merriam (1998, p. 219) is of the opinion that "Professional codes and federal regulations deal with issues common to all social science research." In this regard, Flick (2006, p. 45) points out that "Codes of ethics are formulated to regulate the relations of researchers to the people and field they intend to study." To this end, Burns (1999, p. 71) presents three criteria for the ethical conduct of a research: "responsibility, confidentiality and negotiation." That is, the researchers should take responsibility of every single stage of the research, take into account the confidentiality of the obtained data, and negotiate every aspect of the research with the participants and the intended parties. In general, drawing upon Cohen and Manion (1994) the six-fold benefits of the codes of practice are as follows:
- It creates a sense of membership community for the researchers.
- It makes the researchers aware of their responsibilities to their subjects and the field.
- It makes the researchers to find other alternative and ethical ways of conducting the same   research.
- It makes the researchers to prepare and organize themselves in any research situation.
- It prepares the researchers to face any unpredicted and unknown conditions.
- It creates a sense of disciplined behavior among the researchers.

It can be hardly pinpointed what is ethical and what is unethical, what is correct or what is incorrect research behavior. However, any research process should "produce some positive and identifiable benefits rather than simply be carried out for its own sake" (Murphy & Dingwall, 2001, p. 339). Nevertheless, those benefits should not be obtained at the cost of deceiving, harming and disregarding the subjects' rights.

VIII. RESEARCH ETHICS

This article discussed and shed some fresh light on the five essential aspects of a research process. Any researcher who intends to conduct a study should have enough knowledge both in doing research and the problem at hand. The

present article elaborated on the first issue. It was explained that, first of all, the design of the study should be identified. Then, the procedures of collecting data were expounded. After that, the different aspects of analyzing data were described. Next, it was emphasized that the researchers need to pilot their instruments in order to ensure that they can perform well in the real and actual phase of the study. Finally, the necessity of observing some rules and regulations of correct behavior on the part of the researchers was stressed in the ethical issues section. It is believed that executing a research requires a great deal of knowledge, expertise and time. Therefore, every research has its own peculiarities and specific characteristics which should be considered completely from the very beginning.

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The Core Restriction on English Middle Formation

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Abstract—**We have accumulated many restrictions on English middle formation and are more likely to propose some more, but for a better understanding of English middles, it's all the more necessary to investigate what on earth is the core restriction on this formation. This paper tries to single out responsibility condition as the core one in that it has the final say over other conditions in licensing middle formation.**

Index Terms—**restriction, middle construction, formation**

I. INTRODUCTION

The restrictions on English middle formation have intrigued lots of linguists, and a number of proposals on this restriction have been made, which we will discuss in this paper. Not every verb can undergo middle formation, and verbs from the same subcategories do not necessarily form acceptable middles. In addition, the logical object as well as the logical subject is also subject to some restrictions. Accordingly, the proposed restrictions are targeted on three aspects: properties of the verb, properties of the grammatical subject and properties of the logical subject. Many of the restrictions manage to capture the properties for English middle formation to be possible, but surprisingly enough they overlap to a significant extent.

In the discussion that follows, we'd like to compare different restrictions and test its feasibility, and attempt to single out the core restriction on English middle formation. It is fair to say the jury is still out on this issue, but the discussion will help us better understand the restriction on English middle formation.

II. RESTRICTIONS ON ENGLISH MIDDLE FORMATION

So far linguists have formulated many restrictions on English middle formation. In order to better understand how they work, this section examines in details the restrictions from three different perspectives.

A. Properties of the Verb

Fagan (1992) proposes that aspectual properties of the verb are crucial in determining whether or not it can undergo middle formation. Fagan uses Vendler's (1967b) classification of verbs into four aspectual types:

a. activities: express an ongoing action with no inherent end-point (examples are run, smoke, drive, play, etc.).

b. accomplishments: express an event with an internal time structure and an end-point (examples are paint, read, make, build, assemble, etc).

c. achievements: express instantaneous events (examples are recognize, break, reach, cross, acquire, see, notice, etc)

d. states: do not express an event or activity (examples are have, love, know, believe, etc)

The four types of verbs exhibit different aspectual properties. As far as English is concerned, activity verbs and accomplishment verbs can be used in progressive, whereas achievement and state verbs usually can not. According to Fagan, the crucial restriction on middle formation in English is the following:

Aspectual condition: Only (transitive) activities and accomplishments undergo middle formation.

Consider how examples of each aspectual class fare with respect to middles formation. The contrast between the examples in (1a) and (1b) and those in (2a) and (2b) lends support to Fagan's generalization.

(1) a. This pipe smokes nicely.
  b. Bob Ross-style pictures paint easily.
(2) a. *A red-winged blackbird recognizes easily.
  b. *That answer knows easily.

However, in English, some achievement verbs, which run counter to aspectual condition, can also undergo middle formation (as shown in 3).

(3) Glass breaks easily.

This sentence is accepted by many scholars as a genuine middle sentence, but the verb break, clearly an achievement verb and expressing an instantaneous breaking event, do not comply with aspectual condition.

Obviously, aspectual condition is too general to work for all instances of middles. Still sometimes aspectually eligible verb pair (verbs that pass aspectual condition), however, demonstrates great asymmetry in middle formation. A

famous contrast in middle formation is that between sell and buy. The former but not the latter can undergo middle formation, as in (4):

(4)   a. The new Saramago sells like water in a desert.
        b. *The new Saramago buys with great difficulty, the distribution is bad.
(Ackema and Schoorlemmer 2002)

To account for this contrast, Fagan proposes an additional constraint. The condition is that the properties of the grammatical subject also hold responsibility in the process of middle formation, which will be discussed in more details in the next subsection.

B. Properties of the Grammatical Subject

The classical restriction concerning the properties the grammatical subject/ logical object must have in order for a middle to be well-formed is the following:

Responsibility condition: The grammatical subject of a middle (if present) must have properties such that it can be understood to be responsible for the action expressed by the predicate.

See how this accounts for the sell-buy contrast in (4). A book can have properties which make it responsible for being sold easily: it can be well written, or have an attractive cover, or contain a lot of sex and violence, and so on. In contrast, although it can be difficult to buy a book because it is hard to find, or because you do not have enough money, those are not properties of the book itself. It is very hard to imagine a book having intrinsic properties which makes buying it easy or difficult, hence the unacceptability of (4b).This condition also holds of (3).The sentence in (3) can be explained by an appeal to responsibility condition: glass certainly has properties which make it easy to break it.

According to responsibility condition, in order for the properties of the grammatical subject to hold responsibility for the action expressed by the predicate, the grammatical subject must exist prior to the action rather than come into existence as a result of the action. In other words, from the existence of an entity comes the responsibility it bears on the action, but not the other way around.

This is where anti-effectedness condition comes in.

Anti-effectedness condition: The subject in a middle should not be an effected object of the verb.

This restriction has been proposed by Zwart (1998). The notion "effected" should not be confused with "affected." An effected object is one that comes into existence by the action denoted by the verb.

Now let's see how this condition works for middle formation.

(5)   a. ?This house builds easily.
        b. ?This picture paints easily.

Clearly, this house comes into existence as a result of the building. Similarly this picture is created by the painting, both of which run counter to anti-effectedness condition. Note that, looking at the verbs build and paint, they are a subset of Vendler's classification of accomplishments, eligible for middle formation. That means the anti-effected condition seems to be in opposition to Fagan's aspectual condition in.

Note, however, that examples in (5) are independently ruled out by another restriction on middle formation. This is the responsibility condition, which states that the subject of a middle "must have properties such that it can be understood to be responsible for the action expressed by the predicate". The subjects in (5) cannot possibly comply with this restriction precisely because they only come into existence as a result of that action.

This interesting factor can be neutralized by using generic arguments as subjects (logical objects). A specific house that comes into being as a result of some building action cannot have any properties before it is finished which could make it responsible for building being difficult. However, a generic class of (a particular type of) houses certainly can have properties such that building a house of that type is difficult. As it turns out, examples like this are fine with generic subjects (see (6)).

(6)   a. The house of that type builds easily.
        b. Bob Ross-style pictures paint easily.

In summary, of the two conditions of the grammatical subject on middle formation, responsibility condition is the fundamental one, because the subject "must have properties such that it can be understood to be responsible for the action expressed by the predicate" entails a subject not being "an effected object", which would otherwise fail to hold that kind of responsibility. In this respect, we can say that anti-effectedness condition is a corollary to responsibility condition. Therefore; responsibility condition takes precedence over anti-effectedness, since exceptions to the former will result in ill-formedness even when they are in compliance with the latter. In other words, the former is more operative than the latter in this respect.

The sentence in (4b) complies with anti-effected condition, but due to violation of responsibility condition, it is unacceptable to different extents.

C. Properties of the Logical Subject

As far as the properties of the logical subject are concerned, there is also a condition on middle formation, namely agentivity condition (Abraham 1986; Pitz 1987; Roberts 1987).

Agentivity condition: The logical subject in a middle must be an agent.

This condition alone, without any appeal to other conditions, is capable of capturing the following contrast between the possible middles in (7) and the impossible ones in (8):

(7) a. Bureaucrats bribe easily.
     b. That book reads well.
     c. Greek does not translate easily.
(8) a.*The Effel Tower sees easily.
     b.*The answers knows easily.
     c.*Spies don't recognize easily.
(Ackema and Schoorlemmer 2002)

The distinction between (7) and (8) follows from the agentivity condition, because the subject argument of bribe, read and translate are agents, whereas the subject arguments of see, know, and recognize are not.

Of course the contrast can also be accounted for by applying aspectual condition, according to which, the verbs see, know, and recognize fall under either achievement verbs or stative verbs, neither eligible for middle formation. In this regard, we can say that agentivity condition and aspectual condition overlap, or rather, the former is a supplemental condition to the latter, for it will facilitate targeting the middable verbs, whose subcategories are sometimes difficult to determine according to Vendler's classification.

III. THE CORE RESTRICTION ON ENGLISH MIDDLE FORMATION

Let us make a short summary where we stand at this point concerning the restrictions on middle formation. One question that naturally presents itself is which condition is the core condition and which conditions are peripherals. A useful test to tackle this issue is to try to find out which condition has the final say in licensing English middle formation when other conditions are not complied with. See how this work in the following examples:

(9) a. *The finish line reaches easily. (in violation of aspectual condition)
     b. *This wall hits easily. (in violation of agentivity condition)
     c. ?That picture paints easily. (in violation of anti-effectedness condition)
     d. *The new Saramago buys with great difficulty, the distribution is bad. (in violation of responsibility condition)

In (9a), the verb reach is an achievement verb, thus ruled out by aspectual condition; (9b) do not seem to have implicit agent arguments in the relevant sense; in (9c) that picture does not come into existence before it is painted, bearing "an effected object of the verb"; (9d), as discussed before, runs counter to responsibility condition.

However, in addition to the last one, all the other three examples are ruled out just by the responsibility condition. Consider the example in (9a): a finish line cannot have any properties that make reaching it easy. (The distance between start and finish line can be such that reaching the finish line is easy-but that distance is not a property of the finish line). Now the second example (9b): it's hard to imagine a wall having properties that make hitting it easy. For (9c), a specific picture that comes into being as a result of some painting action cannot have any properties before it is finished (i,e., before it actually is that specific picture) which could make it responsible for painting being easy.

More importantly, responsibility condition not only has the final say in licensing middle formation, it is also that condition that helps save some ill-formed middles by assigning some properties (if possible) in order for the grammatical subject to be responsible. Examples in (9b.c) appear to improve considerably when a generic subject is used (see 10).

(10) a. Quick opponents do not hit easily. (said by one boxer to another)
      b. Bob Ross-style pictures paint easily.

At the present stage, it seems fair to conclude that responsibility condition is the core restriction working as a necessary condition to license middle formation. Aspectual condition, selecting for possible middable verb, anti-effected condition, a corollary to responsibility condition (as we claimed before) and agentivity condition, a supplemental condition to aspectual condition, they are all peripheral conditions in order for middles to be possible. Because they are peripherals, there are more conditions than we have discussed: affectedness condition, anti-double object condition, argument sensitivity condition, to name just a few. Just like a computer, CPU is the core configuration, while peripheral configurations may vary from a network card, bluetooth mouse to a webcam, a scanner or whatever. Peripheral configurations will most probably become even pluralistic in the future, but the core CPU is the most fundamental and can not be dispensed with. Even all the configurations, whether the core or peripherals are all available, the computer still may not work, for it may break down for other reasons.

IV. CONCLUSION

In summary, the restrictions on English middle formation finally boil down to responsibility condition. All the well-formed middle constructions pass the responsibility condition, while those passing other conditions but running counter to responsibility condition, fail to undergo middle formation with no exception. In other words, responsibility condition is the core restriction in filtering out ill-formed middle constructions. The fact that responsibility condition is expressed in imperative language (by using "must") has misled many readers to regard it as prescriptive, while the truth is that responsibility condition is meant to describe what actually happens in middle constructions: the grammatical subject of

English middle construction bears the properties such that it holds responsibility for the action expressed by the predicate. In other words, English middle constructions are not used to report an action or events, because the grammatical subject must exist prior to the action rather than come into existence as a result of the action. That is also consistent with the universally accepted feature of English middle constructions--non-eventiveness.

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The Relationship between Reading Comprehension and Figurative Competence in L2 Learners

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Abstract—Though many L2 studies have explored the development of figurative language competence (e.g., Cain, Oakhill, & Lemmon, 2005; Li, 2010), few studies have examined the relationship between idiom comprehension and L2 learners' reading comprehension in consonance with their proficiency levels. This study aimed at assessing the relationship between comprehending opaque and transparent idioms and L2 learners' ability to comprehend a text. It was hypothesized that an L2 learner's proficiency level and figurative competence were interwoven. To do so, 49 Iranian senior B.A. students of English were divided into 2 groups of skilled and less-skilled reading comprehenders in line with the results of a TOEFL test. They were presented with 30 short texts, ending with idiom fragments (e.g., *Paul broke the . . .* for the idiom *to break the ice*) and asked to select the appropriate words from among the 3 options: idiomatic, literal, and figurative. Later, the same texts were given to 185 freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors to cross-examine their figurative competence. Results revealed that the skilled readers were superior to the less-skilled ones in comprehending both the opaque ($F = 25.107$, $df = 48$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.00$) and the transparent idioms ($F = 23.313$, $df = 48$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.00$). Also, from among the 4 university levels, the seniors' performance differed greatly from that of the freshmen, sophomores, and juniors, who did all approximately the same on the idiom test ($F = 38.909$, $df = 184$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.00$). Findings may contribute to exploring the process of idiom understanding by demonstrating a link between idiom comprehension and text comprehension. Thus, the growth of one might affect the progress of the other.

Index Terms—figurative competence, idiom comprehension, opaque idioms, reading comprehension, transparent idioms

I. INTRODUCTION

As stated by Cooper (1999), most English speakers utter about 10 million novel metaphors and 20 million idioms during their lifetime. This is about 3000 novel metaphors and 7000 idioms per week. That is why idioms have long caught the acute eyes of both linguists and psycholinguists (e.g., Gibbs, 1991; Levorato, 1993; Nippold & Duthie, 2003; Nippold & Taylor, 2002). As long as idioms are extremely omnipresent in every aspect of L1 speakers' use of language, and as some researchers (e.g., Ellis, 1997; Yorio, 1989) contend, L2 learners need to equip themselves with adequate skills, knowledge, and fitting use and comprehension of idioms. Therefore, idioms are indispensable indicators of L2 learners' fluency that help them integrate into the social communication and cultural aspects of an L2 because idioms are fixed expressions that save effort in processing and act as discoursal time-buyers (Lennon, 1998).

