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Pre-service Teachers' Beliefs Related to English as a Second Language and English as a Foreign Language: Where is the Difference?

Francis Bangou
Faculty of Education, University of Ottawa, 145 Jean-Jacques Lussier, Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N5, Canada
Email: fbangou@uottawa.ca;

Douglas Fleming
Faculty of Education, University of Ottawa, 145 Jean-Jacques Lussier, Ottawa, ON, K1N 6N5, Canada
Email: dfleming@uottawa.ca

Carol Ann Goff-Kfouri
Notre Dame University of Louaize, Zouk Mikael, P.O. Box 72, Lebanon
Email: ckfouri@ndu.edu.lb

Abstract—**This article reports the findings of a qualitative case study examining the knowledge base held by English language teacher candidates enrolled in two university pre-service programs in Lebanon and Canada. Through an examination of blog postings and the data collected through semi-structured interviews, eight Canadian and eleven Lebanese respondents were polled while taking courses focusing on second language teaching methodology. Based on our findings, we argue that what teacher candidates know about their field of expertise is communal, contextually bounded and uniquely rooted in their experiences within and outside their pre-service programs. Moreover, the multitude of beliefs shared by these two groups of pre-service teachers demonstrate that there is indeed a universal knowledge base associated with the teaching of English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL). However, we have also found significant differences between these fields based on specific and local contexts.**

Index Terms—**English, learners, knowledge, teacher, beliefs**

I. Introduction

As second/foreign language teacher educators, our goal is in part to guide pre-service teachers in acquiring the knowledge base and savoir-faire that will enable them to successfully enter the classroom. We hope that such knowledge will constitute the foundation of their continuing growth as professionals. Within the field of second/foreign language education, what constitutes the core of such knowledge base has been the subject of a long lasting debate. According to Freeman (1989) second/foreign language teacher education has become fragmented. Too often, efforts focus on ancillary areas such as applied linguistics, methodology, or language acquisition while overlooking the core: teaching. He stated that "it is inaccurate and misleading to imply, as we do in most pre-service language teacher education that knowledge in methodology, applied linguistics, and language acquisition alone will necessarily enable or equip people to teach" (p.2). He identified two misconceptions that have often jeopardized the success of second/foreign language teacher education. The first misconception is that second/foreign language teacher education is based on the transmission of knowledge and skills in methodology and related areas. The second misconception is that transmission of knowledge will lead to effective practice. Such perspective implies that there is a fundamental universal knowledge associated with teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) and that acquiring such knowledge will prepare any language pre-service teacher to teach regardless of the context. In a later article, Freeman and Johnson (1998) argued that we should reconceptualize the knowledge base of second and foreign language teacher education so that we center on the teacher who does it (e.g. experiences, beliefs, background), the context in which it is done, and the pedagogy by which it is done. They claimed that our teacher education practices constitute our professional self-definition. What teachers know about teaching is largely socially constructed out of the experiences, beliefs and classrooms from which teachers have come. This paper is an attempt to contribute to this discussion. Based on Freeman and Johnson' claims, the present study was originally designed to analyse the knowledge that our students had acquired in our courses as a way to assess our practice as English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher educators working respectively in Canada and Lebanon. More precisely, through an analysis of the teacher candidates' beliefs as articulated in their discourse we wanted to have a better understanding of the role that context played in the construction of such knowledge within our respective institutions and have a better comprehension of what constituted the core knowledge that defined us as ESOL teachers regardless of context (i.e. ESL, EFL and institutional). The research questions that guided this paper were:

1. Within the Canadian and Lebanese teacher education programs how did the pre-service teachers articulate their beliefs associated with: 1) the fields of ESL and EFL, 2) English Language Learners (ELLs) and 3) the act of teaching ESL and EFL?

2. Within the Canadian and Lebanese teacher education programs how did the teacher candidates articulate what contributed to the development of such beliefs?

3. What beliefs were shared by the Lebanese and Canadian pre-service teachers despite .the contextual differences?

II. Pre-service Teachers' Beliefs

According to Phipps and Borg (2009) "the study of teachers' beliefs has in the last 15 years emerged as a major area of enquiry in the field of language teaching" (p. 380). However, to our surprise we found little research on teachers' beliefs related to the field of ESL and EFL. As Pajares (1992) argues defining beliefs is not an easy task. They can refer to:

Attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy, to name but a few that can be found in the literature (p. 309).

In this study we will refer to beliefs primarily as "complex and inter-related system of personal and professional knowledge that serves as implicit theories and cognitive maps for experiencing and responding to reality. Beliefs rely on cognitive and affective components and are often tacitly held" (Murphy, 2000, p.16). We chose this definition because we thought that it was more in line with Freeman & Johnson's conceptualization of a knowledge base. Murphy's definition highlights the fact that beliefs are constructed through interactions within sociocultural contexts and provide a cognitive map that contributes to one's understanding of reality. They represent in fact our individual knowledge about our reality and as such teachers' beliefs are an important part of their *knowledge base.* A teacher's knowledge base is in fact the result of the interrelationships between prior beliefs and the knowledge acquired within specific institutional contexts. One of most controversial debate in the field is related to what constitutes core as opposed to peripheral beliefs (Pajares, 1992; Borg 2006). Although there is some disagreement as to what constitutes core beliefs, they are generally considered central to the teacher's practice, normative and stable. According to Murphy (2000) "understanding teachers' beliefs and how they are impacted on by a change in context or environment is a necessary first step in bringing about positive change in teaching and learning" (p. 14).

Stanosheck, Youngs and Youngs (2001) conducted a study related to the predictors of mainstream teachers' attitudes towards teaching ELLs. They created a model of predictors they believe are likely to explain teachers attitudes towards ELLs and they offered the following six categories of predictors they argued were suggested by "past EST-related research" (p. 99). (a) general educational experiences, (b) specific ESL training, (c) personal contact with diverse cultures, (d) prior contact with ESL students, (e) demographic characteristics, and (f) personality. The authors focused on gender. The research showed that women generally are more comfortable with interracial interaction and issues than men who tend to be more confused about racial issues (Ottavi, Poe-Davis, and Dings, 1994). They found that the teachers in their study were mainly neutral to slightly positive in their attitude toward teaching ELLs. The results show that mainstream teachers are most likely to have a positive attitude towards ELLs if they have had a foreign language or a multicultural education course, worked in the humanities, had ESL training, had lived or taught abroad, interacted with a culturally diverse population and are female.

Peacock (2001), did not focus on the predictors of mainstream teachers' beliefs but attempted to investigate changes in the beliefs about second language learning of 146 ESL pre-service teachers over a 3 year period of time. Peacock argued that there is a shortage of studies that investigate pre-service teachers' beliefs. According to this researcher, ESL teacher trainers should try to eliminate any detrimental beliefs before the pre-service teachers start to teach. The results show that most of the beliefs held by these respondents changed very little over three years. Most pre-service teachers still believed that learning a second language meant learning a lot of vocabulary words and grammar rules. It would be interesting to see if the teacher candidates in our study hold the same beliefs.

Mattheoudakis (2007) also attempted to track the evolution of pre-service second language teachers' beliefs during a three-year teacher education program. This researcher highlighted the fact that prior research tended to show that pre-service teachers use their past experiences and beliefs to interpret the content of teacher education courses, they tend to use the information learned to reinforce rather than challenge prior beliefs (Powell, 1992; Tatto, 1998). However, later studies have challenged such findings (MacDonald.Badger & White, 2001). Joram and Gabriele (1998) suggested that focusing on pre-service teachers' prior beliefs in instruction have an impact on the evolution of their beliefs. According to Cole and Knowles (1993) most pre-service teachers start their practicum with hopes, images, and expectations and during their teaching practice these images are shattered as they are exposed to school and classroom realities that do not match their expectation and previous experiences. Freeman and Richards (1996) have argued that beliefs strongly influence what pre-service teachers learn. Most of the studies dedicated to teachers' beliefs are based on a quantitative paradigm and according to the literature it seems that there is a need for more descriptive and explanatory research on second language pre-service teachers' beliefs. This multiple case study is an attempt to address this need.

III. Methodology

Creswell (2007) argues that the design of a study should be related in part to the research topic and the way that the researcher prefers to address the research questions. As stated earlier this study focuses on pre-service teachers' subjective views on teaching English. We thought that emerging nature of this study was more in line with a qualitative perspective (Merriam, 2002) considering that we were trying to decipher the ways that our participants constructed their fields of ESL and EFL within specific institutional contexts. According to Anderson (1993) case studies are more focused on the how and why things happen and allow one to conduct an in depth analysis of the relationships between multiple elements within and across contexts. This is why we thought that a qualitative multiple case study was most appropriate to address our research questions.