Idiom is highly a heterogeneous community that stretches on a "continuum of compositionality." At one end of the spectrum stand the "transparent idioms," whereas the other end nestles the "opaque idioms." Transparent idioms (e.g., to give somebody the green light) are figurative expressions whose meanings can be effortlessly derivable due to the crystalline connection between the literal meanings of the expressions and their idiomatic interpretations (Boers & Demecheleer, 2001). On the other hand, the constituent words comprising opaque idioms (e.g., to pull someone's leg) do not make a significance contribution towards the decoding of the idiomatic meaning. Transparent idioms are easier to comprehend which does not bear comparison with the comprehension of opaque idioms. This study adopts a subjective approach towards the classification of transparent and opaque idioms.

Exposure hypothesis is a view that accounts for idiom acquisition. It suggests that the ability to understand the idiomatic meaning is solely achievable via mere exposure and the familiarity of idioms. If so, the comprehension of idioms should not undergo any changes when presented out of context. In addition, exposure hypothesis cannot provide a reliable assumption for the developmental view of idiom comprehension (Cain, Oakhill, & Lemmon, 2005). By contrast, global elaboration model (GEM) contends that idiom understanding is associated with academic achievements

in reading (Nippold, Moran, & Schwards, 2001). That is, the ability to interpret a phrase to the story context is coupled with the ability to comprehend an idiom which can be merely realized through the inclusion of reading texts.

In light of GEM, it is unsubtly predicted that skilled readers are much better able to monitor their understanding of idioms in comparison with less-skilled readers. More specifically, skilled readers make use of various reading skills when they face an idiom, especially an opaque one, such as: (a) the ability to build up inferences moving from the single word level to the sentence level (Oakhill & Yuill, 1996); (b) the ability to choose the most appropriate meaning of a word from among its several possible meanings (Perfetti, 1999); and (c) the ability to suppress the meanings of the constituent words of an idiom irrelevant to the figurative meaning (Gernsbacher & Faust, 1991).

However, almost all that has been proposed by GEM has been boundlessly applied to L1 contexts and has not been systematically carried out on L2 learners. This study is regarded to enjoy a sense of novelty because only few previous L2 studies (e.g., Irujo, 1986b; Liontas, 2001, 2002) mainly focused on idiom comprehension by taking the principles of GEM into account. Thus, this study aims at filling this gap by taking the view that L2 learners' idiomatic comprehension might be pertinent to their reading comprehension proficiency.

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

As Gibbs (1980) claims, idioms are the most vital parts of every human language because speakers can express their feelings and experiences better through uttering idioms. That is why the expression to blow your sack is a better representative of one's anger than its literal paraphrase (i.e., to be very angry). A unified definition for idioms has always been a disputable issue. Fernando (1996) defines idioms as "conventionalized multiword expressions often, but not always, nonliteral" (p. 38). Also, Sprenger, Levelt, and Kempen (2006) believe that if there is any relationship between an idiom and its constituent words, it will generally be indirect. Another definition by Saeed (2003) introduces idioms as a group of words that collocate until they are transformed into a fossilized term. Each component word of the collocation is redefined to make an idiomatic expression.

Coming across any figures of speech, specifically idioms in this study, one has to break the walls of literal interpretation and penetrate into the communicative intent of the speakers and dig out their original meaning to let full comprehension take place. However, most idioms can be interpreted both figuratively and literally. What can differentiate between these two correct interpretations is the context in which they are used.

There are two broad views on the representation and processing of idioms called "traditional (noncompositional) views" and "current (compositional) views." According to the traditional views, idioms are regarded as lexical items which exist as chunks and are not recognized by linguistic processing but by memory retrieval. The word noncompositional is implied here to indicate the lack of contribution of idiom constituent in the determination of its meaning. For instance, according to this view, the components of an opaque idiom, such as to kick the bucket have no role in clarifying the idiomatic meaning of this expression. Contrary to the traditional view, the current view believes that idioms are not mainly regarded as noncompositional strings, that is, the relationship between the literal and the idiomatic meaning is not entirely arbitrary. These two general perspectives gave rise to some hypotheses mentioned below.

According to idiom list or literal first hypothesis (Bobrow & Bell, 1973), idioms are stored in an idiom lexicon as whole chunks which are distinct from the general lexicon. Swinney and Cutler (1979) proposed the lexical representation hypothesis which contrasts with idiom list hypothesis. It emphasizes that idioms are located as a single lexical unit in the general lexicon with other lexical units. Gibbs (1980) puts out the direct access hypothesis (i.e., figurative first hypothesis) to oppose Bobrow and Bell's account. He maintains that after hearing the idiomatic string, the idiomatic meaning will be directly retrieved from the mental lexicon without resorting to the literal sense. Cacciari and Tabossi (1988) criticized the ambiguity of Swinney and Cutler's (1979) lexical representation hypothesis as well as Gibbs' (1980) perspective on idiom interpretation. They based their view on the nonexistence of idioms in the mental lexicon. Moreover, different idioms are processed differently according to this hypothesis. As for the predictable idioms, their idiomatic meaning is motivated when the last component of the idiom string emerges. On the contrary, when unpredictable idioms are heard, their literal meaning is activated first and the idiomatic one is accessed later. On the other hand, the contemporary views of current perspectives focuses on decomposability, that is, if the individual components of an idiom do not contribute to its idiomatic meaning, the idiom is called opaque (e.g., to kick the bucket), but if this contribution takes place, the idiom is termed transparent (e.g., to get away from murder).

Most of what is known about idiom processing and comprehension originates from investigations on children who progressively try to develop their L1 figurative competence (e.g., Arnold & Hornett, 1990; Levorato & Cacciari, 1995; Nippold & Rudzinski, 1993; Titone & Connine, 1994). However, it is worth appreciating the efforts of those who have tried to offer suggestions on the process of teaching and learning idioms in L2 situations through the conduction of some studies (e.g., Abel, 2003; Duquette, 1995; Irujo, 1986a; Lattey, 1994; Lennon, 1998; Mäntylä 2004; McCaskey, 1994; Otier, 1986; Richards, 1996; Sadeghi, Vahid Dastjerdi, & Ketabi 2010). The findings that have been reported to date have not specifically focused on the relationship between idiom comprehension and the ability to comprehend a reading text. Thus, the present study is predominantly an attempt to find out the relationship between comprehending transparent and opaque idioms and reading ability of L2 learners with different levels of reading comprehension by presenting the following questions:

1. Do the skilled text comprehenders outperform the less-skilled ones in comprehending opaque idioms?
2. Do the skilled text comprehenders outperform the less-skilled ones in comprehending transparent idioms?
3. Does L2 learners' proficiency level make a significant difference in their figurative competence?

It is hoped that the findings of this study may be attributed to L2 pedagogy because, technically speaking, any possible relationship between the ability to comprehend a reading text and idiom understanding may drop some handy hints about what strategies L2 learners need to hinge on to have a better idiomatic understanding.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total number of 185 Iranian freshmen, sophomore, junior, and senior B.A. students of English, including 115 females and 70 males, aged 18-30, were randomly selected from Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan and Shahrekord University. The rationale behind choosing the participants from four levels of university was to study the relationship between their English proficiency and their figurative competence.

B. Materials

The skilled and the less-skilled readers were selected based on the results of a TOEFL test. The participants were also presented with 30 texts (see Appendix A), including 14 short texts and 16 conversations with one idiom embedded in each and one multiple-choice question following each. The 30 idiomatic expressions, their definitions, and their classification into transparent and opaque idioms are shown in Appendix B.

The criterion for counting an expression as an idiom was *NTC's American Idioms Dictionary* (2000). The texts were extracted from three sources: *Live Idioms in the Context* (2004), *English Idioms in Use* (2002), and *101 American English Idioms* (1994). As for the selection of the conversations, the books *Speak English Like an American* (2004), *Basic Idioms in American English* (1981), and *101 American English Idioms* (1994) were consulted. Each text was followed by one multiple-choice question designed by five English native speakers. Some options of the multiple-choice questions were also driven from among the examples given for the entries in *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2002).

C. Procedure

Prior to the experimental phase, a list of 35 idioms was given to 20 English teachers and two English university professors, and they were requested to divide the idioms into two groups of 15 opaque and 15 transparent idioms. After the classification of the idioms was made, one multiple-choice question was designed for each reading text, including three choices: idiomatic, figurative, and literal choices, among which the idiomatic choice was the correct answer. The figurative choices (e.g., *to break the morale*) were provided by five native speakers of English settling in London because they were neither idiomatic expressions nor literal ones and could not be profoundly found in reliable sources. After piloting ($r = 0.78$) the texts via Cronbach's Alpha, a group of 185 participants, including 32 freshmen, 54 sophomores, 50 juniors, and 49 seniors were presented with 30 texts to have their figurative competence cross-examined.

In addition, for the sake of determining the relationship between idiom comprehension and reading proficiency of the participants, the same 49 seniors were presented with a paper-based TOEFL test. After the results were revealed, the participants were divided into 25 less-skilled and 24 skilled readers who were presented with the reading texts.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

As seen in Tables 1 and 2, both the skilled and the less-skilled reading comprehenders showed a significant difference in comprehending the transparent idioms ($F = 23.313$, $df = 1$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.000$) and the opaque ones ($F = 25.107$, $df = 1$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.000$).

TABLE 1.
ONE-WAY ANNOVA FOR THE COMPREHENSION OF THE TRANSPARENT IDIOMS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	140.082[a]	1	140.082	23.313	.000
Intercept	5908.572	1	5908.572	983.339	.000
Level	140.082	1	140.082	23.313	.000
Error	282.408	47	6.009		
Total	6242.000	49			
Corrected Total	422.490	48			

Note. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

TABLE 2.
ONE -WAY ANNOVA FOR THE COMPREHENSION OF THE TRANSPARENT IDIOMS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	99.326[a]	1	99.326	25.107	.000
Intercept	4847.407	1	4847.407	1225.279	.000
level	99.326	1	99.326	25.107	.000
Error	185.940	47	3.956		
Total	5066.000	49			
Corrected Total	285.265	48			

Note. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As *p* value is less than α, the first and the second null hypotheses presented below are rejected:

• There is no difference between the skilled text comprehenders and the less-skilled ones in comprehending the transparent idioms.

• There is no difference between the skilled text comprehenders and the less-skilled ones in comprehending the opaque idioms.

In order to measure the potential difference between the mean scores of the four groups, the scores of the idiom test were subjected to statistical analysis, applying a one-way ANOVA (see Table 3):

TABLE 3.
ONE-WAY ANNOVA FOR THE FOUR GROUPS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2695.836[a]	3	898.612	38.909	.000
Intercept	35805.785	1	35805.785	1550.373	.000
level	2695.836	3	898.612	38.909	.000
Error	4180.186	181	23.095		
Total	45584.000	185			
Corrected Total	6876.022	184			

Note. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As Table 3 shows, the four groups differed from one another regarding their figurative competence (F = 38.909, df = 3, α = 0.05, p = 0.000). As p value is less than α, the third null hypothesis presented below is rejected, too:

• L2 learners' proficiency level does not make a significant difference in their figurative competence.

In order to find the pair groups that were significantly different, the scores of the four groups were subjected to post-hoc analysis shown in Table 4:

TABLE 4.
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS OF THE FOUR GROUPS

	(I) Proficiency Level	(J) Proficiency Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
LSD	Freshmen	Sophomores	-1.63	1.072	.131	-3.74	.49
		Juniors	-2.14	1.088	.051	-4.29	.01
		Seniors	-9.93[*]	1.092	.000	-12.09	-7.78
	Sophomores	Freshmen	1.63	1.072	.131	-.49	3.74
		Juniors	-.51	.943	.587	-2.37	1.35
		Seniors	-8.31[*]	.948	.000	-10.18	-6.44
	Juniors	Freshmen	2.14	1.088	.051	-.01	4.29
		Sophomores	.51	.943	.587	-1.35	2.37
		Seniors	-7.79[*]	.966	.000	-9.70	-5.89
	Seniors	Freshmen	9.93[*]	1.092	.000	7.78	12.09
		Sophomores	8.31[*]	.948	.000	6.44	10.18
		Juniors	7.79[*]	.966	.000	5.89	9.70

Note. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4 shows that the major difference was between the seniors' figurative competence and the other three groups (i.e., freshmen, sophomores, and juniors) because p value is less than α (α = 0.05, p = .000).

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This research was primarily undertaken to seek for the possible relationship between the ability to comprehend a reading text and the ability to understand opaque and transparent idioms in relation to four proficiency levels (i.e., freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors) of Persian L2 learners. The findings indicated that the seniors, considered to have the highest proficiency level, outperformed the other three levels in comprehending both the transparent and the

opaque idioms. However, regarding idiom comprehension, and surprisingly enough, the freshmen, sophomores, and juniors did not exhibit significant statistical differences. Hence, it is within a compelling reason to conclude that L2 learners' proficiency level and idiom comprehension are positively associated. That is, the more L2 learners improve their proficiency level, the better they are able to infer that a literal interpretation of an idiom is inconsistence with the surrounding semantic context of the idiom.

The other questions of this study were posed to see if the senior skilled and the less-skilled readers perform differently in comprehending the opaque and the transparent idioms. The results indicated that the skilled readers overrode the less-skill ones in comprehending both types of idioms, which is in line with those of GEM. As mentioned earlier, GEM, which was suggested by Levorato and Cacciari (1995, 1999), predicts that inadequate reading comprehension skills deteriorate the ability to follow the coherence of the reading text in order to put the required information together which can be used for the deduction of the nonliteral interpretation of idioms. GEM was mostly applied in L1 contexts, but the results of this study can confirm its reliable application for L2 learners because it supports the fact that the ability to chose the idiomatic answers is based on the capacity to construct a coherent semantic representation of the story context. Accordingly, Cain, Oakhill, and Lemmon (2005) maintain that "context might facilitate the interpretation of figurative language by providing the necessary semantic information from which readers can extract or infer the appropriate sense of expression" (p. 67).

To encapsulate, if L2 instructors and researchers hope to make a substantial contribution into the domain of figurative competence, they are requested to abandon to treat idioms as other lexical items which can be learnt by L2 learners on their own. This Cinderella's sister (i.e., idiom) deserves to be positioned more desirably in L2 curricula by its inclusion in natural contexts similar to those of L1. Also, future research could address other variables rather than context and idiom type to widen further views on the way idioms are comprehended.

APPENDIX A SAMPLE TEXT & CONVERSATION WITH AN EMBEDDED IDIOM FRAGMENT

Directions: *Please read the following text. Choose the best choice and mark it (√) on your answer-sheet.*
Peter decided to clean the house to surprise his mother. When he was dusting, he suddenly knocked over an expensive pot which was very special for his mom. He was so panicked and sad. When his mother got home, he wanted to tell her everything. It was very difficult to break the ....
1. a) pot   b) ice   c) morale
Liz: Did you know that Harry was going to take Kathy on south waters?
Tom: Yeah! He was planning on surprising her with the tickets for their anniversary, but someone spilled the ....
Liz: What a shame! That was supposed to be a surprise.
2. a) waters   b) emotions   c) beans

APPENDIX B TYPES OF IDIOMS, IDIOMS, & DEFINITIONS

Type of Idioms	Idioms	Definitions
Transparent	To bury the hatchet	To stop fighting or arguing
	To stick to one's guns	To remain firm in one's convictions
	To shed (some) light on something	To reveal something about something
	To break the ice	To get something started
	To leave somebody out in the cold	To exclude someone
	To keep one's fingers crossed	To wish for luck for someone or something
	To step into one's shoes	To take over a job or some role from someone
	To lose one's temper	To become angry
	To burn one's bridges	To make decisions that cannot be changed in the future
	To cost an arm and a leg	To cost too much
	To keep one's chin up	To keep one's spirit high
	To twist somebody's arm	To force or persuade someone
	To give someone the cold shoulder	To ignore someone
	To leave somebody high and dry	To leave someone helpless
	To roll up one's sleeves	To get ready to do some work
Opaque	To give something a shot	To try something
	To kick the bucket	To die
	To give someone the slip	To escape from or elude someone
	To bite the bullet	To put up with or endure something
	To spill the beans	To reveal a secret or a surprise by accident
	To hit the books	To begin to study
	To bite the dust	To fall to defeat
	To make a bundle	To make a lot of money
	To get off one's case	To stop picking on someone
	To pull somebody's leg	To kid, fool, or trick someone
	To blow one's top	To become very angry
	To hit the roof	To become very angry
	To lose one's shirt	To lose all of one's assets
	To hold one's horses	To wait a minute and be reasonable
	To beat around the bush	To waste time

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A Research on Cultural Differences Impact on Sino-US Business Negotiation

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Abstract—As a part of communication, cultural differences affect business negotiation deeply. In a globalizing world today, with international business happened frequently, cultural differences bring influence to communication, any misunderstanding of it may directly affect the business. Therefore, it makes sense for the countries of different cultural backgrounds to understand each other. With the entry into the 21st century and China's access to the WTO, Sino-U.S. trade and economy has developed rapidly, and it is necessary for the negotiators from two countries to understand the cultural differences and make full use of the beneficial strategies.

Index Terms—cultural difference, Sino-U.S. business, strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, with the development of the world economy and globalization, more and more international business frequently happened in different countries. As a result, business becomes more and more intercultural. Today, as an important part of intercultural communication, negotiation has received increasing attention. With the rapid development of globalization and China's prosperous economy day by day, especially with its success of holding the Olympic Games, China, the biggest developing country in the world, has become a major business partner of America. China and the United States, the two largest cultural groups and trading countries, will unavoidably encounter cultural differences. Today, as business relations between China and the United States grow, as well as the frequency of business negotiations among the people from those two countries. Under such circumstance, the business between China and the United States has developed in a rapid rate, more and more negotiations carried out between the two countries. The cultural differences bring not only the challenges, but also the opportunities to the trade between the two countries. This article focuses on the study of cultural differences between China and the United States. It provides the ways to deal with the Sino-U.S. cultural difference, which correctly appears in the negotiation process, thus giving some reasonable suggestions that enable the negotiation between two sides carry on smoothly.

Lisa Hope Pelled has pointed out in his theory: "Negotiation is a process of joint decision making among people with different preferences." A formal definition of negotiation is the research content of psychology, politics, which plays an important role in human cooperation actions. As an important form of communication, intercultural negotiation varies from culture to culture. The business negotiation process is generally more complex because cultural differences may influence effective communication.

II. PRESENT SITUATION OF SINO-U.S. BUSINESS NEGOTIATION

Since the bilateral business has happened more and more frequently, there is no doubt that international trades between those two countries attract worldwide attention. How to melt different cultural context between China and U.S. in the international business negotiations also learned by the two countries. Along with the frequency of Sino-U.S. business trade, some complex factors happened during the negotiation. As a result, the conflicts in the negotiation process between the two countries increasing intensely, becoming the main obstacles of economy and trade now.

Cultural difference is the foundation of cross-cultural business and it is the key point of Sino-U.S. negotiation. The Sino-U.S. cultural difference lies in the performance of the language and nonverbal communication. Because cultural differences affect on Sino-U.S. negotiation in all aspects, person with a lack of sensitivity often like to use their own cultural model as a basic method to evaluate other people's culture, ideas and customs. It is likely to lead to culture shock. Therefore, for Chinese and the Americans in business negotiations, it is necessary to strengthen the sensitivity of cultural differences.

III. THE ANALYSIS OF AFFECTING FACTORS

A. Verbal and Non-verbal Factors Affecting Sino-U.S. Business Negotiation

Verbal differences mostly refer to language differences. For example, in the verbal communication, people from different countries may not pay attention to the differences that reflected in the meaning or connotation of the words.

As Huchao put in his book intercultural communication, "Language is the carrier of culture; what is more, it is the main form of expression and means of dissemination of culture." Therefore, when the people from different cultures communicate with each other, verbal differences affect on how they send and receive their messages.

Because of cultural differences, the same language in the U.S. and Chinese may cover the different connotations. China is a civilized country that is serious about the etiquette. There were many modest and self-abasement words admired in spoken language since ancient time. When received praise from others, Chinese people are generally modest. Another point in the business conversation is to use appellation to show respect to another in China. On the other hand, American people always advocate equality and they are more straightforward. For instance, in the work place, it is common that younger generation call the elder or even their boss's name. According to praise, the American will accept the praise immediately and show their thanks to them.

Referred to nonverbal communication, people may base their judgment on an evaluation of facial expressions, gestures, eye contact, greeting behaviour, etc. In short, nonverbal signals are silent language symbols for the information exchange. Although nonverbal communication tends to enhance and support language, sometimes they may minimize or even contradict a language.

1) Gesture

The gesture used in business negotiation is to stress a certain viewpoint or strengthen one's tone of language. Appropriate use of gesture will attract counterpart's attention, at the same time, help a good negotiator to express his own anger and displeasure. Similarly, potential meanings contained by gestures in different culture are also different. In business negotiation, successfully distinguish the gesture language as well as the internal meaning within them is an art. As for Sino-U.S. negotiation, Chinese dislike the following gesture: "Extend the hand to the called person with the palm of the hand upward, makes a fist swings with the index finger around." which the Americans usually express to call somebody come. It is also impolite in China when a businessperson from U.S. wants to emphasize a point in a discussion, he may pound his fist on the table and underline his statements with staccato drumming on the table. Another example is when use their fingers in counting 5, Americans, start with the index finger, go on to the little finger, and count the thumb last, that is different from Chinese habits.

2) Facial Expression

The human beings are sentimental animals, so the emotion outpouring is a person's natural disposition. For example, in Chinese, the phrases "beam with smiles" and "bristle with anger" are the sentiment reveal on the facial expression. Similarly, the appropriate facial expression displays in the appropriate time may also promote the language expression. However, even if is the most basic facial expression - smile, also has different meaning in the different cultural human relations.

As for Americans, related to smile is the laugh. Americans regard laugh as deepest emotion comes from the body and mind. In the negotiation process, the American think that the smile is a symbolic of enthusiasm and friendship, so businessmen in America like to beam with smiles. Compared to Americans, Chinese people are more cautious of smile. Besides the expression of cheerful emotion, the Chinese also use smile to conceal their tension, embarrass, anger when necessary. As for Chinese businesspersons, they usually avoid optional smile, which means unserious attitude in negotiation. What's more, smile is to change a topic or exaggerate the atmosphere in the negotiation process.

Another important facial expression in business negotiation is silence. The stop of the conversation regarded as deep consideration for the Chinese people. On the other hand, the majority of Americans felt irritable and nervous to such long silence.

To make a better understanding, it requests businessperson between two countries to be good at watching people's every mood carefully in the negotiation. This will give a hand to catch the accurate emotional information the opposite party hide behind their facial expression.

3) Eye Contact

"The eyes are the windows of the mind, even if the look is written in water, it can launch thousands of information, express several of emotion and intention." (Yu Muhong, 2005, p.48)

From the former expressing, we can find the eye could transmit and express the exquisite feeling of human. Studies show that an individual tends to make eye contact with others more frequently if they approve of their idea. In general, during conversation people look at each other between 30 and 60 percent of the time. If their eye contact lasts for more than 60 percent, they are probably more interested in each other. For an instance, if they are lovers or arguers.

However, the expression of eye is irrevocable due to different culture or human communication. Rules governing eye contact are different in different cultures, and that differences can make people feel uncomfortable. People comment that men from the U.S. are cold and do not know how to establish eye contact. For example, in U.S., it is customary to look at the speaker's mouth when listening but make occasional eye contact with the listener when speaking. In China, however, it is opposite.

Under certain circumstances, eye contact is better than words. In business negotiation, the Americans thought a person who dares to face up the opposite party with eye contact as honest and straightforward, on the other hand, a person avoid eye contact is regarded as not interested at the table, this is so-called "Not trust a person who can't look you in the eyes" in American. In a word, it is impolite to stare at the opposite party when negotiation happened, but it

may also regarded as distrust, or even bring bad impression if we talked at the table without eye contact. Therefore, businesspersons between China and the U.S. should consider the eye contact carefully in business negotiation.

4) Greeting Behavior

Greeting behavior and send-off etiquette are important parts of the nonverbal language in business negotiation. Greeting behavior creates an opportunity to start a good relationship with the other party from every beginning and the send-off etiquette may lay a smooth path for future cooperation.

When you meet your counterparts, it is important to wear formal dress. In dress code, Americans usually dress according to location and type of business. For example, visitors usually wear a suit and tie to the first meeting with a new contact. On the other hand, In China, suit, white shirt, conservative tie for men and conservative suit or dress for women.

Handshake is another important factor in greeting. A firm handshake gives the impression of confidence and shows the person is glad to meet you. The handshake is the most commonly used behavior on the first meeting, it also serves as generally international courtesy. The handshake is simply, but this small movement is actually relate to individual and company's image, sometimes affects the negotiations success. The Chinese people often shake hand while saying "hello". In his or her opinion, handshake at the first time usually means roping somebody's hand, generally cannot be overweight. However, as for Americans, handshake in the meeting should with power, grasp too lightly is considered as weak or lack of confident. For Americans there are some common rules: female should first extend a hand to male at the meeting; owner asking for handshake of their guests. Above rules should attract negotiator's attention as a greeting behavior.

B.   Other Cultural Factors Affecting Sino-U.S. Business Negotiation

1) Customs

Just as a saying goes, "Custom is the great guide of human life". Knowing the customs of a country is prerequisite to understand the soul of that country and its people. Due to the differences of cultural background and the way of being educated, there is great difference between China and the U.S. in customs. These differences somewhat restrict people's action in certain area, such as business, speech, festival.

2) Values

China and U.S. hold different values due to the influence of different regions and political system. Chinese attach great importance to collectivism while the Americans praise individualism. The difference in value leads to other differences. For example, China advocates harmony and unification while the U.S. prizes for seeking self-value and self-honor.

3) Concepts

Thinking influenced by culture and other element. There is big difference on the way of thinking between China and America. For example, the Chinese's way of thinking is visual, intuitive and composite, while American's way of thinking is individual, nonfigurative and idiographic. Chinese's dialectical thinking was well interpreted by "the Golden Mean", in negotiation strategy, which tends to seek compromise and balance. Well, American's logic thinking is materialized on exploiting and innovation. They like to analyze the essence characteristics of things.

IV.   STRATEGIES FOR SINO-U.S. BUSINESS NEGOTIATION

As I illustrated above, we've found the cultural differences are really existed in the negotiation between the two countries with different cultural backgrounds. As a result, Great concentration should be made on the beneficial strategies for the Sino-U.S. business.

A.   Accurate Language Strategy

In order to advance its national interest, China carries out practical policy to the outside world. Since language serves as an important tool in international communication, it is necessary for China to use it in an accurate way in Sino-U.S. negotiation. When negotiate with the U.S. counterpart, Chinese traders should adopt practical language strategy. That is, in the Sino-U.S. negotiation process, use language as accurate as possible, and show each part's opinion straightforward. When negotiators of both sides come across different ideas, it is wise to argue in a calm way. It is also important for Chinese businesspersons to avoid using such as "possibly", "perhaps" or other ambiguous words as reply to their American counterpart. At the same time, the expression should stress firmly without any reluctance of saying "no" when there is no agreement reached in the negotiation. It is important to tell opposite party our own manner and thought explicitly.

B.   Win-Win strategy

The negotiations should not be zero and gambling, but long process that both sides seek the common ground step by step until obtain a win-win result with double satisfaction. Win-Win situation is the successful outcome. Both sides feel that they have received a fair deal and walk away satisfied. So they will get chance to do business again in the future. In Sino-U.S. negotiation, both sides should fit into different negotiation phases, adjust the way of communication and try to consider the common interests. Since Americans regards negotiation as solving problems through "give and take"

based on respective strengths. It is wise that China obtain win-win strategy with domestic development. As China develops rapidly and stead headway is made in China-U.S. cooperation, more and more Americans will understand and trusting with great interest in Sino-U.S. negotiation.

C. Harmonious Environment Strategy

Cultural environment can influence the way in which persons perceive and approach certain key elements in the negotiation process. Knowledge of these cultural differences may help negotiators to better understand and interpret their counterpart's negotiation behavior and find ways to bridge gaps. It is advisable that Chinese negotiators should first show their respect to the different culture and customs of their American counterparts, for example, U.S. negotiators tend to talk to the specific clause directly in negotiation process, so Chinese sides could put the clause at the beginning of the negotiation process to create a fair atmosphere. This will also give a hand to make American negotiators feel being respected, in return, they will also show expect to different behaviors in Chinese sides. Furthermore, understanding leads to trust, so both sides will achieve their outcome in such harmonious environment.

D. Time Efficiency Strategy

American does prefer speedy negotiations and get annoyed with too much extraneous socializing or postponement. They are used to cutting deals short just to save time. In America, negotiators usually make decision on the facts. They do not play favorites. On the other hand, decision-making process in China is usually ineffective. This is because most Chinese companies have bottom-up decision-making system, which involves many people in decision-making; they also like to socialize counterparts as basic courtesy. Knowing that culture difference, China should observe the principle of "business is business", take use of the time efficiently in the negotiation process.

V. CONCLUSION

With the rapid development of international business and intercultural communication, the China and the U.S. urgently need to understand cultural differences between them to carry out negotiation. The previous research in this article leads to some conclusions.

China and the U.S. are two countries with their own patterns in negotiation due to different cultural background, either pattern has its advantages and disadvantages. It is essential to show respect to each culture. At present, as powerful and insidious force in communication, cultural difference often exists visibly or invisibly in intercultural business. As a result, conflicts and misunderstandings are unavoidable in international negotiation. As a professional negotiator, it is our contention to enhance sensitivity to cultural differences through the way of using accurate language, adopting win-win strategy, avoiding negative concept.

Thus, if negotiator fully understand and properly get the way to deal with cultural differences, the negotiating process will certainly go smoothly. Since China has entered into the WTO, the opportunity for Chinese businessperson to cooperate with American partners has increasing dramatically. The discussion above will help Sino-U.S. negotiation achieve win-win outcome.

Because the article is based on the large sum of facts and evidence, it is believed that this article will have certain influence on negotiators and help Sino-U.S. business relationship develop in a more harmonious way.

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Variationist Perspective on the Role of Social Variables of Gender and Familiarity in L2 Learners' Oral Interviews

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Abstract—This study investigated the effects of candidates' gender and familiarity with the interviewers on their language variation in oral interviews. For this variationist investigation, 60 university students comprising both males and females were randomly assigned to groups of familiar and unfamiliar with the interviewers. Then, they were interviewed using IELTS interview framework with some modifications .Three linguistic variants, i.e. "to be" contractions, /th/ pronunciations and the use of "he and she" interchangeably were extracted from the data and transcribed for the analysis. Then, they were analyzed using descriptive procedures through tests of frequencies in SPSS software. The results indicated that acquaintanceship with the interviewer might affect speech study of the subjects, the subjects with the unfamiliar interviewer trying to be more formal than the subject with the familiar interviewer .The findings also revealed that candidates' gender affected their use of the speech variants .In fact, the speech styles of males and females were significantly different with the females being more sensitive and conservative with their language behavior in the presence of an unfamiliar interviewer. We can claim that language variation among the candidates is affected by social factors like the sex of interviewees and their familiarity with the interviewers in L2 settings.