A. Contexts

This multiple case study took place at two Faculties of Education: one in Canada and one in Lebanon**.** At the Canadian institution about 750 students attend the baccalaureate program in education every year in order to obtain their provincial certification to teach in public schools where English is the language of instruction at the primary and secondary levels. The program is focused on developing teacher candidates who are knowledgeable, competent and reflective professionals. It is therefore crucial for teacher candidates to be aware of how to concretely and critically connect theory with their own practice (Bangou & Fleming, 2010). The full-time eight-month intensive program of study for this certification consists of 36 course credits and a mandatory ten week practicum (5 weeks in the fall and 5 weeks in the winter). The course which is the focus of this case was one of the optional classes that teacher candidates could attend. It was picked because it was the only course specifically in ESL of the program. The class met for three and a half hours once a week for 5 weeks. Four sections of the course were offered each year, two in the fall and two in the winter terms. Approximately 35 students enrolled in each. In this course pre-service teachers had the opportunity to study the current theories and practices of ESL teaching and learning. Some of the topics addressed were second language acquisition theory and research, the teaching and assessment of reading, writing, speaking and listening and their integration with other academic subjects, as well as strategies for integrating ESL students into the regular classroom. As teacher educators we wanted to give our students the opportunity to examine and practice fundamental concepts and approaches in a way that would allow them to determine how best to position themselves as ESL teachers. More specifically, at the end of the course, teacher candidates were expected to 1) demonstrate a basic understanding of some of the current issues, conceptual frameworks, methods and practices related to the teaching of ESL; 2) illustrate how these issues influence teaching options for diverse populations of students; and 3) determine their own orientation in terms of ESL teaching approaches, strategies and methods (Bangou & Fleming, 2010). The text used in this class was *The more than just surviving handbook: ESL for every classroom teacher* (Law & Ecks, 2000). It was a book specifically written for regular classroom teachers who wanted to attend to the needs of both the ELL and the mainstream students. The text was chosen because most of the pre-service teachers in the program had this profile. Moreover, this textbook was written by teachers and was full of practical and hands-on ideas which seem to always please teacher candidates. Each week we also had a PowerPoint presentation on diverse issues: ESL in Ontario; lesson and curriculum planning; ESL approaches and methodologies and culture, motivation and identity.

In Lebanon the official language is Arabic. Lebanon is unofficially tri-lingual in that businesses are run in French or English; though government papers are issued in Arabic, service in government offices is generally available in French or English. Private schools and universities rarely use Arabic as their language of instruction. The Lebanese institution of higher education at which this study was carried out uses English as its language of instruction. The Faculty of Humanities offers a M.A. and a B.A. in Education and a Teaching Diploma. Approximately sixty students were registered in the various education programs at the time of the study. Students register in a teaching diploma degree in order to obtain official certification to teach in both public and private schools where English is the language of instruction at both the primary and secondary levels. Students with a teaching diploma may also teach in schools where French is the first language of instruction and English is a second foreign language. Both the Bachelor of Education and the Teaching Diploma focus on forming teachers who are similar to candidates in Canada, knowledgeable of the subject matter, understanding of the student, and aware the classroom is not static. In Lebanon, candidates may choose the full-time option and in the case of the teaching diploma finish the 6 three credit courses and 1 mandatory practicum in one year and one summer, or they may choose to take courses part time. It is not rare that candidates work as supply teachers as they complete their degree. The course on which the study in Lebanon focused was the Teaching Practicum. This course was chosen because the Teaching Practicum is the capstone course which students take at the end of their course of studies and the content of this course was very similar to the one in Canada. It meets at the beginning of the semester for five three hour sessions before the students are sent to their teaching assignments. The pre-service teacher trainer observes the students on a regular basis during the 15 week semester and conducts class meetings to discuss the issues and the experiences of the students in the schools. The student must present a report at the end of the practicum and participate in whole class discussions of one of their classes on videotape. Students in this class had already taken the methodology courses; pre-service teachers had the opportunity to study the current theories of teaching in general and in particular those used in an EFL context. Subjects covered in the class are similar to those in the Canadian syllabus: teaching of reading, writing, speaking, listening; and the integration of the English language in the teaching of other academic subjects such as the sciences and mathematics. The professor of the practicum course focuses on the importance of adopting methodology in teaching. By that we mean that the teacher is encouraged to make the classroom learning environment as learner centered as possible and thus the need for an understanding of learning outcomes and how to incorporate them into the teaching objectives. At the end of the course, the students were expected to 1) demonstrate understanding of current educational theory including principles of teaching EFL; 2) present micro-teaching sessions in which these theories were evident; and 3) show proof of having developed their philosophy of education. There are no textbooks used in this class. Students refer to all the textbooks they have used during their 6 courses.

B. Participants

Although qualitative case studies usually deal with small samples of participants, their trustworthiness are ensured by the use of multiple sources of evidences, cross-case examination and within-case examination in parallel with the review of the literature (Yin, 2009).

In Canada, since one of the researchers was also the instructor of the class for ethical reasons we had to ask our research assistant to recruit the participants. Eight pre-service teachers accepted to participate in the research. The participants were representative of the student population in the B.Ed. program. The age range of these teacher candidates was between 23-40 years. Although most of these teacher candidates had no prior teaching experience a significant number had taught English abroad or in Canada.

In Lebanon, the instructor of the class was not involved in the study. We invited the students in the Practicum class to participate in the study at the fifth week of the semester. A total of 11 students signed the consent form. The age range of the teacher candidates was between 21-30 years. The students are representative of the population of pre-service teachers at the university. They all come from diverse backgrounds; parents are Lebanese who had emigrated to Africa, Europe and the Gulf states and then returned to Lebanon so that their children could continue their university studies. The students consider themselves to be multi-cultural. All of the participants had teaching experience even though they had not yet received their degrees.

C. Data Collection

In this multiple case study, two data collection strategies were used both in Canada and Lebanon; they were 1) blog postings and 2) semi-structured interviews. We thought that the data would be richer if we could capture participants' beliefs and experiences as they were expressed naturally through their interactions with their peers. In Canada, as part of the course requirements teachers candidates had to contribute to a blog related to the content of the course. We realized that the blog provided the teacher candidates with the space to react both collectively and individually to the course material and express a range of spontaneous emotions, and opinions. This is why we decided to use the blog postings as data. The pre-service teachers were aware that their participation in the study had no impact on their grade for the course. In Lebanon, the blog postings were not part of the requirements of the course. However, in order to conduct the study in a similar fashion in both research settings Lebanese participants were asked to contribute to a blog around questions related to their general experience as pre-service teachers in the course and in the classrooms.

In both Canada and Lebanon each participant was interviewed once. The objective of these semi-structured interviews was to allow participants to describe their experiences within the courses and the programs in their own words without controlling or predicting their behaviour. Moreover, the interviews enabled us also to elaborate on points we thought were interesting in the blog postings

D. Data Analysis

Both in Canada and Lebanon, we carefully went through the interview transcripts and the blog entries and an initial list of codes was created from the research questions and our theoretical framework (e.g. prior beliefs, teaching, course material, etc.). Afterward, we conducted a content analysis and highlighted the emerging themes (e.g. influence of past experience, frustration, teaching, etc.). This procedure was repeated across participants and across contexts to identify the shared themes and patterns. Through this analysis we were able to highlight the ways the research participants constructed their knowledge within the program as well as their beliefs related to 1) the field of ESL/EFL 2) ELLs and 2) the act of teaching ESL/EFL.

IV. Results

A. The Fields of English as a Second and English as a Foreign Language

Both Canadian and Lebanese participants agreed that the course contributed to their knowledge related to ESL. For example a Canadian teacher candidate said: *"The course helped me think about what my convictions are about language and learning in the contacts to ELL."* Both courses provided an arena where pre-service teachers deconstructed and reconstructed their field of expertise. For instance, most of the Canadian participants struggled during the interview to provide a clear description of what they believed the field of ESL referred to. Such statements were not unusual: *"I don't know if I'm right on that definition, but that's the way I am distinguishing it, I guess in my mind."* For some *"ESL should cover anybody who is in need of help for the language."* Others where a little bit more specific:

"For me, ESL is teaching English as second language, which means I think a bit of teaching anybody, child or adult, who must learn another language in order to survive in order to succeed, in order to function." This pre-service teacher believed that the field of ESL addressed specific instrumental needs and it seems that people who wanted to learn the language just for pleasure were not included. It is true that a majority of the Canadian participants made a clear distinction between ESL and EFL: *"Well, I distinguish between ESL here and ESL in other countries in a sense, really it's more EFL, which means English as a foreign language because that's not an environment where they are going to be using English."* It is true that in the course we did focus on contexts where English was the predominant language of communication outside of the classroom, mostly because it was the primary context where the teacher candidates were going to work. Moreover, it is true that most of the course material was dedicated to the challenges faced by ELLs and the ways that teachers could attend to their needs. It might be why for a majority of participants believed that ESL referred mainly to contexts where learners had no choice but to learn the language if they wanted to succeed or fully participate in a host society: "*I can consider someone learning a second language when there is an urgency. They need to work on that language. They need to educate themselves in that language."*

Interestingly in Lebanon they made the same distinctions between ESL and EFL and it had an impact on the way that they referred to their field of expertise. As was stated before, Arabic is the official language and for that reason English would be considered a Foreign language. However, as stated before it is not uncommon to hear people conversing in English or French, or Armenian in places of business; newspapers are published in Arabic and English, French and Armenian, and schools choose one of the languages other than Arabic to use as its language of instruction. It must be said that there is a cultural element to this situation as a foreign language is seen as a tool to acquire access to better employment possibilities in the future. Though Lebanese are not obliged to speak a foreign language in the work place, in general they do and English is quickly becoming the second language of choice for most Lebanese citizens who consider themselves as forward thinking. Because of the sociocultural status of English in Lebanon, most people feel that they have no choice but to learn the language to be successful. It was definitely the case of the Lebanese participants since in the institution where the research took place English was both the language taught and the language of instruction. The Lebanese pre-service teachers in the study were all aware of the specificities of their situation and that the courses they had taken were conditioning them to the particularities of ESL *"I am learning that a lot of my students are spending lots of time in an English language atmosphere…"* Their challenges seemed to be very similar to the Canadian participants: "*But even though they [language learners] are exposed to the language, there are hurdles that they must surmount. They don't all use correct expression."* This is why most of Lebanese participants referred to their field of expertise as ESL rather than EFL.