Index Terms—language variation, oral interview, social variables gender, familiarity

I. INTRODUCTION

The recent research into oral language interviews has indicated that interviewees vary considerably from each other in relation to their oral performance. A key issue arising from such findings is why interviewees' linguistic behavior in interview situation with non-interview situation vary from each other. Different factors might affect this phenomenon, among which, are the interviewers' characteristics like sex, level of education, social class and familiarity or unfamiliarity with the interviewers.

Various theories have been proposed to account for this phenomenon. These theories can be divided into two general types: The first one includes what Tarone (1995) calls inner processing theories, which draw upon research in various areas of psychology. Thus, this theory seeks to explain variation primarily as the result of psycho linguistic processes of various kinds. The second type, called sociolinguistic and discourse theories, attempts to relate variation to social and functional causes. Thus the cause of interlanguage variation in this group of theories is related to such external social factors like the characteristics of the interviewer or interlocutor, the familiarity of setting and social norms and the communicative pressure placed on the speaker to perform. The number of studies focusing on the effects of social and external factors like interviewers' characteristics and their effects on the oral performance of the subjects is relatively small, especially in our country, but in the area of the influence of sex, background knowledge and L1 on the oral performance of different subjects, there is plenty of research (e.g. O'loughlin, 2002; Tannen 1990;). In referring to the potential effects on performance of qualities of the interviewers, relative to the same qualities in the candidates, McNamara (1996) is echoing Porter's (1991a) suggestion that, what he referred to as affective factors may be responsible for systematic and significant variation in the linguistic performance of test candidates. While McNamara (1996) essentially argues for a move toward a more socio-interactional view of performance, O'Sullivan (2000) suggests that, it might best be viewed from what he refers to as a socio-cognitive perspective, in which the cognitive processing of certain kinds of information is recognized as being socially driven . In this perspective, O'Sullivan like McNamara, sees oral performance as being affected by a number of factors related to the interviewer.

In this study, some linguistic items were transcribed from the data and their possible variation under the effects of the candidates' gender and their acquaintanceship with the interviewers were investigated. One reason to do this was, to see if there was any relations between speech variations of the candidates and their gender and familiarity with the interviewers. In other words, to investigate how the language of the interviewees might vary from one group to the next

under the effects of the social variables (sex of the subjects and their acquaintanceship with the interviewer. The researchers studied the performance of the learners concerning their variable use of certain linguistic items in their oral productions including: Variable use of he/she interchangeably, "to be" present contractions (e.g., I'm, we're) and different pronunciation of /th/ including /Ɵ/ ,/s/ and /t/ by the subjects during their performance, as the criteria of their speech variation which have not been investigated in the previous studies.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Familiarity and Gender in Oral Interviews

A number of researchers distinguish between test features which are irrelevant to the ability which is being measured and those which are relevant to that ability (Porter and Shen Shu Hung, 1991; O'sullivan and Porter, 1995; O'Sullivan 2000). O'Sullivan' s (2002) study explored the possible effect of pair-task performance of test-takers' familiarity with their partner and concludes that learners vary in their oral performance when interacting with familiar or unfamiliar speakers. He did the research with 32 Japanese students and maintained that the results might not be generelizable to other contexts. In another study Porter and Shen Shu Hung, 1991; O'sullivan and Porter, 1995; O'Sullivan 2000). O'Sullivan' s (2002) investigated the effect of gender on oral proficiency interview performance. Twelve Japanese learners were interviewed, once by a man and once by a woman. Video tapes of these interactions were scored by trained examiners. Comparisons of the scores indicated that, in all but one case the learners performed better when interviewed by a woman, regardless of the sex of the learners. Analysis of the learners' interviews indicated systematic gender differences, with producing more accurate language by the females. Porter (1991 a) examined the oral performance of thirteen Arab learners by known and unknown interviewers and found no evidence to support his hypothesized interlocutor-acquaintanceship effect. In fact, acquaintanceship with the interviewers seemed not to play a significant role in the candidates' performances. Cholewka (1997) investigated the linguistic behavior of adult second language learners in an oral interview situation. The subjects in this study were six ESL learners (one female and five male) with the same first language. An oral interview conducted twice with a four-day interval, by two different interviewers. The findings of the study revealed that, in unfamiliar setting in an oral interview situation with unknown interlocutors, ESL learners revert to their native language and produce lower level of oral proficiency in the test. This finding suggests that, a task in an unfamiliar real-life situation may elicit significantly higher proportion of language transfer errors than the same task performed in a familiar environment. Most of the reported studies on L2 learners' oral performances are based on SLA views and the analysis of the results of oral interview raw scores. We argue that linguistic variation in oral interviews might be more sensitive to the candidates' language variability and their probable performance variations caused by social factors such as their sex, social status, ... than their raw scores in oral interview tests. Therefore, this study adopts variationist perspective for the method and data analysis in order to get a more comprehensive impression of the candidates' linguistic behavior.

B. Variationist Perspectives on the Oral Performance of L2 Learners

To investigate the possible effects of the interviewees' gender and their acquaintanceship with the interviewers, on the linguistic variation of the candidates, the researchers used variationist perspective (sociolinguistic view).

In sociolinguistic view of studying oral interviews, the main goal is to make the candidates produce some natural sample of the language in a real context, and variation of language is studied instead of testing its correctitude or ranking the candidates as novice, good etc (Tarone and Liu. ,1989). Young (1988) states that variation is an accepted fact of interlanguage and one of the most pressing problems for second language acquisition is how to describe and explain the highly variable speech of 12 learners. This variation of speech, as Young (1986) explain, is under the effects of the identity of the interlocutor as a member of the learners in-group which affects the speech of learners at all levels of oral proficiency in the second language Variation theory is the attempt on the part of a number of linguists to develop linguistic theory in such a way that it can account for variation and change as going on and observable phenomenon (Fasold, 1989). It reveals that the linguistic environment around an element undergoing variation systematically affects the frequency which each variant might have. However, the social status of the subjects are factors which might influence the frequency of the variants and their occurrence in language learning settings as well. Although some researchers like Gregg (1991) argues that variation is a performance factor and it is not related to the learners' competence so it is not the concern of second language acquisition theorists, Tarone and Liu (1989) focus on external interactions an L2 learner performance in a variety of social contexts and argue that data on variability are crucial to explaining the mechanism of SLA. Different studies have been done on the language variation and oral performance of L2 learners, investigating the possible effects of various factors on them.

Liu (1991) argues that the external social interactions of a learner seemed to differently activate internal acquisition processes. He conducted a two year longitudinal study of a Chinese boy when he was 5 till 7 years old. The boy acquired English in four interactional contexts; 1) Interacting with preschool peers 2) interacting with his teachers in primary school 3) interacting with primary school peers 4) interacting with the adult researchers. The boy's interactions in these four settings were analyzed and the results indicated that the boy's performance in general and even choice of some variants by him were different. In another study, Labov (1972) investigated the social stratification of (r) in New York City department stores. Linguistic variable (r) is a social differentiator in all classes of New York city speech. The

results of the study showed clear and consistent stratification of (r) in the three different stores, a low class with low prices, a middle class with reasonable prices and a high class with high prices. The use of (r) by their employees, depending on the social class of the store, was significantly different. In another study by Meechan (1996), the variable contractions of English auxiliaries were investigated. Linguistically contraction is extremely sensitive to phonological factors, therefore, it might be more affected by regional or individual differences in pronunciation. On the other hand, some other factors like formality or informality of the speech setting, the sex of the speaker and other factors could have different effects depending on to what degree they are hidden by phonological effects. The results showed that the nature of the subject was important with personal pronouns most likely to occur before contracted forms and NP least likely. In addition the preceding phonological category was also relevant for the contraction of "is".

III. Method

A. Participants

The participants of this study included 60 Iranian university students majoring in English. They were randomly divided into two equal groups of 30, each one consisting of both males and females. In fact, there were four groups of almost 15 in the study: 1. Familiar with the interviewer, female candidates, 2. Familiar with the interviewer, male candidates, 3.Unfamiliar with the interviewer, female candidates and 4. Unfamiliar with the interviewer, male candidates.

B. Procedures

At the outset of the study, the participants were divided into two equal groups of thirty, odds for group A and evens for group B. The number of males and females were almost equal for both groups. Group A, by chance, was chosen to be interviewed by an unfamiliar interviewer, who was the researchers himself, and group B was chosen to be interviewed by familiar interviewers, who were the subjects' classmates or professors chosen by the candidates themselves and they were with each other, at least, for the last two years. Of course, the familiar interviewers took part in a four-hour session of TTC in order to be made familiar with the IELTS (the International English language Testing System) oral interview framework Which is a four-skill test employed in the selection of prospective non-native speakers of English to universities in such countries as Canada and the UK (O'Loughlin 2002). The version of the speaking sub-test lasts between 10-15 minutes but it took between 15-20 minutes in this study, because in order to get a natural sample of speech, some parts of the official interview were modified; a picture description was used in the third phase of the interview in order to motivate the candidates speak as much as possible. After conducting the interviews, they were tape recorded and transcribed for the language variation analysis.

Thus, some parts of the oral interviews were transcribed and a text analysis (linguistic variant analysis) was done on the interviews in order to find speech variations, which clarified the relationships between different variables of this study in more details. In fact, one of the most natural ways to study the effect of different social variables on the oral performance of the candidates is through studying, their natural speech sample and observing the possible variation that might happen throughout their performance. Variation, here, means" different ways of saying the same thing in different contexts"(Fasold 1989). The design of studying variation in interlanguage and L2 learners is a mode of psycholinguistic experimentation which includes a relevant population of speakers of second language and certain independent variables which are manipulated in the context and production of certain dependent variables in the candidates' interlanguage which is measured by the researchers (Gass, et al 1989). Therefore in this study, the sex of the candidates and their acquaintanceship with the interviewer were independent variables and three dependent variables in the oral data including using "He and She" interchangeably by the candidates through the interviewes, "to be" present form contractions and variable pronunciations of /th/ were manipulated and studied to find any possible relationship between them.

IV. Data Analysis

Linguistic Variants Analysis:

This study utilized variationist perspective for the oral interviews data analysis. Therefore, three different items, which were variably used by L2 learners, were selected and the researchers extracted all tokens of the variants to analyze the language behaviors of the subjects in this respect. In this section the findings are presented as follows:

A. Using "He and She" Interchangeably

A speech variant, investigated here, was the frequency use of "He" instead of "She" and vice-versa. The candidates sometimes used "He" to refer to a female person and "She" to refer to a male one. This variation of speech was supposed to be related to the independent variables of the study, so the frequency use of this variable among the four groups, familiar male and female, unfamiliar male and female, were investigated in order to find any possible relationships between this variable, the candidates' sex and their acquaintanceship with the interviewer. For the first group, familiar male and female, the number of this interchanging use of 'he and she' was significantly different with the next group, unfamiliar male and female. This was shown in the following graph:

He or She Variation
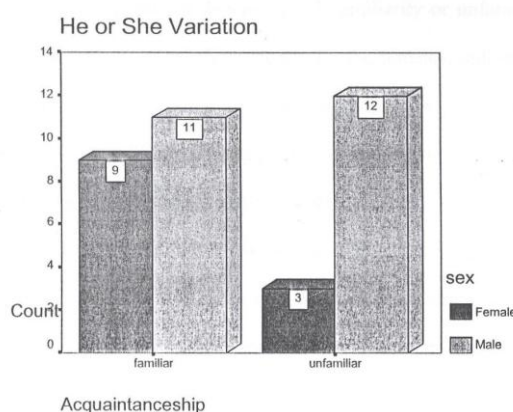
Bar Graph (1)

As shown in Bar graph (1), the use of 'She and He' interchangeably for both familiar and unfamiliar groups, is not different so much (20 for familiar and 15 for unfamiliar). But for the female/male groups, there is a significant difference between the familiar and unfamiliar groups with a frequency use of 11 for familiar male group, 12 for unfamiliar male group, 9 for familiar female and 3 for unfamiliar female group. It shows that the males' use of 'He and She' interchangeably did not depend on the familiarity or unfamiliarity with the test-taker or interviewer, whereas for the females, unfamiliarity with the interviewer has caused a variation in the number of this interchange. To the researchers, this might be due to the speech style and cultural background of the females in the area, they are more sensitive to their speech style in the strange settings. Put it another way, it seems that females are more sensitive to their speech style and linguistic behavior when interacting with unfamiliar people.

B. Contractions of "to be":

Here the frequency number of contracted forms of 'To be" (present form like, I'm, We're, ...) were considered as a variable and its relationships with the familiarity and unfamiliarity with the interviewer and the sex of the subjects were studied based on statistical procedures. A test of frequency was used here. The male and female groups used 'to be' contractions with different degrees in both familiar and unfamiliar groups.

To be Contraction Varaible
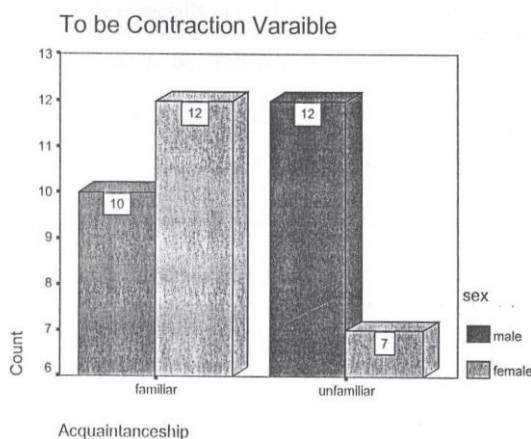
Bar Graph 2

As shown in Bar graph (2), the male groups, both familiar and unfamiliar, do not seem to be so different in using 'to be' contractions with a frequency use of 10 and 12 for familiar and unfamiliar groups. However, this seems to be different in the female groups with 12 and 7 for familiar and unfamiliar groups. In fact, the familiarity and unfamiliarity with the interviewer influenced the female groups more than the male ones. The females, in unfamiliar group, have been much more conservative in using 'to be' contractions than the males in the same situation. This can be explained through the different speech styles (formal, informal) which might be employed by males and females in various situations. Here the females, who seem to be more sensitive to their speech style especially in unfamiliar situations, have tried to use less contracted forms of 'to be'. This is in line with the findings of using 'he and she' as was discussed earlier. On the other hand, there seems not to exist a significant difference between the familiar group with a frequency use of 22 for this variant and the unfamiliar one with 19.

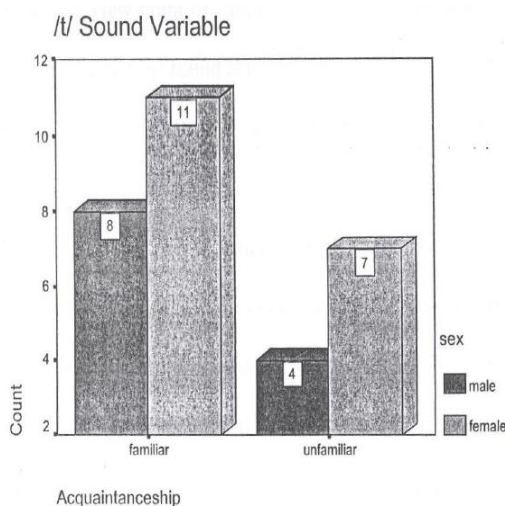*C. Variations of / th / in Pronunciation*

Among Iranian English learners pronunciation of /th/ in words like thank, three ... has three variations, /Ө/ ,/s / and /t/ and sometimes they are all used by the same subject over his/her performance. The first one /Ө/, a voiceless consonant which does not exist in the mother tongue of the interviewees, can be a source of problem in pronunciation among the learners. The second one / s / and the third variation /t/ seem more general among the Iranian learners. In the research data, there are three different variations of this sound including /Ө/, /s/, and /t/, which have been used differently in the male and female groups, both familiar and unfamiliar. The first variation /Ө/ is the native-like one, which was coded as Zero variant here, because it is not considered as a deviation from the target language. The second and the third variations, /s/ and /t/ are the deviations from the native one which were used by the interviewees differently as follows:
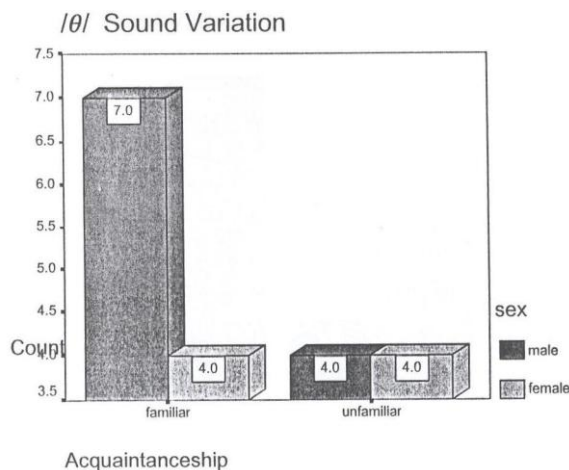
Bar Graph 3
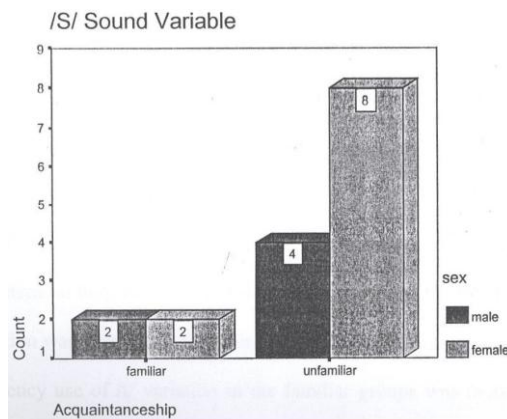
Bar Graph 4

Bar Graph 5

As shown in the Bar-graphs (3,4,5), the total use of variations of /th/ in pronunciation includes a frequency number of 18 for /Ө/, 15 for /s/ and 27 for /t/, which are different among the males and females in both familiar and unfamiliar groups. Although the results for the standard variation or pronunciation of /th/ is mixed in both males and females, the use of /s/ and /t/ variations seem to be more organized and follow a kind of pattern. In both male and female unfamiliar groups the frequency of /s/ variation was more than the male and female in familiar groups. But the frequency use of /t/ variation in the familiar groups was more than the unfamiliar groups. This can be explained through the similarity of the /s/ sound with /Ө/, sound in comparison with the similarity of /t/ sound with /Ө/. From the view point of manner and place of articulation of these sounds, it seems that /s/ sound is much more similar to /Ө/ sound than /t/. L2 learners, trying to produce /Ө/ sound, probably found /s/ sound easier to produce as well as closer to the original sound. In fact, both males and females in unfamiliar groups, trying to produce the original sound, have resorted to the /s/ sound, which is closer to the original one, but familiar groups, since they were supposed not to have the psychological pressure of the unfamiliar interviewers, have resorted to the /t/ sound which, not only exists in their mother tongue but also is more commonly used by L2 English learners in the research area. Moreover, trying to be more formal in unfamiliar settings and the kind of formal instructions the candidates have had, might be other reasons why the interviewees in this study resorted to /s/ sound which seems to be much closer to /Ө/ sound in pronunciation. In general, investigating of this variant showed that both acquaintanceship with the interviewers and the interviewees' gender affected the candidates' performances in the interviews.

V. Conclusion

For the investigation of variationist perspective on social variables of gender and familiarity in L2 learners' oral interviews, three linguistic variants were extracted and studied through tests of frequencies. The results of the study showed that the females were more conservative and sensitive to their linguistic behavior in unfamiliar settings than the males were. It might be because of the different speech styles the females and males employ when they are in strange settings. In fact, it seems that females are much more formal in their speech than the males are at the similar unfamiliar situations. On the other hand, the relationship between the interviewees' acquaintanceship with the interviewer and their language variation seems to yield mixed results. In some cases, there is a significant difference between the familiar and unfamiliar groups in their use of the language variants ("to be" contractions & the use of "he and she"), while we might have different results with some other cases (/th / pronunciations). In general, it seems that language variants (speech variation) were sensitive to the effects of social variables like the interviewees' sex and familiarity with the interviewer. Investigating the possible interaction effect of candidates' gender and their acquaintanceship with interviewers on the candidates' language variation showed that the reactions of males and females might be different to familiar and unfamiliar contexts, but there was no fixed paradigm for this variation and this might be due to the existence of some other factors which affect male and females' performance in different contexts in an oral interview. The effects of the social characteristics of both the interviewer and the interviewees on their oral performance through variationist perspective in this study let the researchers to go far beyond the other studies done in this area and helped them to investigate the possible relationships among the variables more precisely and comprehensively. It is argued that if one is to study the oral performance of the L2 learners, it is not enough to evaluate them only based on their raw scores. Furthermore, it seems that linguistic variation in oral interviews is much more sensitive to the candidates' language variability and their probable performance variations caused by social factors such as their sex, social status, ... than their raw scores in oral interview tests. Therefore, it is suggested to study the L2 learners' oral performances from both variationist and SLA views in order to get a more comprehensive impression of their linguistic behavior.

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Pure Listening Training—A Tentative Innovation of English Learning

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Abstract—A worthwhile teaching and learning method means quite a lot for the fruitful study. As a science of cultural communication, the language acquisition involves various aspects such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating, etc. Though the traditional reading training makes the language learners comparatively skillful in their practice of reading, writing and translating, it still fails to meet the needs for them to perfect their listening, speaking ability. Here the paper introduces another language learning method--pure listening training---hoping to provide some actual aids for the English language learners.

Index Terms—pure listening training, reading comprehension, innovation, English language study

I. ORIGIN OF THE PERCEPTION

The very common learning style of us is reading, that is to say, we mainly obtain the information by means of reading through eyes, based on which we imagine and understand something in the text. Here we shall discuss another way of getting necessary information--pure listening training. It is so named because here the language learners will mainly acquire information by means of listening in stead of reading. Concretely speaking, they will try to imagine and understand something chiefly through ears, which is also in agreement with the learning law of the language science.

Language communication lies in two basic ways -- oral form and written form. As a matter of fact, the latter should be more fundamental. In terms of the language history, the formation and use of oral language was much earlier than the written one. Seen from the approaches of language acquisition, we always acquire our mother tongue first through listening and speaking. And in the daily life, most of the communication task is conducted in the form of oral way. For a change of our traditional language learning style, we give the priority to pure listening training based on the language law. By means of this we may find later that some previously confusing problems will present no difficulty anymore.

II. THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

The pure listening training is in some degree the same as the present listening and speaking course. But the present listening and speaking course is still low in efficiency because in the teaching course the students are quite passive in their actual listening practice because the teacher constantly controls them throughout almost the whole period. Here the pure listening training mainly focuses on the personal active study of the students, which is quite a unique perceiving, recognizing and learning style with the students personally, fully absorbed in it.

The mind effect theory: the pure listening training style of English learning is not only a studying activity, but also a mental recognition process, because the result will be directly related to the changes in the mind. The mind effect means the series of psychological reactions that have cropped up when most people meet with the same stimulus. And in the pure listening training, the audio and video elements will help to adjust and promote the students' analysis and understanding.

Modal and pragmatic theory: the language is the vehicle of information communication, a sound understanding and expressing can not do without the actual supplementary modal factors of the speakers. The definition of modal theory first came from Layence, who insisted that the modal factors reflected the attitudes of the speaker to the thing he had mentioned. It was not only related to the supplementary use of the modal verbs and modal adverbs such as "frankly, fortunately, possibly, wisely, etc.", but also related to the understanding of the speaker's subjective feeling. In some degree, the subjective factors can be regarded as the basic norms for modal measure (Palmer, 1986, P.16). Therefore, we can see here that the traditional reading style without the company of modal factors is bound to be imperfect, whereas the pure listening training has overcome the disadvantages in question.

Theory of Dialogue: We could only get half the result with twice the effort if we try to learn the language in the case of lacking audio and video settings. Though the Language can also be classified as a science, it is by far less rigid and precise than the natural science, only because it is the direct result of human life activity and is greatly influenced by human life habits, social customs and even personal preferences. Therefore, the language study lacking of situational settings is sure to meet lots of barriers in its actual learning and using.

The theory of dialogue from Bakhtin: the Russian arts theorist provides a practical support for language audio and video comprehension. He argues that Bakhtin (1992, cited in Zhai Tingting, 2009) insists "communication by means of

dialogue represents the real value of the language itself". In daily life, the actual conversations, such as showing agreement or disagreement, affirmation or negation, asking or answer, form the practical dialogue (ibid). All these relationships between the languages will be presented to the learners in the forms of three-dimension and many perspectives, and thus the language study becomes many - involved and efficient.

III.   OPERATING SEQUENCE

A.   Choices of the Learning Materials

S. D. Krashen thought that no one can actually acquire the language unless he has obtained enough comprehensive language input, i.e. the comprehensive language input is the only way to guarantee the acquisition of the language. This is what we call the theory of Krashen's language input. The comprehensive input means the amount of language input which is slightly more difficult than what the learners can understand. In the formula, it is like i+1, and here "i" stands for the present language ability of the learners and "1" stands for the language input slightly more difficult than what the learners can understand. The language input should be neither too difficult nor too easy; otherwise it is quite impossible for the learners to get the ideal language input.

Therefore the choice of the textbook for the pure listening training is rather significant, it must follow the principles: (1) As a textbook, it must be characterized by profound knowledge, corresponding interest and arts features in the content. Only in this way can the students be deeply appealed to and are ready to study. (2) The text should be accompanied by closely related audio and video materials, illustrated with live moving pictures. Thus, it may meet the needs of the students in listening comprehension.

B.   Line of Thought

The learning style of the pure listening training must feature a unique or, punctually speaking, a more flexible and abundant mode of thinking: perceiving and acquiring language mainly by means of listening activity. So the appropriate method of language study must guarantee the accomplishment of these norms.

a. Identifying the Setting, Interpersonal Relationship and Mood in It

Through repeated listening, the learners try to identify the creating settings of the writing with the help of the language used and the music involved, the time and location of this very happening, to identify the possible interpersonal relationships and their mutual attitudes under the help of the tones of the speech, the use of body languages and even the expression on the faces. By doing so, the learners can perceive the rhyme of the language; perceive the inseparable unity of the language and its context, and thus the learners may get more instructive senses of the language.

b. Identifying the Topic and Main Idea of It

To finish these assignments, the learners must capture quite a lot of related key words and expressions, to make sure what the writing is talking about and what its purpose is through continual listening practice. This activity not only connects with the knowledge information of the text involved, but also connects with personal experience of the learners which is not directly related to the task. And thus they can make the learners associate and analyze the situation and enjoy a study style of three –dimension.

c. Making Corresponding Hypotheses, Prediction and Inference

During the studying style of the pure listening training, every factor in the sentence will stroke on the nerve of the learners, for example, each plot in the writing, the sentence pattern, and even the tones and the intonations of the sentence spoken. Therefore the learners will constantly make the hypothesis, prediction and inference about the inducing factors, developing stages and the further result of the whole incident. Compared with the passive listening activity, learners are quite active in this studying mode. Here the learners are the masters of their studying practice and control all the studying activities. So the style of the pure listening training does not make a direct dive for the result, but aims at listening and comprehension process itself. This is more close to the natural law of language studying, and can ensure the learners to get twice the result with only half effort, and the learners can take in all kinds of precious knowledge accomplishments, such as the instinctive feeling for the language, listening, analysis and evaluating ability.

IV.   PREVIEW OF THE POSSIBLE RESULT OF THE PURE LISTENING TRAINING

Once the pure listening training style goes into the actual language acquisition activity, the foreign language study will go into a new learning state.

First, it brings innovation to the language study environment. Instead of the previous way of perceiving necessary information by means of eyes, which is typical of reading and memorizing mechanically, this kind of pure listening training style is featured by the co-occurrences of audio and video captions. The change of learning style is sure to stimulate the enthusiasm of the learners for language study. The traditional teaching and learning style is boring and full of oppressed feeling mainly because the learning activity is almost completely dominated by reading, memorizing mechanically, and repeatedly writing. Lacking the chances to contact with the pure pronunciation of the English native speakers, it seems that they will never be able to acquire the real tones and intonations of them, and consequently they will lose the last self-confidence for the learning activity.

Second, another advantage of the pure listening training style lies in its unconscious devotion to the cultivation of the sense of the language. The language sense is a very significant ability which can guide the language study instinctively as if it were a kind of unknown supernatural power. Without the help of language sense, we could hardly get the inspiration to learn it well. However, the acquisition of language sense can only find its way in the day after day listening training and in some degree it is invisible and unconscious.

Third, the pure listening training can also strengthen the reading comprehension ability. Just as what we have discussed above, this method can meet the needs of students to recognize the words and sentences from many related aspects as pronunciation, pictures, structures and modal details, to identify the writing backgrounds, the actual interpersonal relationships, and the speaker's real attitudes, to identify the topic and its main ideas, and make reasonable hypothesis, prediction and inference of something in the studying material. After the repeated training, the learners' comprehensible ability could not remain at the shallow level any longer. After a period of practice, the original most difficult assignments in their study -- reading comprehension, etc-- will present them no problems.

Fourth, it can make up for the shortage in the students' listening ability. The very vital inability in students' listening practice is the requirement for filling the blanks, writing the missing information or even the whole paragraph. In the CET-4, the students are required to write the actual words, the sentences and even whole paragraph after having finished listening to the text, but this is really what they feel helpless. The reason lies in that in the usual study they mainly focus on reading comprehension in stead of listening comprehension. At first sight , they feel the words quite familiar to them and as if they knew the meaning quite well, but when the foreigners speak them out , they are not sure what words are the ones they are saying, especially when they are spoken together with the various intonations. What's more, some students are not exactly clear about the very pronunciation of some words, the question itself has already been tricky, let alone the identification of the background information, interpersonal relationships and even some other details.

At last, the pure listening training style can also help to improve the oral English effectively. As we all know, if we have had enough listening training practice, it is very natural for us to speak it out spontaneously. If we had enough listen training, we are easier to perceive the meaning between the lines, and subsequently we will be good at the thought expressing and the corresponding expressing techniques. This basically gives us the logical explanation of the embarrassment why it seems we often can not easily understand the foreigners effectively. It is because we have listened too little, it is not possible for us to identify the words they said or quickly connect what they said with the words we have suspected to be.

V. CONCLUSION

Learning by means of the pure listening training is a better way for foreign language study, especially in the situation of lacking corresponding language context. It happens to coincide with the logic of language learning, and helps to eliminate many troublesome problems like the bottom ability indispensable for English listening, speaking, analyzing, understanding, and writing. But we still confront great challenges. (1) We need to make good preparation for the textbooks needed. We lack such ideal existing textbooks throughout the country at the moment, which should be compiled as soon as possible. (2) The actual levels of the students' foreign language ability are quite different from each other even in the same class. The teacher who is in charge of the language teaching often finds it hard for him to take both the top students and the bottom ones into consideration at the same time. If we really want to escape the bad fate early, we must change the teaching and learning style fundamentally, that is to say, to put the pure listening training method into practice in no time.