To our surprise, a number of Canadian participants did compare the field of ESL to the field of teaching students with exceptionalities: *"Like I think LD [learning disability] like ESL is like, giving people the right tools for how they learn or like, the tools like to get to the point where everyone else is."* As professors, we never made such comparison; however, we did put an emphasis on the fact that it was important for ESL teachers to provide the right accommodations to the ELLs. It might be why some pre-service teachers made the connection between the two fields. The Lebanese pre-service teachers did not make such comparison, however they were also aware that as English teachers they will have to provide the right accommodations to their students: "*I now know that I must possess a rich vocabulary. I need to slow my pace, use understandable vocabulary, but at the same time not speaking in a wrong way so that students could understand.*"

Although, the teacher candidates conceptualized the field of ESL and EFL in numerous ways, both the Canadian and Lebanese pre-service teachers believed that it was necessary for any teacher to develop a knowledge base related to ESL/EFL and this is partly why some of them decided to enrol in the course. For instance a Canadian participant said during an interview: *"I think what drew me to the course most was that I fully acknowledge that ESL and ELL that is something that's asset for any teacher."* A Lebanese pre-service teacher declared: "*ESL teachers are able to understand the students' needs to have definitions and to simplify the terms of a Math lesson. We have to help the content teachers*." Both Canadian and Lebanese participants felt the urgency to develop their knowledge base related to teaching English to better attend to the needs of their student population. As an elective the Canadian course was only offered for five weeks and most pre-service teachers did not understand why it was not a requirement and was not offered as a full course. The Lebanese pre-service teachers felt that their training had provided them with more than other teacher trainees.

B. English Language Learners

In the Canadian institution the Ontario curriculum (2007) was used to define an ELL. In this document ELLs were:

Students in provincially funded English language schools whose first language is a language other than English, or is a variety of English that is significantly different from the variety used in instruction in Ontario's schools, and who may require focused educational support to assist them in attaining proficiency in English (p.8).

Such student population included international students, immigrants, refugees and Canadian born for whom English was not a first language (francophone or autochthones).

This definition did challenge Canadian pre-service teachers' prior beliefs related to ELLs and at the end of the course most of them were still in the process of integrating this new definition:

English language learners means a different language beings the first language and I do not know. I have to think so one second…I guess what's important for me like, that would be a student coming with the purpose of using or learning English as a means of communicating in the current society.

As we can see this participant struggled with the notion of first and second language and goes back to what seems to be a fairly traditional definition of a language learner – someone who is learning a second language as means to communicate in society. It is true that until this class Canadian pre-service teachers were used to the term ESL learners. For a majority of them it was even the first time that they heard the term ELL, and they were still trying to make sense of it. They knew that the term ELL was preferred but it was difficult for them to conceptualize it:

This is the second language, so English as a second language I think that what it sounds for. So you are learning English to be a second language, but I think the professor mentioned that, uhm, it's we can't, it's not really appropriate to use the term ESL, especially, you know for people in Ontario, cause a lot of kids, already speak, you know a second language.

For this pre-service teacher ELL seems to be just a politically correct translation of ESL. Most of the Canadian pre-service teachers struggled with integrating this new term into their discourse. For instance, when asked specifically to tell us what ELL meant to her a teacher candidate responded: *"Well for me, I mean ESL or ELL or someone who is learning English, is anyboby whose language, whose first language isn't English and who struggles with it."* As we can see this participant started her response automatically with ESL then she used the preferred term ELL and then she provided a more descriptive reference to the concept "someone who is learning English" to be sure that she covered all her basis and that we knew what she was referring to.

Some of the Canadian participants made a clear distinction between ESL students and ELL:

I think that my last students are ESL students. I don't think they are ELL students, because they are learning it as their second language, but they are speaking at home and a community and everywhere else, then I think it's their second language as an addition to their first language, but ELL students are maybe learning it as, like, we are not keeping, we are not worried about keeping it is just kind of that. We are not worried about them learning both languages together. We are worried them to learn English.

It seems that for this pre-service teachers ESL students are more in an additive bilingualism situation whereas ELLs are more in a subtractive bilingualism context. We do not know what trigger such association but in the mind of this participant this is how it made sense to her.

Despite the definition that was provided to them most Canadian participants used their own criteria to make sense of such concept. Some teacher candidates believed that ELLs referred to anybody who learns English and it could be their first or second language:

An English Language learner it is a person who is learning English language and I think it could range from an invent who, you know well, on the cognitive processes has begun and started like to recognize, you know what people talk, their words, you know, the baby starts to say, like, a-a, it makes sound you know, I think that's they started t learn language then.

As we can see for this pre-service teacher babies learning their first language could be considered ELLs. Connected to that idea is the belief that learning a language is a life long process for both first and second languages:

Everyday you can learn a new word…so I think that you are always an English language learner…I think that even when you are seventy, you are still learning language. So that's kind of what I think ELLs are. People go learning English, which is everyboby, and it never ends.

Others were more specific, to them ELLs refer mainly to learners for whom English is not a first language: *"I guess somebody who either, did not learn English as their first language or even if they did learn it along with the another language it is not a primary language that they use...somebody who basically struggles with English*" The notion of struggle was often associated with ELLs: *"Having an ESL student. I don't have any that I teach, but just from the course and having spoken to that professor who went through the process and his student life. It's really something; it's really difficult for them."* The first author of this article was himself an ELL and he did use his experience to illustrate some of the points discussed in the course. It seems that what was the most important was not what was taught but what had the most impact on them. When providing a definition in the class most Canadian teacher candidates were surprised by the diversity of the ELLs population. It might be why a majority of participants referred to such notion when talking about ELLs: *"There can be a range of ELL students."*

Within the Lebanese program they did not refer to the curriculum to define ELL and teacher candidates did not have the same struggles to grapple with the distinction between ESL learners and ELL. To them, anybody for whom English is not the mother tongue would be an ELL which was the definition shared by most Canadian participants prior to the program. However, most of the Lebanese participants recognized that ELL "*have needs and we must work upon them."* Very interestingly none of the Lebanese pre-service teachers indicated the types of needs the ELL had in their responses. It might be because as ELL themselves they assumed that their audience knew what these needs were. Moreover, the Lebanese student teachers were teaching English in an environment where English was perceived by many as a means to travel and work in countries such as Canada.

C. Teaching

At the end of the program most of the Canadian and Lebanese pre-service teachers believed that teaching English was an overwhelming task. For instance a Canadian pre-service teacher declared during an interview: "*It just felt overwhelming in that there are so many strategies and so many resources that you want to use. That's it, I found it overwhelming."* It might be why a majority of the Canadian and Lebanese participants emphasised that it was important for teachers to be well prepared: for instance a Lebanese participant said: *"If I hadn't gone through every single class on my contract sheet, I wouldn't be able to stand up and perform in front of a class."* In fact, throughout the program the pre-service teachers realized that teaching English was not just about teaching the language. For instance, a Canadian teacher candidate declared: "*For me, I think it would be very intimidating at first, to have an ELL in my classroom because it's not just a language thing, it's often cultural as well*." Both Lebanese and Canadian pre-service teachers not only cited theoretical knowledge of teaching ESL/EFL but general educational theory. For instance, a Lebanese pre-service teacher declared on the blog: "*Bloom's Taxonomy is always present in my lesson plans. I can't begin a lesson with a synthesis activity if the knowledge aspect has not been covered."* In this example, this participant has integrated into his discourse a theory that was introduced in the course. It is something that was recurrent throughout the data. Both Canadian and Lebanese teacher's beliefs related to teaching were intrinsically connected to their experiences in the course and the material that was covered: *"I feel that I have to identify the domain of the educational activity I am carrying out to see if it is cognitive, affective or psychomotor."*

However, their experiences outside of the course also had an impact on their beliefs related to teaching. For instance a Lebanese participant declared

Öne time when I entered class and started my lesson there was a student sleeping on her desk, I came next to her and asked her what is wrong. She said she has a headache. I asked her to go out of the class, wash her face, take medicine if necessary and come back to class. She stayed around five minutes outside the class but when she came back she was much better and she was involved in the class activities and participation. It is very important as teachers to notice the students' needs and work upon them.

Here, in order to introduce what she believes is important when teaching this pre-service teacher referred to something that happened to her in the classroom. Through this story this teacher candidate both illustrated and justified her point of view. Generally when expressing their beliefs about teaching, teacher candidates usually referred to their experiences in the schools. For both groups of teacher candidates the practical seemed to more important as a Lebanese participant reported: "*theories alone are like living in a dream*." It is true, that both groups of pre-service teachers came to the program with prior beliefs related to teaching English that were based on their experiences as language learners and/or instructors and a lot of teachers candidates struggled with the course content when it contradicted what they learned in other classes**:** "*I was surprised to read this. In my Kindergarten class we learned that it is in fact very important"* and as language learners**:** *"To me it does not make sense. Everyone should learn the alphabet… that's how we all start learning."*

Other struggles were also expressed. As native speakers of English, most Canadian pre-service teachers declared that they had never studied the grammar of English and a number of them believed that it could be a handicap: *"I do not know the exact rules and I wished that I knew."* Teaching grammar seemed to be one of the recurring themes in the Canadian interviews and blogs entries.