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The Effect of Persian Polysemy on the Interpretation of English Sentences

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Abstract—**The present study was an attempt to discover the effect of the activation of multiple Persian polysemous senses (L1) on the interpretation of English sentences (L2) through reading. To do so, an OPT test was given to 82 Persian learners of English to divide them into 2 groups of highly proficient and low proficient L2 learners. They were presented with 80 English sentences, each of which included an exchanged Persian polysemous noun or verb (e.g., *He found it hard to get his "language" round these Polish names*, and *He could speak several "tongues."* The Persian polysemous word in these two sentences was زبان/zæbɑ:n/.) They were asked to determine whether the L2 word, considered as an L1 polysemous word, was an acceptable completion to a sentence. Results showed that the low proficient Persian learners outperformed the high proficient ones in interpreting the L1 polysemous words, and the highly related L1 polysemous words made more interference in interpreting the L2 words. Results would shed light on the effect of L2 words which are considered as L1 polysemous words on the students' abilities of translation and interpretation of such words in L2 sentences.**

Index Terms—**ambiguity, lexicalization, polysemy, reading comprehension**

I. INTRODUCTION

Ambiguity is a challenging and thought-provoking phenomenon which has a very vital role in the interpretation of a language (Langaker, 1991). Every day, human beings think and use their mental lexicon to process different senses of ambiguous words (Guttler & William, 2008). Although the two fundamental features of ambiguous words are homonymy and polysemy, Hanks (2006) has found that ambiguity is mostly related to polysemy rather than homonymy due to the fact that senses of polysemy are semantically very close to one another. Kaufman (2002) goes beyond this idea and contends that knowing a language is mostly related to knowing the applications of different senses of polysemous words, rather than having the vocabulary knowledge itself.

In recent years, most studies on polysemy (e.g., Bierwische & Schreuder, 1992; Brown, 2006; Parent, 2009) have been done on L2 polysemous words, mostly on the coactivation effect of multiple senses of such words, and on the interfering role they have in L2 processing. Nevertheless, the importance of polysemous interfering role becomes more apparent when two languages are involved, in a way that one word in an L2 is monosemous, whereas it has two or more equivalences in an L1 (Williams, 2007).

The present study set out to investigate the influence that multiple senses of Persian polysemous words (here, L1) have in L2 learners' minds when reading English texts (here, L2). The main focus was on cases where a Persian polysemous word was realized by two or more independent words in English. It also focused on the role of lexical-level translation connection and the coactivation of multiple senses of Persian polysemous senses in reading English texts. The Persian word زبان /zæbɑ:n/, for example, has two equivalences of *tongue* and *language* in English. Reading the word *tongue,* a Persian learner of English activates the Persian translation equivalence زبان (tongue). The word زبان, in turn, activates its L1 meaning *language*. Therefore, this inappropriate conceptual feature provides the learner with interference in L2 semantic processing task. The results of this study may hopefully shed some light on the effect of L1 polysemous words in the interpretation of L2 sentences and might be of great importance to L2 pedagogy.

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

A number of studies (e.g., Kroll & Stewart, 1994; Rodd, Gaskell, & Wilson, 2002) have been done on the possible effects of L1 polysemous words on the interpretation of L2 sentences. The findings are not clear-cut in the sense that there are conflicting views regarding the possible influence of L1 polysemy in L2.

Given the lexicalization patterns of polysemy, two different views have been arisen. The first view by Kroll and Stewart (1994) states that different lexical patterns in languages interfere with each other in processing. According to this view, L2 words are produced and understood directly via lexical level translation connection to L1 words. In support of this view, Guttler and William (2008) investigated the effect of German polysemous words on English

processing. Their result showed that when a German learner of English read the word *bag* whose translation in German was the polysemous word *tasche* with two different lexical forms of *bag* and *pocket* in English, a lexical level-link activated the German translational equivalence *tasche*. The word *tasche*, in turn, activated its L1 meaning. Then, inappropriate conceptual features associated with the concept of *bag* became activated. This made it hard for the German participants to distinguish between L1 and L2 lexicalization patterns leading to interference in L2 semantic processing task. Moreover, being in agreement with the theory of interference, Kang (2005) declared a directly interrelated link between the interfering effect of L1 polysemous words and L2 learners' level of proficiency. The performance of the Japanese participants in his research showed that the more proficient an L2 learner was, the better polysemy interpreter he or she would be. Finally, in favor of the interference theory, Klepousniotou, Titone, and Romero (2008) added the overlapping senses theory in which the Italian polysemous words (in this case, L1) which included highly related senses were much more interfering in English (in this case, L2) processing than those of moderately related senses.

The second view holds that different patterns in languages are kept distinct and make no interference in processing (Rodd, Gaskell, & Wilson, 2002). Based on this view, L2 words are comprehended via concepts and L2 learners have to develop conceptual mappings from L2 words. Verifying this view, Jiang (2002) affirmed that to comprehend English words including L1 polysemous equivalences such as the Chinese word *wenti* with two English equivalences of *problem* and *question*, Chinese learners of English have to develop direct conceptual mappings from these forms to the conceptual level and to suppress relying on L1 translation equivalence. In addition, Tylor and Evans (2003) presented separate meaning theory of polysemy senses based on which polysemous senses are interpreted separately. According to this theory, polysemous senses are unpredictable, and they must be explicitly shown in the lexicon because they cannot be explained by a linguistic rule. Moreover, different senses have their own lexical entries and cannot predict the meaning of each other. Semantic relatedness is known to be facilitator in meaning processing. Thus, under this theory, different senses of a polysemous word do not interfere in each other's activation.

Given the above conflicting views regarding the effect of multiple senses of L1 polysemous senses in L2 processing, it makes good sense to investigate the existence of such semantic phenomenon in the Persian language and see how consistent the results are with the previous ones. It is hoped that conducting this research and its following results will pave the way for the related lines of inquiry in future. At the same time, the researchers hope that the findings will increase our understanding and awareness, as English teachers, of the nature of human language in general in order to help L2 learners of English to experience a much easier and smoother learning task. The study, therefore, sought answers to the following questions:

1. How does L2 proficiency relate to meaning interpretation of polysemous L1 words?

2. How does the type of polysemous L1 words (i.e., nouns vs. verbs) influence the meaning interpretation of L2 words?

3. How does the degree of relatedness of L1 polysemous nouns (i.e., high vs. moderate) influence the meaning interpretation of L2 words?

4. How does the degree of relatedness of L1 polysemous verbs (i.e., high vs. moderate) influence the meaning interpretation of L2 words?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The main participants were L2 students who had been learning English for more than 6 years in English institutes. A total number of 82 advanced learners of English including 41 females (mean age 28) and 41 males (mean age 30) were randomly selected from four language institutes, the reason of which was to have a sample which was representative of population. Moreover, 72 Persian native speakers from Persian literature faculties were randomly selected. They were 36 females and 36 males (both above 25). In addition, a group of 23 native speakers of English (11 male and 12 female) were asked to answer the same questionnaire given to the main participants. Their answers were, then, examined in order to be compared and contrasted with those of the main Persian participants.

B. Materials

Two questionnaires and a test were used in this study. The first questionnaire was a Persian one and was designed for the Persian participants majoring in Persian Literature to determine the relatedness of the senses of the Persian polysemous words underlined in each statement of the questionnaire. The participants answered the questionnaire according to the scale of 0 to 4: 0 (*the same meaning*), 1 (*very similar*), 3 (*fairly similar*), and 4 (*very different*). The second questionnaire was an English one, including forms A and B with 80 English statements. In form A, consisting of the first 40 statements, each statement included a verb considered as a polysemous one in Persian. And, each statement of form B, the second 40 statements, included a noun which was a polysemous one in Persian. In each form, half of the polysemous words' senses (i.e., nouns and verbs) were highly related to each other, and half of them were moderately related to one another (see sample items in the Appendix). And, the test used in this study was the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) to determine the homogeneity of the main participants.

C. Procedure

At the first stage of the experiment, a questionnaire including Persian statements, each of which consisting of a pair of Persian polysemous nouns and a pair of Persian polysemous verbs, was given to the group of participants majoring in Persian Literature. They were asked to choose how related the senses of each pair of the Persian polysemous words were. Based on the result of this questionnaire, the English questionnaire which was the translation of each of the Persian statement to English was administered to the main participants.

At the second stage of the experiment, first, the main participants were tested for their homogeneity. The results showed the more or less homogeneity of the participants. What was focused was their proficiency and they were categorized into two groups of highly proficient and low proficient English learners. Also, they were given the English questionnaire. What they were asked to do was to read the statements and choose whether or not they made sense to them. All the statements included the sense of polysemous word which did not fit in the texts. And, the participants were supposed to decide whether the statements were semantically *acceptable* or *unacceptable*. Moreover, to make sure that the multiple senses of the polysemous words made interference and it was a normal and general phenomenon, the group of native speakers of English was asked to answer the same English questionnaire. The results were compared with those of the main participants.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

In order to test the relationship between the participants' proficiency level and their interpretation of the polysemous words, a *t* test was calculated for each group of the highly proficient and the low proficient participants. The scores obtained from the two groups were compared and subjected to statistical operations. Table 1 indicates that there was a difference between the means of the two groups ($t = 8.82$, $df = 42.36$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.00$). The result of the *t* test shows that the p value is less than α; therefore, there was a difference between the means of the two groups and the first null hypothesis is rejected:

• Highly proficient L2 learners are not different from low-proficient L2 learners in terms of interpreting polysemous words.

TABLE 1.
T TEST ON THE MEAN SCORES OF POLYSEMY INTERPRETATION AND PROFICIENCY LEVEL

Variable	N	Mean	Std.	t	sig.
Polysemy Interpretation (low group)	33	20.84	8.42	8.82	0.00
Polysemy Interpretation (high group)	29	49.00	15.25		

*$p < .0.05$

In order to test the relationship between the word-type (i.e., noun vs. verb) and the polysemy interpretation, a *t* test was calculated; the scores obtained from form A (polysemous nouns) of the English questionnaire were compared with the scores of form B (polysemous verbs). The results from form A and form B of the questionnaire show that there was a significant difference between the interpretation of the polysemous verbs and the polysemous nouns by the nonnative participants ($t = -2.42$, $df = 67$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.01$). Because p value is less than α, there was a significant difference between the means of form A and form B (see Table 2); therefore, the second null hypothesis is also rejected:

• There is no difference between the effect of L1 polysemous nouns and L1 polysemous verbs on the meaning interpretation of L2words

TABLE 2.
T TEST ON THE MEAN SCORES OF POLYSEMY INTERPRETATION AND PROFICIENCY WORD-TYPE

Variable	N	Mean	Std.	t	sig.
Polysemy Interpretation of Verbs(form A)	62	7.70	4.25	-2.42	.001
Polysemy Interpretation of Nouns (form B)	62	8.60	5.03		

*$p < .0.05$

To explore the differences between the degree of relatedness of the polysemous words and the interpretation of polysemy, two *t* tests were calculated in order to see if there were any. The scores obtained from the four groups of the polysemous words including highly related polysemous verbs, moderately related polysemous verbs, highly-related polysemous nouns, and moderately related polysemous nouns were statistically analyzed and compared with one another. As shown in Table 3, there was no difference between the interpretation of the two groups of the highly related polysemous nouns and the moderately related polysemous nouns by the nonnative speakers ($t = -0.84$, $df = 68$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.401$). Because p value is more than α, there was not any significant difference between the two groups; therefore, the third null hypothesis is not rejected:

• The degree of the relatedness of L1 polysemous nouns does not have any effect on the meaning interpretation of L2 words.

TABLE 3.
T TEST ON THE MEAN SCORES OF POLYSEMY INTERPRETATION AND THE DEGREE OF RELATEDNESS OF THE NOUNS

Variable	N	Mean	Std.	t	sig.
Polysemy Interpretation (highly related nouns)	69	8.49	5.09	-0.84	0.40
Polysemy Interpretation (moderately related nouns)	69	8.49	6.50		

*$p < .0.05$

In contrast, as Table 4 indicates, the mean scores of the two groups of the highly related and the moderately related polysemous verbs were of significant difference ($t = -3.87$, $df = 68$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $p = 0.00$). Because p value is less than 0.05, there was a significant difference between the two groups of the highly and the moderately related polysemous verbs. Hence, the forth null hypothesis below is rejected:

• The degree of relatedness of L1 polysemous verbs does not have any effect on the meaning interpretation of L2 words.

TABLE 4.
T TEST ON THE MEAN SCORES OF POLYSEMY INTERPRETATION AND THE DEGREE OF RELATEDNESS OF THE VERBS

Variable	N	Mean	Std.	t	sig.
Polysemy Interpretation (highly related verbs)	69	7.88	4.58	-3.87	0.00
Polysemy Interpretation (moderately related verbs)	69	9.04	4.73		

*$p < .0.05$

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This research program investigated the effect the multiple senses of Persian polysemous words have on English interpretation using Persian speakers learning English in Iran. Two types of Persian polysemous words—nouns and verbs— along with two types of degree of relatedness—highly related and moderately related—were explored by two experimental groups of highly proficient and low proficient. The first null hypothesis was that the highly proficient L2 learners were not different from the low proficient L2 learners in terms of interpreting L1 polysemous words. The performance of the high and the low groups was statistically different, hence rejecting the first null hypothesis. Furthermore, the effect of word-type (i.e., noun vs. verb) turned out to be achieved on the L1 polysemy interpretation. Therefore, the second hypothesis of no difference was rejected. Finally, regarding the last two questions of the study, the degree of relatedness had no effect on interpreting the Persian polysemous nouns, hence failing to reject the third null hypothesis. However, it had a significant effect on interpreting the Persian polysemous verbs, so rejecting the fourth null hypothesis.

As mentioned before, reading interpretation and language proficiency are interrelated (Kang, 2005). The more proficient a reader is, the better interpreter he or she will be. This idea was rejected by the present study in which the low proficient learners outdid the highly proficient ones. The reason for such a contradiction is that the multiple senses knowledge of polysemous words appeared to be an interfering feature for reading the English sentences consisting the Persian polysemous words because the coactivation of Persian concepts and the effective role of lexical-level translation connection in activating Persian concepts from English words made the interfering feature double.

Moreover, the findings of the present study showed that the interpretation of the Persian polysemous verbs was more interfering for the participants than the Persian polysemous nouns. This finding is obviously in agreement with the one by Kaufman (2002) who found that verbs are generally more polysemous than nouns.

In addition, Guttler and William (2008) explained that because highly related senses of a polysemous verb associate with almost the same action in an L2 learner's mind, the two close actions bump into the L2 learner's mind simultaneously and make interference in interpreting the accurate sense. But it is not true of the interpretation of the moderately related senses of a polysemous verb whose actions are almost different from one another. The present study confirmed these findings. When a Persian learner of English read *He picked some flowers from the garden*, he or she translated it to او چند شاخه گل از باغ چید /u: ʧ ænd ʃ ɑ:khə æz bɑ:q ʧ i:d/. The Persian polysemous verb چیدن /ʧ i:dæn/ associated with the other sense which was *cut*. The coactivation of the highly related senses of *pick* and *cut* made semantic interference.

As the final note, the present researchers, considering the findings of the study, should remind L2 teachers, particularly those teaching English, to be aware of the value of correct interpretation of ambiguous polysemous words, especially L1 polysemous ones. They might use authentic written materials including L2 words whose translation into L1 has got two senses and might draw up a list of misinterpretation of L2 words considered as L1 polysemous ones and improve L2 learners' areas of weaknesses.