However, the Lebanese pre-service teachers were not so concerned with teaching grammar. It might be because as non-native speakers of English they studied the grammar and they had more confidence in their ability to teach it. However, they were more worried about their inability to provide their learners with enough exposure to the language. Indeed, the term "exposure" was repeated many times by the participants in the Lebanese study. *It is so important for students to be exposed to the English language by way of classroom discussions, reading and participating in conversation with others so that the students being taught ESL could advance. Teachers who are primarily ESL teachers must do lots of practical and teaching in the schools."* Here we can see how both groups of teachers candidates' beliefs associated to their ability to teach were intrinsically connected to their background and sociocultural contexts were they taught. As native speakers working in an ESL setting the Canadian participants doubted about their ability to teach the grammar whereas a non native speakers of English in an EFL context the Lebanese teachers were more concerned with their ability to provide their students with enough exposure to the language.

As we can see pre-service teachers knowledge base related to teaching ESL/EFL was constructed throughout their experiences in their practicum, their classes and in the course. The program constituted a site of deconstruction and reconstruction where many prior beliefs were transformed or reinforced.

V. DISCUSSION

In both the blog entries and interviews both groups of teacher lay an enormous emphasis on *I*. Most of the respondents in both Lebanon and Canada provided their opinion regarding teaching ESOL. In response to the first question both groups of teacher candidates believed that the field of ESL/EFL were important and contributed to the greater good and that it was crucial for any teacher to develop a knowledge base associated with teaching English to second language learners and emphasized the importance given to learning English as a means of communication for the student. Both groups made a distinction between ESL and EFL contexts. The major criterion used by both groups of participants to distinguish the two contexts was the fact that to them in an ESL context usually the ELLs had no choice but to learn the language to be successful. This is why the totality of Lebanese referred to their context as ESL instead of EFL. Here it is interesting to notice how this notion of urgency to learn to language was understood according to their socio-cultural contexts. The Canadian pre-service teachers referred primarily to the full participation of newcomers in the host society, whereas the Lebanese participants referred primarily to their own participation within a society where English was steadily becoming the language associated with success. The socio-cultural context also had an impact on teachers beliefs associated with ELLs. Although both groups of participants referred to different population of students they both agreed that ELLs had specific needs that needed to be addressed in particular ways. Indeed, the Canadian participants referred primarily to learners who were struggling with the variety of English spoken in the Canadian schools whereas the Lebanese teachers referred primarily to anybody for whom English was not a first language. Interestingly it seems that prior to the teacher education program it was the way a majority of the Canadian participants defined an ELL and this is partly why at the end of the course a majority of them were still reconstructing their knowledge associated to ELLs. Both groups of participants were also still constructing their knowledge associated with teaching English. However both groups believed that teaching English was a challenge and teachers needed to be well prepared to do so. Once again the sociocultural contexts had an impact on the type of challenges the pre-service teachers associated to the act of teaching English. Indeed, on one side as native speakers of English working in a social context where English was the predominant language the Canadian pre-service teachers were more concerned with their ability to teach the grammar. On the other side, as non native speakers of English working in a social context was English was not the predominant language the Lebanese teachers were more concerned with their ability to provide their students with enough exposure to the target language.

In response to the second question, the data show that it is important to place the teacher education programs within larger socio-cultural contexts because they do have an impact on the way that the pre-service teachers are going to appropriate the material that is presented to them. The data show that the information provided within the programs had an impact pre-service teachers' beliefs associated with teaching English. However, this information was interpreted, transformed and appropriated according to the pre-service teachers' background and experiences in the classrooms as teachers or learners. It appears that the pre-service teachers had the most difficulty when the information provided in the programs contradicted previous beliefs acquired through experiences in the classroom. It seems that the pre-service teachers referred primarily to their personal experiences in the classroom to validate a theory, illustrate a point challenge the content of the course or deconstruct and reconstruct their prior beliefs. These results echo previous studies on the subject (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Freeman and Richards, 1996).

In response to the third question, the data show that the teacher candidates did share some beliefs regarding their field of expertise. For instance, both groups of participants believed that teaching English was challenging and that ELLs had specific needs. However, as said earlier the data also show that these overarching beliefs took on different meanings for Canadian and Lebanese teachers or for individual participants. Phipps & Borg (2009) argue that when talking about relationship between beliefs and practice it is important to make the distinction between different types of beliefs. Based on the results we would argue that when talking about pre-service teachers' knowledge it is important to distinguish between *communal* and *personal* beliefs. Communal beliefs would constitute part of our international, national and regional shared knowledge and contribute to the development of communities of experts. They usually refer to granted principles, ideas, definitions and concept associated with teaching a language. For instance, believing that ELLs had specific needs would be an example of internal communal beliefs. Whereas, believing that an ELL's main need is to master the variety of English spoken in the schools of a specific province would be an example of provincial communal beliefs. Personal beliefs would constitute part of our individual knowledge and contribute to our unique understanding of our field of expertise and concepts. These types of beliefs are often associated to new concepts that are sources of struggles and they usually do not match with communal beliefs. For instance, believing that ESL learners and ELLs are different because ESL learners contrary to ELLs are more in an additive bilingualism context would be a personal belief. Depending of the context and community a communal belief could become a personal belief and vice versa. However, both communal and individual beliefs are rooted in sociocultural contexts and experiences, are subject to change and contribute to pre-service teachers' knowledge associated to ESL/EFL teaching.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study did echo previous research on second language pre-service teachers' knowledge base. Indeed, through the analysis of their beliefs we were able to show that what teacher candidates' know about their field of expertise is contextually bounded and rooted in their experiences within and outside the teacher education programs. It also appeared that their beliefs affected the way that they appropriated the information that was provided within the programs.

Moreover, through this study of we were able to show that the teacher candidates' knowledge associated with teaching English was both communal and unique. If a universal knowledge exists associated with teaching ESL or EFL, it is not solely based on methodologies and theories but also on the struggles, questions, and issues that are unique to our profession and characterizes us as a community of learners and practitioners regionally, nationally and internationally. We believe that these findings illustrate the complexity of what constitute an ESL/EFL teacher's knowledge base and contribute to the discussion on this topic. However, more research needs to be conducted. For instance, we need more studies on communal and personal beliefs and their interconnections and the way that we can effectively foster both within our teacher education programs.

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Francis Bangou earned his Ph.D. in Second Language Education from the Ohio State University in 2003. He is currently an Assistant Professor at the University of Ottawa. He has published in journals such as *ALSIC, The International Journal of Intercultural Relations, and E-Learning and Digital Media*. His research focuses on the integration of technology into second language classrooms, second language pre-service teachers' knowledge-base development, technological literacies, and teachers' appropriation of unfamiliar work environments. Dr. Bangou is a member of the American Educational Research Association, and the Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics.

Douglas Fleming earned his Ph.D. in Second Language Education at the University of British Columbia. He has been an Assistant Professor at the University of Ottawa since 2007. He has published in such journals as the *Canadian Journal of Education, TESL Canada Journal, and Citizenship Education Research.* His current research focuses on multiple literacies, English as a Second Language and citizenship. Dr. Fleming worked as a public school teacher for 20 years before entering academia.

Carol Ann Goff-Kfouri presently lives in Lebanon, but was born in Canada and raised in the USA. She holds degrees from the US and France and earned her PhD in Education from USEK in Lebanon. Her area of emphasis is teacher training, especially at the classroom management level. After chairing the department of English, Translation and Education at Notre Dame University-Louaize in Beirut for 6 years, she now holds the position of Dean of the Faculty of Humanities at the same university. Dr. Goff-Kfouri has published articles on teacher training, classroom management and teaching methodology for translation instructors in regional and international publications and she is often called upon to speak on teaching methodology at conferences.

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An Investigation of Attitudes towards Varieties of Spoken English in a Multi-lingual Environment

Hamad Shabeb Al-Dosari
Department of English, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia
Email: hamadaldossary54@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—The objective of this research is to investigate the attitude of Saudi students with regard to varieties of spoken English in a multi-lingual environment. For this objective, twenty-five students who are enrolled in the College of Languages & Translation / KKU were selected. The methods used is that they are made in EFL program to listen to two short texts read by a Standard South African native English speaker (SSAE) and a Standard Indian English (SIE) speaker. The participants rated each speaker's perceived accents and comprehensibility. The results show that each speaker's accent influences the listeners perceptions. However, the SIE speaker is more highly rated than the SSAE speaker on measures of perceived accent, comprehensibility, and education. As far as ratings of perceived accent, comprehensibility and actual comprehension are concerned, they are not significantly different; this suggests that a strongly perceived accent and reduced perceived comprehensibility do not affect actual listener comprehension. In conclusion, this study suggests a need for more research on the relationship between perceived accent, comprehensibility and actual comprehension. As EFL students harbor traditional views of English, this study also suggests the need for the further development of programs focusing on linguistic diversity of English to combat linguistic stereotypes and standard language ideologies.**

***Index Terms*—accent, attitude, perceived accent, comprehensibility, actual comprehension**

I. Introduction

It is universally acknowledged that English is globally accepted language as being used first, second, third or a foreign language in most countries in the globe. The reason behind this fact is related to colonialism in the 19th century and the spread of technology in this century in which English is used as the language of science worldwide for over a century.

Graddol (2007) mentioned that a more plausible reason for English to have become a world language is that it is used as lingua franca of the modern era, utilized for international relations, for the world media, international travel and tourism, science and technology and education.

Weber (1999) and Aldosary (2010) argued that no wonder English is being studied as a foreign language worldwide as a compulsory or a preferred optional language in most countries is learned by over 150 million children in primary or secondary schools.

McArthur (1998) on reflection, this debate over which varieties of English are "truly" English indicate that it would be a blatant blunder to consider only one variety of English as THE English language. The spread of English in colonial/post colonial times and the growth of numerous varieties of English resulted in the consent among academia that THE English is non-existent; rather, there are many "world Englishes" These Englishes are spread in varying socio-linguistic contexts representing assorted cultural, ideological and linguistic aphorisms. As a result the variety in form and function of these world Englishes is representative of different varieties used in diverse linguistic and cultural contexts.

Zaid (2008) gave another perspective to the notion of varieties in that sense that the traditional taxonomy of standard English varieties into British English (with particular reference to the South-Eastern English variety with its Received Pronunciation and the North American variety with its distinctive pronunciation) is now old fashioned and may not be appropriate for research or practice in pedagogical contexts.

However, according to Quirk and Stein (1990), the reason that English has persisted as a universal single language is due to the duality of speakers' linguistic identities. Tajfel & Turner (1979) who propagated Social Identity Theory argued that English speakers from various countries will use language as a tool by which intergroup biases are reinforced. Cultural differences reflect the differences in language use, and variation is interpreted by listeners as markers of social identity. Variation in language use informs our perceptions about the speakers of the same language though they belong to different nationalities and geographical areas. Study of various factors in language use makes an exciting exercise and is likely to yield interesting results. Language use and attitudes are indeed related. Although we all speak the same language, we use it in different ways. Differences in use are what inform our perceptions of each other.

Kachru (1997) offered a clear classification of world Englishes. He divided them into three circles, the "Inner Circle" represents traditional English speaking countries like the US or the UK, etc. The "Outer Circle" represents countries like India, Nigeria or Jamaica where English was institutionalized because of colonisation. Finally, the "Expanding Circle" is representative of countries like Japan, Iran or Egypt, where English is treated as a foreign language with limited use and no official status.

Crystal (2003), Kachru (1992) and McArthur (1993) made the dichotomy between US (native speakers) vs. THEM (non-native speakers) as being surrendered in favour of "WE-ness" by many prominent scholars in sociolinguistics and dialectology The main reason for the rejection of one Standard English (SE) is that the idea itself is a complex one because it is a minority variety due to its limited production.

This fact leads many linguists to suggest that SE may not be an ideal model for teaching, writing and speaking skills. Zaid (2008) explained that the reason is not linguistic because SE is as intelligible to Indians as it is to Nigerians or Saudis or Egyptians or whoever learn and speak English. Rather, it is socio-political in that national and linguistic identities of the different ESL speakers feel obliged to use their own varieties as they feel identified with them. This refers to a process by which a transplanted language becomes native to a people or place, either in addition to or in place of, namely nativization of English, giving vent to the origination of the term World Englishes.

Furthermore, Bremer and et al. (1996), Boxer (2002), Bardovi-Harlig and Salsbury (2004) and Kerswill (2006) confirmed that the interaction of communities that use different varieties of English has resulted in initiating linguistic change, and, thereby, eliciting a large number of discourse accommodations, which eventually help in the generation of diverse World Englishes, or in other words, regional-contact varieties of English like Indian English, Malaysian English, Nigerian English, Philippino English, etc. in contexts where English co-exists with one or more native languages.

Given the discussion above, Edwards & Giles (1984) and Wolfram & Schilling-Estes (2006) illustrated that dialectologists have traditionally maintained that all forms of a language are equal in status reality has clearly shown; however, that people consider some languages and varieties of a given language to be more desirable than, or presumably superior to, others these perceptions and beliefs arising from a person or group's style of speech are, in essence, language attitudes and the foundations of linguistic stereotypes. Language attitudes arise from users' language ideologies, or prescriptive beliefs about how a language "ought to be".

If a speaker perceives a certain feature in another's speech or writing as "correct," the speaker will highly regard the language user. If a certain feature, however, is perceived as "incorrect," the speaker will regard the language user less highly. For instance, Haig & Oliver (2003) report that many of the Australian teachers in their study considered the speech of poor children to be "inferior" or "deficient" because it differed from the English the teachers considered "standard". This led the teachers to label the lower-class children as "victims" of their poor socio-economic backgrounds and to provide these students with increased academic and linguistic support. From this example it is clear that a listener's preconceived beliefs about a language can shape how he/she perceives and reacts to a different variety of language and its speaker.

Fasold (1984) and Baker (1988) argued that the concept of language attitudes includes attitudes towards speakers of a particular language; if the definition is even further broadened, it can allow all kinds of behaviour concerning language to be treated (e.g. attitudes toward language maintenance and planning efforts). Attitudes are crucial in language growth or decay, restoration or destruction: the status and importance of a language in society and within an individual derives largely from adopted or learnt attitudes. An attitude is individual, but it has origins in collective behaviour. Attitude is something an individual has which defines or promotes certain behaviours. Although an attitude is a hypothetical psychological construct, it touches the reality of language life. Attitudes are learned predispositions, not inherited, and are likely to be relatively stable; they have a tendency to persist. However, attitudes are affected by experience. They vary from favourability to non-favourability. They are complex constructs as there may be both positive and negative feelings attached to a language situation.

Wolfram & Christian (1989) made very clear that language attitudes are ingrained beliefs that people, especially language users and language learners, have been socialized into and that have been repeatedly reinforced by groups and institutions). Prior research has evidenced that language attitudes are developed through a variety of factors, such as the listener's prior linguistic and academic exposure word of mouth and exposure through media, social history, such as colonization and religious conversion, usability of a given linguistic variety in a specific context, current legislative and instructional practices, and the political/socioeconomic power of the language/dialect users.

Language attitudes may affect listeners' perceptions of foreign language speakers and language varieties. Prior research has extensively documented native English speakers' attitudes towards non-standard and non-native English varieties students might encounter in native English language contexts. Few studies have, however, examined listeners' perceptions of varieties of World English and even fewer or no such research has investigated such perceptions of Arabic-speaking students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) as sampled in Saudi Arabia.

II. Statement of the Problem

Given the prestigious status of English and its pluri-centrality, this study has been designed in line with prior research investigating linguistic attitudes and stereotypes towards different varieties of English. Specifically, the researcher is interested in understanding English from the perspective of a Foreign Language Listeners' (EFL) perceptions of two different varieties of English – Standard South African English (SSAE) and Standard Indian English (SIE). Whereas, native speakers' attitude towards non-standards, non native varieties of English have been thoroughly investigated and extensively documented the converse, that is, the perceptions of the listeners of varieties of world Englishes have not been paid the amount of attention it deserves. More particularly, fewer are no research has investigated such perceptions of Arabic speaking students of English in Saudi Arabia. The present study addresses itself to this nearly neglected area and deals with the concept of language attitude, speakers and listeners' perceptions in varying contexts of language use with a special focus on the perceptions of Arabic speaking EFL students in Saudi Arabia. For this problem, twenty-five EFL students enrolled in the college of Language and Translation EFL programmes are made to listen to two short texts read by a Standard South African English Speaker (SSAES) and a Standard Indian English (SIE) speaker both teaching at King Khalid University in the English Department, College of Languages and Translation.

III. QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

The investigation is guided by the following questions:

1. What are EFL listeners' attitudes towards the accents of speakers of SSAE and SIE?
2. How do different accents affect listeners' perceptions of text comprehensibility?
3. How do different accents affect the character description of Arabian EFL learners?

IV. THEORETICAL LITERATURE

Kachru's Model of World Englishes

Kachru (1997) argued that new models for the teaching of English relevant to linguistic input, methodology, norms and identity have been proposed to explain and imply the spread and diffusion of English as a global language diversified in several nativized dialects known as world Englishes. The Figure (1) represents the issue.