APPENDIX SAMPLE ITEMS

Instruction: Please read the statements carefully to see which one makes sense meaning fully and which one does not.

Please tick (✓) your answer.

• He found it hard to get his language round these polish names.

Acceptable   □   Unacceptable □
- Barriers can be formed by human agency, or by the intervention of wild-life such as beavers.
Acceptable   □   Unacceptable □
- I called the doorbell, but no one answered.
Acceptable   □   Unacceptable □
- The little boy got on the old horse.
Acceptable   □   Unacceptable □

<div align="center">REFERENCES</div>

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Vocabulary Teaching in Distance Learning

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Abstract—**Word is the basic function unit and foundation of English language. The ignorance of word memorization will make English study the water without a source. English vocabulary teaching is an important part of English teaching. In some way, foreign language ability of students depends on the vocabulary they mastered. the word insufficiency or inaccurateness is "the biggest obstacle" for students to study English. Therefore, it is the extremely important task for a teacher to scientifically enlarge students' vocabulary according to the English new curriculum standard and the rules of memorization.**

Index Terms—**vocabulary teaching, five steps, oblivion**

I. INTRODUCTION

Words are the basic functional unit of English language, which is its foundation and ignore the vocabulary of memory. Learning English will become like non-existent. As an English teacher, I've noticed some good ways and bad ways of English teaching and learning. In my daily English teaching I think how to make students remember words faster and more prison? Students' vocabulary memory efficiency is placed in front of each teacher topic. Many experts have got many achievements in this topical research and summarizes some vocabulary method. Although the students grasp a lot of memory methods, but in most of the time learning effect is not very ideal, the main reason is that students remember vocabulary's attitude, which is passive, YiBaoShiHan, they assault the words by pre-exam.They have remembered many ripe words when using either can not recall, either error-prone. Every time they complain too many new words and cannot comprehend, their tests are always not good enough.

The Well-known psychologist named Hermann Ebbinghaus is from German , he thinks that person's memory is a certain rule forgotten process, which is occurring disequilibrium, after memorizing initial forgotten faster, but as time goes on, people's forgotten by fast to slow and end up basic not forgotten. According to this law, in order to prevent forgotten, improving memory effect, they should be timely review, instead, they have forgotten to go over and remember them again. Unless they review in time, their aims avoid forgotting.

Through many years' teaching experience, the author thinks that English teaching is the key to a teaching method, she has been engaged in English teaching for a long time as the teacher. Generally speaking, English learning consists of five aspects: listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating. And the basis for the skills, in my point of view , lies in a good mastery of vocabulary, for vocabulary is an essential component of a language, without vocabulary, nothing can be expressed. Firstly, let's have a look at English classes in China. There are five teaching methodologies practised already. Step One: language input, teacher can use multimedia and show demonstration means such as let students spell words and through reading articles to experience new words in language in the text. Step Two: language internalization, the teacher makes students use reading in class, students understand words application and further feeling language in the text, the teacher is to have guidance and assistance summary. The teacher will set exercises, design words application context, translate the sentence exercises and help students to internalize the target language form. Step Three: language output, focused on writing, the students themselves write applications context what they have learned. Step Four: resistance to forget to review, weekly quizzes and exams supervise monthly exam. Step Five: midterm exam, the final exam. Supervise the student to review.

II. PLAN IMPLEMENTATION STEPS

A. Step 1, Language Input

(1) Figural memories - pronunciation and spelling

Pronunciation aspects:

Phonetics teaching should be mainly by imitating, teachers should provide lots of listening, imitating and practice opportunities, helps the students to grasp the phonetic rules.

Spelling:

Through mastery of word aloud. then rules and pronunciation rules and strengthen the students for words of the memory. On this link, pay attention to letters, letters combin in words, pronunciation, spelling and pronunciation rules according to spelling words of teaching, raises student's spelling.

(2) Explanation in the language text, then in the context of memorizing words

Many linguists research shows that: the first language learner's vocabulary knowledge comes from mostly extensive

reading, visible, in the context of vocabulary learning vocabulary is the main way of natural acquisition. Therefore, the teacher should attach importance to cultivating students' infer the meaning in context, which requires the teachers' ability to choose a suitable context professor vocabulary material, and as far as possible in the context of the present vocabulary.

(3) The teacher presented to expand their language material to let the students summarize the comparative induction. Ex. : add

All Numbers add up to 125 nowadays.

Add all the Numbers up and so on has on the.

Students from these language materials concludes "add" usage. In concrete contextual guess the phrase and the meaning of the word, on the one hand, the teacher lets the students learn the words from the context , on the other hand, to cultivate students guess the meaning of the new words, then the teacher makes a final ability summary.

B.   Step 2, Language Internalization - Context Drill

In English vocabulary teaching, many experts agreed that "word is not departed from group, the group of words are not from away sentences, sentences are not from section." This fully embodies the context in the role of memorizing words. Otherwise, on the one hand, memory is only shallow, memory in-depth, on the other hand, no context even memory many words cannot apply it.

Practice design

Ex. :

He_____ to correct the achievements, and correct the mistakes.

Li Ming tried to tell her but she _____ (up to ignore) me.

She was _____ (uneasy) when she heard the news.

The bad lady c_____ the young beautiful girl into the belief that she was her mother.

His friends has s_____ from ill health for some years.

C.   Step 3, Language Output

Teacher's task not only stay in students to constantly input new vocabularies and consolidate vocabularies,too, and teachers create opportunities application memory vocabulary for learners, also is to let the students have the opportunity to language output, namely, written and said, language output is an important step of vocabulary learning, if they are not used correctly understanding of words, so, these vocabulary is only your receiving vocabulary, not output vocabulary, also cannot say fully mastered these words. The output of language materials for students, teachers can use the appropriate way for students to deepen understanding, error correction, consolidated the memory, and make students truly master what they have learnt, they can achieve the purpose of enlarge their vocabularies. Translate the sentence, make conversations, written discourse application context (the higher stage of consolidating exercises), etc.

D.   Step 4, Week Unit Vocabulary Test Detection and Consolidate Learning Effect

In the weeks' practice, the teacher is sure to formulate corresponding about lexical exercises to detect the study effect. The teacher must supervise students on lexical again reappearance, in recognition of repeat let students subtle, melt touch to words of air. This aims to change the students "YiBaoShiHan", the drawbacks are unstable and not thorough, which assault vocabulary memory. The teacher should make students form good memory according to forget law habits.

Weeks necessary practice design.

Spelling words and phrases translation

To get as much as information as possible we should learn to c_____. 1 do survey____ 2. add up to ___ 3.put up with__

E.   Step 5, Test Detection and Supervise Students Repeatedly Representation Vocabulary

The new with old, the old with new. Knowledge is both new and old relation to deepen our understanding and memory. Therefore, in vocabulary teaching should be first catch characteristics of words, according to the word meaning, parts of speech, words sound, morphological characteristics, word-building classification comparison and differentiate the induction, learn new league old, overall expansion, old and new vocabulary integration, improving recreate rate, lexical processing, making use of all sorts of learning skills, encouraging form independent strategy. According to Hermann Ebbinghaus' law forgotten to mobilize students' initiative kept for resistance to forget the emersion of revision. On total review, midterm total review and the final total review as an opportunity. Let students resistance to forget constantly struggle.

F.   Step 6, Computer-assisted Aids.

Computer-assisted aids. This includes two parts, visually, and audio. We can use power point or flash to show a certain situation and tell students the meaning of some words which are difficult for us to explain by using language. Secondly, the teacher may use the tape-recording together with this one. By using this aid, we may "help to get rid of the learners' boredom with language learning. Help to drive away the learners' nervousness. To arouse the learners'

motivations. To help the learner to concentrate on learning" (Liu Juan 2007).

The most important part of vocabulary teaching is to help students memorize the words. Then, the author may have following solutions:

a. Teaching students some certain rules of memorizing words: Prefix or suffix. For example, we meet the word "careless" in textbook for junior one. In junior two, we meet the word "jobless". Then, we may tell students that "-less" means not or without. Later on, when they meet some words ending with "-less", they can guess the meaning. Or they can memorize that according to the pronunciations. Compound words. For instance, blackboard, black and board.

b. Teaching students to pay attention to synonyms and antonyms. For example, black and white, careful and careless, poor and rich. Or, large and big, at once and immediately.

c. Teaching students to remember words by using them. The basic way to practise is to make sentences by given words. Only by using the words in certain situations, can students fully understand the meaning and be able to use them in correct ways.

Vocabulary in the language of a man ability development plays an important role, vocabulary size directly affect the ability of listening, speaking, reading and writing translation development, student's vocabulary, the bigger vocabulary on language students get, the stronger students input content of understanding ability, the higher students output language material quality. But usually, in learning a foreign language, students feel vocabulary is very difficult for them to remember, even remember a lot of words, when they use them, they can not either recall or error-prone. The vocabulary of insufficient or inaccurate is the "biggest obstacle'' for each student who studies language during the process of learning. Aiming at the students' vocabulary learning of all kinds of confusion and error, we should get to the break- through point from learning in the daily teaching, to students' interest in study and life experience and cognitive level starting point of vocabulary teaching and paying attention to the coherence and layered, through experience, practice, participation and cooperation and communication ways of learning and task-based teaching approach, cultivating students' vocabulary actual operation ability, developing the students the comprehensive application capability of language, in lexical learning process, fully mobilize students' enthusiasm, initiative, the context to cultivate students' vocabulary learning accuracy and comprehensiveness. Meanwhile, according to the laws of YiBinHao forgotten, make constant resistance forget reappearance review. Through practice, this kind of vocabulary teaching project, taking the vocabulary teaching for English and course change of breakthrough point, the effect is very good.

III. CONCLUSION

As the writer mentioned above the paragraph, vocabulary plays an important role in language learning and teaching. Especially for students

In China, in order to get rid of the "traditional" shortcoming in English learning-dumb English and Chinglish, teachers may use more advanced ways to teach students understand words and expressions, most importantly, use them in a correct situations and make themselves understood by others.

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A Comparative Study of the Persian Subtitles of American Historical Drama and Romantic Comedy Movies with the Originals

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the use of Vinay and Darbelnet's direct and oblique translations strategies in the Persian subtitles of American historical drama and romantic comedy movies. The present study aimed also to investigate which of the two main categories of translation strategies (direct and oblique translation) in the main focus of subtitlers in historical drama and romantic comedy movies. In order to systematically conduct the study, six American historical drama and romantic comedy movies with their corresponding Persian subtitles were analyzed. The findings obtained from the analysis show that direct translation strategy is used more in historical drama movies and manifest that historical drama subtitlers tend to have translations which are literal, directional and faithful to the source language and culture. The findings also indicate that oblique translation strategy is applied more in the Persian subtitles of romantic comedy movies. It is obvious that the Persian subtitles of romantic comedy movies attempt to accommodate themselves more to the target language.

Index Terms—direct translation strategy, oblique translation strategy, Persian subtitles, historical drama, Romantic comedy

I. INTRODUCTION

Audiovisual Translation (AVT) is the most important discipline in recent translation studies at the age of globalization and advanced technologies in media distribution. Delabastita (1989, p.196, cited in Branauskiene, 2008, p.14) used the term "Audiovisual Translation (AVT) for the audiovisual language transfer. Luyken (1991, p.11, cited in Baranauskiene 2008, p.14) defines audiovisual language transfer as "the process by which a film or television programme is made comprehensible to a target audience that is unfamiliar with the original's source language. Audiovisual translation is divided into inter-lingual and intra-lingual translations. Subtitling is one kind of inter-lingual AVT.

Gottlieb (2004, p.135) provides the following definition for subtitling: "The rendering in a different language of verbal messages in filmic media in the shape of one or more line of written text presented on the screen".

Translation typically has been used to transfer written or spoken SL texts to equivalent written or spoken TL texts. However, the difference between SL and TL and the variation in their cultures make the process of translating a real challenge. To overcome various obstacles such as lack of equivalence and cultural untranslatability, translators use various translation methods and translation procedures. Newmark (1988) states: "while translation methods relate to whole texts, translation procedures are used for sentences and smaller units of language."

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

The present study works on the seven translation procedures proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (2000). Vinay and Darbelnet introduced their model in 1985. This model carries out a comparative stylistic analysis of the texts in two languages. It notes differences between the languages and indentifies different translation strategies and procedures. This theory identified the two general translation strategies: direct translation strategy (borrowing, calque and literal translation) and oblique translation strategy (transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation).

III. STATEMENT OF THE PURPOSE

The present study intends to investigate to what extent the procedures proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti (2000) were followed in the Persian subtitles of the American historical drama and romantic comedy movies.

IV. METHODOLOGY

Translators can choose from two methods of translating, namely direct and oblique translations that they are to some extent correspondent to literal and free translations. In some translation tasks it may be possible to transpose the source

language message element by element into the target language, because it is based on either (i) parallel categories, in which case we can speak of structural parallelism, or (ii) on parallel concepts, which of the result of metalinguistic parallelisms. But translators may also notice gaps, or "lacunae", in the target language (TL) which must be filled by corresponding elements, so that the overall impression is the same for the two messages.

It may, however, also happen that, because of structural or metalinguistic differences, certain stylistic effects cannot be transposed into the TL without upsetting the syntactic order, or even the lexis. In this case it is understood that more complex methods have to be used which at first may look unusual but which nevertheless can permit translators a strict control over the reliability for their works: these procedures are called oblique translation methods.

In this research, six American movies; (Troy (2004), Alexander (2004) The King of Heaven (2005)) in historical drama and (How to Lose Friends & Alienate People (2008), The Proposal (2009), Valentine's Day (2010)) in romantic comedy genres will be the case study. Seven translation procedures under the categories of direct and oblique translation strategies proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (2000) are going to be examined.

A. Data Collection Procedures

The procedures for collecting the required data consisted of two parts; viewing the films and focusing on the Persian subtitles of each film. In order to have a clear understanding of the dialogue of the film, the researcher used the English subtitles of each film while watching the film. The sample size was 150 sentences in each genre in this study. The Persian subtitles of films were used to compare the SL dialogue of the films with their given translations using the seven procedures proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (2000). For each procedure, the researcher used three columns to have the original words or expressions with their translated ones and the applied translation procedures. In order to analyze the subtitling translations, the unit of translation as the basis for analysis should be clarified. Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, p.21, cited in Munday, 2001) define the unit of translation as 'the smallest segment of the utterance whose signs are linked in such a way that they should not be translated individually.

After gathering the data, the researcher calculated the frequency of these procedures employed by Persian translators in the subtitled films. Finally, the researcher compared the data which were collected from the three American historical drama films with the data which were taken from the three American romantic comedy films.

B. Data Analysis

This study aims to figure out to what extent the Persian subtitles of the selected American historical drama and romantic comedy movie followed the seven procedures proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet. To explore this point systematically, a number of tests of Chi-square were run to determine whether the observed frequencies of the use of these seven procedures were statistically significant or not.

Translation procedures investigated in the Persian subtitling

In this study, seven translation procedures proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (cited in Venuti, 2000) were used. These seven procedures are borrowing, calque and literal translation which are under the category of direct translation and transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation under the category of oblique translation. In each procedure, some examples are extracted from those six films mentioned above and the corresponding translations are presented along with them.

Procedure 1: Borrowing

Borrowing refers to a case where a word or an expression is taken from the SL and used in the TL, but in a 'naturalized' form. This type of change is made to conform to the rules of grammar or pronunciation of the TL.

Examples:

You can't have the whole world, Agamemnon.

تو نمی تونی همه دنیا رو بدست بیاری "آگاممنون".

Thebes, Athens, Sparta had fallen from pride.