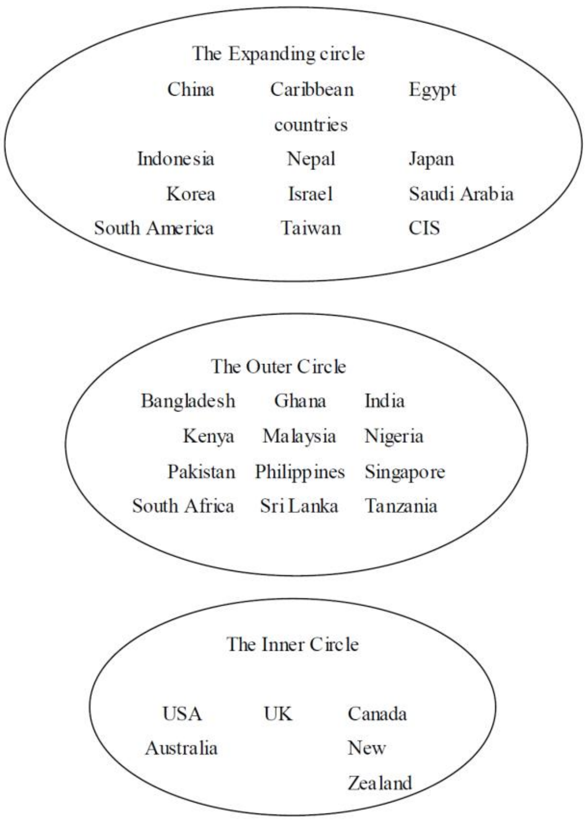

Fig. 1 Kachru (1997, p. 213 of Concentric Circles of English)

According to this model, the inner circle refers to the traditional bases of English as the primary language; the outer circle represents the spread of English in non-native contexts, where it has been institutionalized as an additional language. The expanding circle, with a steady increase in the number of speakers and functional domains, includes nations where English is used primarily as a foreign language. Consequently, Kachru's three concentric circles model of English have been accepted as a standard ontology for defining and categorizing world Englishes into Inner Circle (native), Outer Circle (ESL) and Expanding Circle (EFL) varieties. The diffusion of English and the resultant varieties induce cross-cultural and cross-linguistic universalization of the English language in a cause and effect cycle. Our daily life observations assert that the first process, i.e., Englishization, is likely to occur in the EFL context, where loan words are liable to be borrowed into the first languages of the EFL speakers of English based on English being perceived as a prestigious language to be learned and spoken by the social or political elite in that nation. The phenomenon of an educated Arab speaker unnecessarily tending to use English words in his/her Arabic discourse ratifies this. It is not far-fetched; therefore, that many a loan word is liable to be introduced into the first languages of EFL learners across the world in the process of code-switching. The second process of nativization or acculturation usually occurs in ESL contexts where English is used as a communication method by its learners and is prone to be influenced by these learners' first languages and their linguistic identities which are reflected, in one way or another, in the way they come into contact with the use of English.

V. Research Methodology

Being a descriptive study, this research manipulated qualitative and quantitative approaches to gain a fuller, more in-depth, understanding of the comprehensibility of different dialects spoken at the English Department in a Saudi College of Languages and Translation. Quantitative research is used to register the attitudes towards the dialects at issue. Unlike quantitative research data, qualitative data is thought to represent subjective value, personal meanings, and multiple voices of the researched (c.f. Guba & Lincoln, 1998). At the core of qualitative research is the belief that context has a significant impact on behaviours. Qualitative studies are, thus, usually carried out innaturalistic settings, which allows researchers to gain a more holistic and detailed picture of the lived experiences of the participants (c.f. Creswell, 2003, Neuman, 2003 and Rossman & Rallis 1998).

A. Participants (Speakers)

The researcher selected two male speakers from Faculty Members in the English Department, one is a non-native speaker from India and the other is a native speaker of English from South Africa (SSAE). They were selected on the basis of the authenticity of their dialect, their native language and their voice characteristics. Male speakers were preferred to female speakers as previous research has suggested that EFL listeners may have more difficulty understanding female voices owing to the higher pitch of the female voice (Nissan et al., 1996). Moreover, the educational system in Saudi Arabia is based on gender segregation; males and females have their own separate educational institutions. The Indian and South-African speakers were selected because most of the Faculty Members in the college are Indian/Pakistani/Bengali, and South-African. Native Arabic speakers in the Department are a minority.

Furthermore, individuals were selected who: (1) were native speakers of South-African (SAE) or an established WE variety; (2) clearly displayed linguistic characteristics of their variety of English and, thus, sounded like a native speaker of that variety; (3) were fluent in conversation in their variety of English; (4) were educated speakers of their native variety who held a college degree; and, (5) possessed mature voice characteristics that would emulate a professional or academic speaker. Following these guidelines, one speaker of SSAE and one speaker of Standard Indian English were selected due to their presence in Saudi Higher Education.

"Mohsen", representing the Standard South African English speakers (SSE), is originally from India and has lived in Saudi Arabia for 2 years. Despite having travelled to work in Saudi Arabia and working with linguistically diverse colleagues, teaching Arabic-speaking students, Mohsen does not claim proficiency in any other language than English. Moreover, since both of the speaker's parents taught at his school, English was often a language spoken at home.

"Andre", the South-African (SSAE speaker) is originally from East London, South Africa. He is a 43-year-old holder of an M. Soc. Sci. Degree in Research Psychology from the University of Fort Hare, South Africa (SA). Though he claims Afrikaans as his mother tongue, Andre reports equal proficiency in Afrikaans and English and limited proficiency in Zulu, Xhosa and Latin. Like many people in SA, he is Catholic and can trace his British ancestry through his father's family. As an upper-middle class Catholic, Andre attended a private school to university level during which English was the medium of instruction. Consistent with Kachru's (1986) claim that most English-speaking teachers at Christian schools in South Africa were from Wales, Scotland, or Ireland, Andre was educated in SA by Irish monks.

B. Pilot Study Participants

Sixteen students enrolled in the advanced English Programme (levels 7 and 8) at the College of Languages and Translation (CLT) of King Khalid University, Abha, and they were selected to participate in the pilot programme of the testing instrument. Because the researcher wished to emulate the level of English speech found among college lecturers, it was necessary that the pilot testers come from High-Intermediate and Advanced English courses. One half of the participating pilot group was from a High-Intermediate EFL reading class at the CLT. They were all men ranging in age from 22 to 25 and their exposure to studying English ranged from 8 years to 10 years. As indicated on individual questionnaires, the native language spoken by these participants was Arabic. Spring 2006 was the first semester at the CLT for almost all of the participants. Previous English exposure varied within the group. On average, the participants had studied English formally for 8 years, with all of the students having been formally instructed by non-native English speakers.

C. Experiment Test Participants

This group of participants included 25 EFL students enrolled in the regular programme of study at the lower levels (Level II) at the CLT at KKU in Abha. The participants consisted of male EFL students enrolled in Listening and Speaking courses. All of them were lower-intermediate EFL learners. The learners ranged in age from 17 to 19 (average

age, 18) and were from Saudi Arabia. The native language spoken by the participants was Arabic. The participants indicated a variety of reasons for studying English at the CLT, including: to find better employment, to attend a graduate college in an Native-Speaking English country, to learn about Native English Cultures and to work as journalists, teachers or translators. The majority, however, were enrolled for college preparation.

D. Procedures (Text Selection)

Selecting two appropriate texts for this investigation proved quite difficult as it was necessary to locate two texts that were on-level with the listeners, of appropriate length or easily modifiable, captivating and of the same genre. As recommended by the experiment language instructors, the investigator preferably selected a song and a reading text emulating material from *Tapestry Listening & Speaking II*, because they did not require pre-teaching of vocabulary or syntactic structures and because they came from EFL textbooks suitable for Lower-Intermediate language learners.

These texts were also selected for their length and their genre. Because a listener's attention generally peaks at three minutes; both texts were chosen because their unmodified lengths were less than, but very close to, three minutes. Despite Derwing and et al. (2004) claim that untrained listeners frequently underrate the comprehensibility and intelligibility of speakers reading materials (Appendix I), two short listening texts were chosen because informal readings to EFL students indicated that these texts were more captivating than longer passages and essays. The texts were presented to the students unchanged, as they were in their textbooks due to the fact that any modification of these texts may vitiate their message or structure and would, consequently, have negatively impacted the flow and comprehensibility of the texts. Furthermore, to increase comprehension levels from "frustration" to "active comprehension," the selected texts came from a Low-Intermediate EFL textbook. Finally, the listening texts were selected because they held the listeners' interest as indicated by the pilot study results.

1. Assessment tool

For each text the listeners were asked to answer several Likert-scale questions about the speaker based on his accent, one Yes/No question about the speaker based on his accent, one Yes/No question about the speaker's accent, three selection questions about the speakers and the amount of text understood and three comprehension questions. These questions are provided in Appendix (II). Because this research is intended to uncover EFL students' linguistic attitudes towards two English speakers of different dialects, Likert-scale questions such as those used by Major et al. (2005) were utilized to elicit respondents' attitudes about various issues over a range of dimensions. To ensure that the participants expressed a definite opinion, the Likert scales were modified to include an even number of options, and options such as "no opinion" or "no preference" were omitted. As such, using a six-point Likert scale, where "1" was defined as "no accent" and "6" was defined as "very strong accent," the participants rated the strength of each speaker's accent for test question # 1. Also using a six-point Likert scale, where "1" was defined as "very easy" and "6" was defined as "very difficult", the participants rated each speaker's comprehensibility for test question # 2. Text comprehensibility was also measured using a question in which the listeners were asked to circle the percentage of text that was understood (question # 3), and a yes/no question asking whether the speaker's accent influenced comprehension (question # 4). As in questions #1 and #2, all six items in question #5 sought to uncover the EFL listeners' linguistic judgments of each speaker. Using a six-point Likert scale for items A, B, C, D, and F, the listeners rated each speaker on a matched-guise scale of opposites for friendliness, education, attractiveness, socioeconomic status, and desirability as a professor. For item E the listeners were asked merely to circle the job and/or profession of the speaker.

As a final activity (question # 6), the listeners answered three multiple choice items to assess comprehension of the reading they had just heard. The skills required for these items included identification of the narrator, recall of basic information, summarizing, identification of text mood and tone, and inference. Because the participants heard each reading piece twice, the comprehension questions were different for each reading, meaning that six different comprehension questions were generated for each piece.

2. Voice sample collection and generation

For this investigation, the SIE speaker, Mohsen, and the SSAE speaker, Andre, were recorded reading two, three-minute-long readings. The speakers were digitally recorded separately in high quality acoustic laboratories, using voice recording software specifically designed and installed to record teachers' or students' voices for didactic purposes in the language laboratories.

Once recorded, the investigator proofed the audio samples and made recommendations for alterations. Mispronunciations were corrected; however, features that are considered characteristics of the speaker's variety of English were retained. The recording and editing took place in less than one hour and required only one session for each speaker. Upon completion of the recording and reviewing, the investigator generated four compact discs (CDs), each of which varied by speaker and text order, to represent the two conditions of the experiment. The conditions were generated to minimize the effects of speaker and text order.

3. Pilot testing

Pilot testing was conducted ahead of final testing to determine whether changes needed to be made to the assessment tool, the stimuli or the testing procedures. The investigator administered the pilot test to the 18 upper-intermediate EFL students at the CLT's Language Lab in two sessions: session A by Andre and session B by Mohsen, in tandem; i.e., they first listened to Andre and were asked to rate him using the attitudes questionnaire and then they were requested to do the same in Mohsen's session. The pilot testers were also encouraged to write down any suggestions for improving the assessment materials so that they could be shared with the investigator at the end of the testing session. Eleven of the pilot testers indicated that there was too little response time, which meant they were still thinking about the previous listening segments well into the next segment. Three participants also suggested that the texts read by the SIE speaker should precede those of the SSAE speaker in order for the listeners would be better prepared to understand the SSAE speaker.

Based on the pilot tester's suggestions and responses the investigator altered the text comprehension questions, and increased the response time between texts from one minute to two minutes. Even though one participant had recommended a change in speaker and text order to improve comprehension, the speaker in the text order was not altered as it was desirable to minimize the effects of speaker order and text order on the participants' listening comprehension and perception ratings.

4. Final assessment

The final assessment took place in four sessions at the CLT Language Digital Laboratory. The participants met in the laboratory and were asked to listen to both texts read aloud on the Audi-video system installed in the digital laboratory. The participants were asked to rate each of the two speakers accents, comprehensibility and personal characteristics on the Likert, yes/no, categorical, selection and multiple choice questions during the pauses between each text.

VI. Findings

This study sought to assess EFL learners' perceptions of two English accents – Standard South African English (SSAE) and Standard Indian English (SIE) in terms of accent, comprehensibility, and speaker characteristics.

A. Results with regard to Perceived Accent

Findings with respect to Perceived Accent suggest that the listeners viewed the accents of the Standard South-African and Standard Indian speakers differently: the SAE speaker was considered mildly accented, but less accented for both texts (M = 3.11, SD = 1.31; and M = 3.81, SD = 1.69), while the SSAE speaker was considered moderately accented, but more accented for both texts (M = 4.77, SD = 1.88; and M = 3.99, SD = 1.67).

To determine whether these overall means were different, six paired-sample, two-tailed t-tests were conducted on each speaker/text condition. Paired sample correlations indicated that two matched pairs were highly correlated, one was mildly-moderately correlated, and three were weakly correlated. The SSAE speaker with regard to both texts and the SAE speaker with regard to both texts pair was most strongly correlated, $r = +.88$, $p < .001$, indicating that those who rated the comprehension questions in song text and rated lower on accent tended to rate the reading text lower as well. The two texts pair was also strongly correlated, $r = +.80$, $p < .001$, indicating that those who rated the song text higher on accent tended to rate the reading text higher as well. These paired samples correlations reveal that the perceived accent for each speaker, regardless of the text, is highly consistent.

Consequently, the overall data supports the first hypothesis, stating that EFL listeners will find the SSAE speaker reading the sample texts to be less accented than the SIE speaker reading these texts. However, even though the data supports that the listeners reported a difference between the accent ratings of the SSAE and SIE speakers reading the "Song" text, the data does not support a difference in accent perception between the SSAE and SIE speakers reading "the second reading". This may be due to the perceived difficulty of the texts' content: the listeners may have judged the speakers' accents similarly for the second reading text because they were familiar with the text's content and thus perceived the speakers' accents to be less important in their comprehension of the text. On the other hand, the listeners may have perceived the speakers' accents differently for the "Song" text because they were unfamiliar with the text's content and were thus faced with a double burden of trying to understand the text material and the speaker's accent.

Listeners' responses to the perceived accent of the speakers were submitted to an ANOVA test to determine the effect of age on the listeners' responses; no significant results at the $p = .05$ level or less were reported, indicating that age did not play a discernable role in how the EFL listeners perceived the speakers' accents: [Song text: $F(1, 28) = .00$, $p > .05$; Reading text: $F(1, 28) = .19$, $p > .05$; Song text: $F(1, 28) = .00$, $p > .05$; Reading text: $F(1, 28) = .16$, $p > .05$].

It is possible that the differences can be attributed to listener familiarity with SAE: many of the students at College of Languages and Translation, Abha have been taught by Indians and Pakistanis for several years more than they were exposed to SSAE and have interacted with English speaking Indians in a variety of settings such as work, children's schools and education and home with Bengalis and Indians working for their families as drivers, labourers, teachers, etc. In contrast, most of the EFL students at COLT, Abha, have not been exposed to SSAE speakers who use English at university, for day-to-day activities, and for communicating with others on the street as Indians or Pakistanis.

B. Results with regard to Perceived Comprehensibility

The participants answered six comprehension questions: three judgment items (using the item numbers found in the assessment tool) and three multiple-choice literal and textual-comprehension items that varied by section (see Appendix II for full assessment tool). The literal comprehension questions required listeners to infer, identify main ideas and the author's purpose and recall specific information mentioned in the listening text.

Overall, analysis indicated that the listeners perceived the comprehensibility of the Standard South African and Standard Indian speakers differently: the SSAE speaker was considered easier to understand for both texts (M = 2.44, SD = 1.77; and M = 2.66, SD = 1.68), while the SIE speaker was considered somewhat difficult to understand (M = 3.88, SD = 1.87; and M = 3.64, SD = 1.39).

To determine if these overall comprehensibility means differed significantly, a paired-sample, two-tailed t-test was conducted on each speaker/text condition. While a strong correlation was reported for the Song text perceived comprehension pair ($r = .95$, $p < .001$) while the reading text perceived comprehension pair ($r = .82$, $p < .05$), reported only a moderate correlation.

These results suggest that listeners who rated the song text easy to understand also tended to rate the reading easy to understand, and those who rated the reading difficult to understand also tended to rate the reading difficult to understand. This indicates that the listeners were consistent in their comprehensibility ratings of the Standard South African speaker and the Standard Indian speaker across their texts.

A significant difference was noted in the comprehensibility of both speakers on both texts ($t = -4.24$, $p < .001$; $t = -5.13$, $p < .001$, for the song read by the SSAE speaker and the Standard Indian English speaker respectively; and $t = -3.56$, $p < .001$, and $t = -3.80$, $p < .001$, for the reading text read by the SSAE speaker and the Standard Indian English speaker respectively), suggesting that regardless of the text, the listeners found the Indian English speaker harder to understand than the South African English speaker. As such, the second hypothesis of the study is accepted, confirming that the SSAE speaker produces more comprehensible texts than the SIE speaker.

Furthermore, the data displays a strong preference for the SSAE reader's accent in both texts, and a moderate dislike of the SIE reader's accent in both texts for both texts. This shows that the listeners perceived the SSAE speaker's accent as more helpful for text comprehension and the SIE speaker's accent as less helpful for text comprehension.

VII. Discussions and Conclusions

This study investigates the effects of English accent on foreign learner's attitudes. Prior research on this issue has shown that accent influences listeners' perceptions as discussed by Major et al., (2005) and Wolfram & Schilling-Estes (2006). It is evident that listener's age as in Nathan et al (1998) and Burda, (2000), accent/dialect familiarity as in Matsuura et al. (1999) and Kubota (2001) and language ideologies embodying stereotypes and discrimination in Rao (1995) and Bonfiglio 2002) have been taken into consideration in so far as accent is concerned. Given the plethora of research addressing the effects of accent on comprehensibility of auditory texts, this investigation has given rise to two important areas for our consideration as EFL teachers. Firstly, unlike prior research which has mostly paid less tribute to EFL listeners' perceptions of World English varieties; this study compares EFL listeners' perceptions of Standard South African English with Standard Indian English. Secondly, most existing studies have sampled native English-speakers, or a mixture of native- and non-native English speakers only, meaning that language attitude studies with an all-EFL listening sample are rare or nearly non-existent in Saudi Arabia.