تبس، آنتز، اسپارتا از حکومت سقوط کردند.

Today is Valentine's Day.

امروز روز ولنتاینه.

Procedure 2: Calque

Calque is the second subcategory of direct translation which refers to the case where the translator imitates in his translation the structure or manner of expression of the ST.

Example:

It's your buddy, Romeo Midnight. I know.

من دوست شما رومئو از برنامه نیمه شب هستم. میدونم.

Procedure 3: literal translation

Literal translation is the last subcategory of direct translation which is a direct transfer of a SL text into a grammatically and idiomatically appropriate to TL text.

Examples:

Remove your army from my land.

ارتشت رو از سرزمین من، بیرون ببر.

Let's settle this war in the old manner. Your best fighter against my best.

بیا این جنگو طبق عادت قدیمی برگزار کنیم. بهترین جنگجوی تو مقابل بهترین من.

Men, all men, reach and fall… .

مردها، تمام مردها صعود می کنند و فرو می ریزند.

Procedure 4: Transposition

Transposition involves replacing one word class with another without changing the meaning of the message. The method also involves the grammatical change that occurs in translation from SL to TL.

Examples:

 I sent a boy to look for him.

یه پسرو فرستادم دنبالش.

It takes strong men to rule.

فرمانروایی یه مرد قوی رو میطلبه.

She was a suicider, cut off her head.

اون خودکشی کرده، سرش رو قطع کن

Procedure 5: Modulation

Modulation is another type of oblique translation method which changes the semantic and point of view of the SL.

Examples:

I like your land.

من اینجا رو دوست دارم.

… open to all.

... و برای همه آشکار شد.

I know all of it.

ذره ذره اش را می شناسم.

Procedure 6: Equivalence

This term is used to refer to cases where languages describe the same situation by different stylistic or structural means. It is especially used for idioms and proverbs.

Examples:

She's your meal ticket.

اون برگ برنده.

And … we're clear.

و ... تمام.

Procedure 7: Adaptation

Adaptation is the last type of oblique translation which is used in cases where the type of situation being referred to by SL message is unknown in the TL culture.

Examples:

I've made it … to Shangri La.

بالاخره به این بهشت برین رسیدم.

That's my Armani tuxedo.

این هم کت و شلوار آرمانیه منه.

No, I'm fine.

نه من نمی خوام. خیلی خیلی ممنون.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The findings of this study show that the subtitlers of both two genres used the three translation procedures; borrowing, transposition and modulation almost equally in the Persian subtitles of American historical drama and romantic comedy movies. However, literal translation was used more in historical drama rather than romantic comedy movies. The results indicate that subtitlers attempted to stick to the source language and tried to be more faithful to the source text in historical drama movies. Also, the findings manifest that the occurrence of equivalence and adaptation in romantic comedy movies is higher than the use of these translation procedures in historical drama movies. This shows that the Persian subtitlers in romantic comedy movies are inclined more toward the target language (Persian) and have tried to make natural and acceptable translations rather than adequate and faithful ones.

The results of the study show that direct translation (borrowing, calque and literal translation) is used more in historical drama movies than in the Persian subtitles of romantic comedy movies. However, oblique translation (transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation) is applied more by the subtitlers of romantic comedy movies. The findings manifest that historical drama subtitles are more faithful to the source language structure and culture. In other words, they are source-oriented. However, the Persian subtitlers of romantic comedy movies attempt to accommodate themselves more to the target language and use more natural equivalence in their translations to make them more comprehensible and satisfactory for the target audience.

TABLE 5.1.
FREQUENCY OF THE SEVEN TRANSLATION PROCEDURES IN THE PERSIAN SUBTITLES OF HISTORICAL DRAMA AND ROMANTIC COMEDY MOVIES

Movie genres		B.	C.	Lt.	T.	M.	E.	A.	Total number of sentences
		Translation Procedures	
Historical Drama movies	Frequency	38	-	667	17	29	4	6	150
Romantic Comedy movies	Frequency	44	1	487	23	39	36	24	150
	X^2	0.439	-	26.06	0.9	1.46	25.06	10.08	
	p	3.84	-	3.84	3.84	3.84	3.84	3.84	

$P<0.05$

TABLE 5.2.
FREQUENCY OF DIRECT AND OBLIQUE TRANSLATION STRATEGIES IN THE PERSIAN SUBTITLES OF HISTORICAL DRAMA AND ROMANTIC COMEDY MOVIES

Movies genres		Direct Translation	Oblique Translation	Total Number of Sentences
Historical Drama movies	Frequency	706	56	150
Romantic Comedy movies	Frequency	532	122	150
	X^2	24.44	24.46	
	p	3.84	3.84	

$P<0.05$

VI. CONCLUSION

The main features in historical drama and romantic comedy movies are semantic, directional, faithful, source text-oriented and foreignized. Also, this study implies that applying more oblique translation (transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation) by the Persian subtitlers to produce communicative, natural, target text-oriented and domesticating features in their Persian subtitles makes comprehensible, satisfactory and enjoyable translations for the target audience.

The findings of this research can provide guidelines for the novice translators who need to gain the initial knowledge to take the preliminary steps in having comprehensible, natural and communicative translation. Moreover, this research can work as a useful tool in the translation courses such as film translation for the university students majoring in translation. It can also give an idea about subtitling translations to the university professors offering audio/visual courses to students of translation.

At the end, given the important fact that a few studies have been conducted on the Persian subtitles of American movies in Iran and considering the increasing importance of the field of subtitling in today's world of technology, a need is felt for allocating further researches to the domain of subtitling especially in Iran and it is hoped that this study paves the way for other studies in this area.

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An Analysis of Cohesion Achieved by Imperative Clause in English Netvertising

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Abstract—The present study finds that imperative clause, which is ubiquitous in English netvertising, aids to make the discourse of a net ad cohesive in two ways: non-structure and structure. The former consists of reference, ellipsis and lexical cohesion. The latter refers to the chain of imperative clauses that forms a relation of co-classification.

Index Terms—imperative clause, English netvertising, cohesion

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Imperative Clause in English Netvertising

The word, 'advertising', first appeared in a magazine in 1645 and it originates in Latin 'advertere' which means 'turning towards' while it means 'speaking publicly' in Chinese and 'shouting or yelling' in Russian. The history of advertising is not very long but the definitions of advertising offered by different scholars are various (Hu, 1996).It is estimated that an average person in the world will get involved in advertisements for 800 times a day (Qi, 2003). Advertising surrounds us and there is no reason for us to be elusive from it.

Generally speaking advertising has the following functions: information function, demand creation function, persuasive function, get action function and goodwill establishment function (Wang, 2004). In order to fulfill the above functions the copywriter should keep the four principles of AIDA advanced by E. St. Elmo who was the Advertising Manager for NCR and served as Vice President at Campbell-Ewald Company. AIDA is the abbreviation of Attention, Interest, Desire and Action. Qi Yunfang (2003) adds other three principles: Conviction, Memory and Satisfaction. He thinks that the copywriter should pay attention to the two values of English advertising: Attention value and Memory value. The two values promulgate that English advertising is a unique discourse.

According to different media, advertising can be classified into various types: billboards, radio, cinema and television, Internet, sky-writing, bus stop benches, magazines, newspapers, sides of buses, taxicab doors and the backs of event tickets etc. Among them, advertising by adopting the medium of Internet, netvertising for short, has some advantages that traditional advertising is short of. The advantages of netvertising are low cost, targetability, tracking, flexibility and interactivity. Because of these advantages more and more companies view netvertising as a real opportunity. Due to this net advertisements (net ads) are chosen as the corpus for the present study. 124 English classified advertisements are downloaded from three different websites: Overstock, deal and rEdenvelop. From the 124 net ads, 50 are chosen randomly. In the 50 net ads one type of clause is pervasive, which is imperative clause. 121 imperative clauses are identified in the 50 net ads. Such quantity means that more than two imperative clauses used in each net ad. Therefore the ubiquity of imperative clause in English netvertising, a particular discourse, makes it possible to study the cohesion achieved by this type of clause in English netvertising.

B. Cohesion

In Halliday and Hasan's term cohesion is semantic. It occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. Cohesion in Halliday and Hasan's book Cohesion in English refers specifically to the non-structural text forming relations. However they expand the scope of the concept of cohesion in another book Language, Context and Text, which covers both non-structural and structural text forming relations (Zhang , 2003).

Non-structural cohesion mainly refers to grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. The former includes reference, substitution and ellipsis; the latter refers to reiteration and collocation. There is a borderline between the two types of cohesion, which is conjunction (Halliday and Hasan, 2001). Structural cohesion consists of thematic structure, information structure, transitivity and mood structure. In this study it is found non-structural and structural cohesion can be achieved by imperative clause in English netvertising. The former refers to reference, ellipsis and lexical cohesion; the latter is realized by the chain of imperative clauses in English netvertising.

II. COHESION ACHIEVED BY IMPERATIVE CLAUSE IN ENGLISH NETVERTISING

A. Reference

Reference is a semantic relation and it can be further divided into exophora and endophora. Halliday thinks that exophora links the language with the context of situation, so it does not contribute to the integration of one passage and only endophora is cohesive (ibid), but Delu Zhang (2003) claims that exophora is also cohesive because it contributes to cohesion implicitly and the referential item can be retrieved from the context of situation or the context of culture. There are three types of reference: personal, demonstrative and comparative reference (Halliday and Hasan, 2001).The present study finds Exophoric personal reference is widely used in imperative clause in netvertising. See the following examples:

(1) keep out the cold with Marmot's Lassen Wind Stopper fleece vest

(2) send a beautiful message of Love, Hope, and Faith with this inspirational multi colored bracelet

(3) outfit your car with the sweet styling and functionality of this in dash DVD/CD stereo from SPL

(4) let your hair hang free to gracefully play with the sparkle of the earrings

The subjects of the four imperative clauses are implicit 'you' which refer to the audiences. 'your' appearing in (3) and (4) also stands for the audiences. Obviously the implicit subject 'you' and the possessive pronoun 'your' belong to exophorical personal reference which connects the audiences with the advertisements closely. The audiences are certain to be persuaded by the advertisers to have a try of the products when they read such imperative clauses.

Exophoric demonstrative reference can also be found in imperative clauses in the net ads. Examples are illustrated below.

(5) maintain your court sense with this hybrid running shoe from Fila

(6) shed light on your studies or leisure reading with this classically styled desk lamp

(7) keep your toes cozy warm in these trendy and practical 'snow' boots from Chinese Laundry

(8) order your new ring now at our low online price

(9) order now to take advantage of this great one-of-kind deal

'this' in (5) and (6) and 'these' in (7) are near demonstrative reference. 'this' conveys a sense of immediacy and also of solidarity with the hearer, of shared interest and attention (Halliday, 2000), so it is frequently used in the net ads to bring out the products for catching the attention of the audiences. 'this' and 'these' are exophoric in the above imperative clauses for they refer to the products in the pictures which can be understood as a type of context (Thibault, 2004). 'now' in (8) and (9) refers exophorically to the current time when the audiences are reading the advertisements and it is used to persuade the audiences to choose or to buy the products at the time when they are browsing the web pages.

Endophora used in imperative clause is also traceable in netvertising. The following examples are extracted from three net ads in the 50 ones.

(10) wow them with 6 chocolate bars (1.25 oz)

(11) simply roll it up

(12) top it off with a USB connection cable for fast downloads

(13) read more

'them' and 'it' in (10), (11) and (12) are anaphoric; 'more' in (13) is cataphoric. 'them' in (10) refers to people who have a sweet tooth, being mentioned in the previous part of the advertisement; 'it' in (11) is the raised air bed also appearing in the former part of the advertisement; 'it' in (12) stands for the RCA Lyra personal digital player being described at the very beginning of the net ad; 'more' in (13) is comparative cataphoric. The content locates in the latter link.

Exophora and endophora in imperative clause contribute jointly to the cohesion of netvertising discourse.

B. Ellipsis

Ellipsis can be interpreted as that form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing. There are nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis. For the sake of not being redundant, ellipsis is used in imperative clauses in the net ads but it is not as pervasive as reference. See the following examples:

(14) order one for a quiet retreat among the flowers or order several for outdoor entertaining

(15) get one for yourself as well, at our low online price

In (14) the nominal group 'Brazilian hardwood adirondack ottoman' following 'one' and 'several' is omitted; in (15) the elliptical element after 'one' is 'sterling silver heart toggle bracelet'. The omitted elements can be retrieved from the previous parts of the advertisements.

C. Lexical Cohesion

In lexical cohesion reiteration involves the use of repetition, synonym, a near synonym and superordinate. Collocation refers to the co-occurrence of lexical items. Reiteration of lexical cohesion is traced in imperative clause in netvertising discourse. Examples are below.

(16) Experience the health benefits obtained by walking naturally with the help of Energy sandal from Earth shoes. Find great deals on shoes for the entire family at Overstock.com.

(17) Treat your guests with the delicious aroma and robust flavor of Café Godiva…. It's a delicious way to start the day or to end a fine meal.

(18) Save 50% on a second box (to the same address) of the sweetest fruit to bend a bough…. Save on two luscious

boxes (a $55.90 value), shipped to one address.

(19) Order now to get in line. Hurry, order now and we'll ship this item when it becomes available.

'shoes' in (16) appearing in the two clauses is repetition. It is also the superordinate of 'sandal' appearing in the first clause. The adjective 'delicious' and the verbs 'save' and 'order' all appear twice in the two clauses in (17), (18) and (19) respectively. They all belong to repetition.

Besides the non-structural cohesion: reference, ellipsis and lexical cohesion, the structural cohesion can also be realized by imperative clause in netvertising. Delu Zhang (2003) studies cohesive function of mood structure and argues that the high frequency of one mood type in a discourse represents the prominent characteristic of an interpersonal meaning. In his opinion there is a relation of co-classification between the same clause types, which is cohesive. Imperative clause is pervasive in netvertising and such a high frequency of imperative clause builds a cohesive tie for the netvertising discourse. See the following DVD/VCR net ad.

JVC Progressive Scan DVD/VCR Combo

Looking for a replacement VCR? Want a new DVD player? The HR-XVC33 provides the logical choice for people who want the best of both worlds.

Enjoy a variety of media. Watch a DVD while recording a TV program on tape. Even dub DVD to VCR (non-copyrighted material only). With the HR-XVC33, it's not only possible; it's easy as JVC.

Click on Overstock.com for hot deals on the biggest names in electronics.

In the above net ad the imperative clauses in italic are like a chain and they help to consolidate the cohesion of the discourse and offer some information of the product for audiences. They also form a strong sense of persuasion which influences audiences to make a decision of choosing or buying the products. There is more than one among the 50 net ads that contain such a chain of imperative clauses.

Further reading the above net ad we can easily find the two clauses in ellipsis appearing at the very beginning of the discourse are interrogatives. The two interrogatives also contribute to the cohesion of the discourse because they share the same mood type. Actually they are only interrogative clauses literally for the meaning of the two clauses is to persuade audiences to have a new DVD player, HR-XVC33 specifically, instead of asking a question, so they can be understood as imperative in the net ad, which will not be analyzed concretely in the present study.

III. CONCLUSION

Imperative clause is mainly used for the meaning of persuasion which is an important function of English netvertising since net ads aim to persuade the audiences to buy or to enjoy the products. Therefore imperative clause is ubiquitous in English netvertising. The present study focuses on the cohesion achieved by imperative clause in English netvertising. It is found non-structural and structural cohesion are achieved by imperative clause in netvertisng. The former includes reference, ellipsis and lexical cohesion. The latter refers to the chain of imperative clauses that forms a relation of co-classification.

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