The results of this study indicate that ESL listeners' perceptions are influenced by the speaker's accent. EFL listeners perceive SSAE and SIE speakers in different manner; particularly, on ratings of perceived comprehensibility and perceived character speaker traits. The results demonstrate the clear influence of SSAE accent on the learner's perception as contrasted to the influence of SIE. This suggests that some EFL listeners have no SIE accent; while, others found him to be moderate. It suggests that different listeners have different attitudes toward a given accent. Moreover, EFL listeners tended to rate the SSAE speaker' accent more positively than the SIE speaker' accent in terms of educational attainment, attractiveness, wealth, job attainment and professional desirability, which further implies that the EFL listeners associated Standard African English and its speakers, with wealth, power, and prestige. However, the listeners rated both the SSAE speaker and the SIE speaker equally friendly, which implies that the listeners did not consider either speaker's accent to be a good measure of his friendliness. In this respect both more and less accented speech might be considered friendly by EFL listeners. This research did not substantiate a strong connection between perceived accent and perceived comprehensibility, nor did it demonstrate that perceived accent strength significantly affects actual comprehension. In fact, perceived accent strength and perceived comprehensibility were found to be only moderate and correlated, demonstrating that perceived accent is not a perfect predictor of the speaker's comprehensibility. In other words, these findings indicate that speakers with moderate and strong accents can still be perfectly comprehensible.

Appendix I: Reading Texts

Text 1

Reviving the practice of using elements of popular music in classical composition, an approach that had been in hibernation in the United States during the 1960s, composer Philip Glass (born 1937) embraced the ethos of popular music without imitating it. Glass based two symphonies on music by rock musicians David Bowie and Brian Eno, but the symphonies' sound is distinctively his. Popular elements do not appear out of place in Glass's classical music, which from its early days has shared certain harmonies and rhythms with rock music. Yet this use of popular elements has not made Glass a composer of popular music. His music is not a version of popular music packaged to attract classical listeners; it is high art for listeners steeped in rock rather than the classics.

Text 2

Far
We've been travelling far
Without a home
But not without a star
Free
Only want to be free
We huddle close
Hang on to a dream

On the boats and on the planes
They're coming to America
Never looking back again
They're coming to America

Home, don't it seem so far away
Oh, we're travelling light today
In the eye of the storm
In the eye of the storm

Home, to a new and a shiny place
Make our bed, and we'll say our grace
Freedom's light burning warm
Freedom's light burning warm

Everywhere around the world
They're coming to America
Every time that flag's unfurled
They're coming to America

Got a dream to take them there
They're coming to America
Got a dream they've come to share
They're coming to America

They're coming to America
They're coming to America
They're coming to America
They're coming to America
Today, today, today, today, today

My country 'tis of thee
Today
Sweet land of liberty
Today
Of thee I sing
Today
Of thee I sing
Today

APPENDIX II: ASSESSMENT TOOL

Part A: Text 1 (Questions Tapping Speakers' Accent and Text Comprehensibility)

1. Describe the speaker's accent. (Circle one number):

No accent   Very strong accent
1 2 3 4 5 6

2. How easy is the speaker to understand?

Very easy   Very difficult
1 2 3 4 5 6

3. How much of the text did you understand? Circle one:

0-10% 11-20% 21-30% 31-40% 41-50% 51-60% 61-70% 71-80% 81-90% 91-100%

4. Did the speaker's ACCENT help you understand the text? Circle one: YES NO

5. How much would you enjoy having this speaker as your professor?
Very much Not at all
1 2 3 4 5 6

6. The passage addresses which of the following issues related to Glass's use of popular elements in his classical compositions?
A. How it is regarded by listeners who prefer rock to the classics
B. How it has affected the commercial success of Glass's music
C. Whether it has contributed to a revival of interest among other composers in using popular elements in their compositions
D. Whether it has had a detrimental effect on Glass's reputation as a composer of classical music
E. Whether it has caused certain of Glass's works to be derivative in quality

7. The passage suggests that Glass's work displays which of the following qualities?
A. A return to the use of popular music in classical compositions
B. An attempt to elevate rock music to an artistic status more closely approximating that of classical music
C. A long-standing tendency to incorporate elements from two apparently disparate musical styles

8. Select the sentence that distinguishes two ways of integrating rock and classical music.

Part B: Text 2 (Questions Tapping Speakers' Accent and Text Comprehensibility)

1. Describe the speaker's accent. (Circle one number):
No accent Very strong accent
1 2 3 4 5 6

2. How easy is the speaker to understand?
Very easy Very difficult
1 2 3 4 5 6

3. How much of the text did you understand? Circle one:
0-10% 11-20% 21-30% 31-40% 41-50% 51-60% 61-70% 71-80% 81-90% 91-100%

4. Did the speaker's ACCENT help you understand the text? Circle one: YES NO

5. How much would you enjoy having this speaker as your professor?
Very much Not at all
1 2 3 4 5 6

Q1: Which of the following emotions form the main burden of the song?
a) the travails of a homeless people
b) a long and tiresome journey undertaken without a known destination
c) travelling across distant lands with a dream of searching a land of freedom
d) the journey may take then farther away from their homes

Q2: What does the word "dream" suggest in the song?
a) a vision not likely to be realized
b) a reality for too difficult to achieve
c) grouping in the world of imagination soon to be dissipate
d) amidst the threat of a storm an ardent desire to find a new home

Q3: The song is suggestive of
a) a real journey
b) the travails of migrants in search of a new home
c) a vision of sunshine after the threats of a storm
d) A vision dear to everyone's heart about reaching a land of liberty and freedom

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Hamad Shabeb Al-Dosari was born in Saudi Arabia on December 8, 1961. He got his M.A. from Long Island University, New York, U.S.A in 1989 and PhD degree in applied linguistics from Pennsylvania State University, U.S.A. in 1992.

He is currently occupying an ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR position in Department of English/ Faculty of Languages and Translation/ King Khalid University / Saudi Arabia/ Abha. He published a number of articles such as (i) Aldosari, H. (1999). Developing interactive skills for EFL/ESL intermediate students: emphasizing the role of communicative competence over linguistic competence. *Research Journal of Allepo University*, 36 (1), 13-34. (ii) Aldosari, H. (2009). Factors Affecting Learning English in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of the Faculty of Arts*, Beni Suef University. His basic fields of interests are syntax, semantics, phonology and phonetics.

Dr Dosari is currently the chairman of English Department, Faculty of Languages & Translation in King Khalid University/ Saudi Arabia.

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Phonological Analysis of Chatkhil Dialect in Noakhali District, Bangladesh

Md. Mostafa Rashel
Department of English, Daffodil International University, Bangladesh
Email: md.mostafa_rashel@hotmail.com

***Abstract*—Chatkhil dialect (CD) is one of the different dialects in Noakhali district for its individual phonological, morphological and syntactical features. But in this paper I have tried to analyze Chatkhil dialect on the aspects of phonological features. The consonants of Chatkhil dialect are discussed here according to the place of articulation and manner of articulation. There are some significant rules to determine phonemes and allophones of this dialect. Among them I have used Minimal pair selection test, Contrast test (Initial, Medial and Final contrast) and Sub-minimal pair test. I have got seven oral vowels, five semi-vowels and twenty-two diphthongs of Chatkhil dialect during the research. I also tried to illustrate vowel phonemic contrasts. These entries components are discussed in this paper from the aspects of field linguistics.**

***Index Terms*—dialect, phonology, phoneme, manner, semi-vowel, diphthongs**

I. INTRODUCTION

Dialect is a variety of a language. It is created through the change of a language on the aspects of phonological, morphological and syntactical issue. The first discussion about Noakhali dialect was found in the book of *Linguistics Survey of India* (1967). The samples of Chagalnaiya (p. 308-11) and Ramganj (p. 312-15) with linguistic features of both dialects were mentioned here. In this book the dialect of Noakhali has been probed including the classification of North-east Bengali's (p. 21-94). Later Ghopal Halder (1929) discussed in details about this dialect under the supervision of Sunitikumar Chatterji (1926). These discussions were more organized. After that, the discussion of Maksudur Rahman Hilali's was published in the journal of *Muhammadi* in1364 (Maniruzzaman; 1994). In course of time Abul Kalam Manzur Morshed discussed and analyzed the Noakhali dialect in a creative manner in his book of *A Study of Standard Bengali and the Noakhali Dialect* (1985). Besides, some discussions were published in different papers and journals, but these were not resourceful to be cited in the present research.

Though, some differences are observed among these writers and critics for their different viewpoints. But their evaluation is unique about the origin of Noakhali dialect and they identified that the Noakhali dialect is as the Eastern dialect of Bengali language, i.e., the Mid-Indian Aryan language evolved from the ancient Indo-Aryan language. The preface of this dialect is presented below with the help of a diagram.

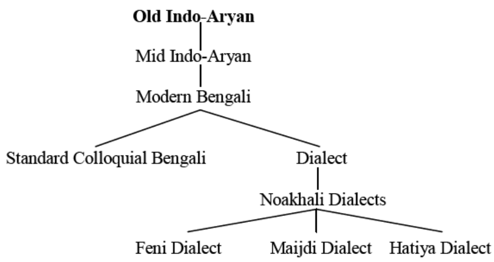


Figure 1: Origin of Noakhali Dialect's

II. ORIGIN OF CHATKHIL DIALECT

Chatkhil is one of the smallest upazilla (A division of a District) of Noakhali district according to the area. This sub-district was established in February 2, 1977. There is no noteworthy reference about the selection of this name. People are saying that there was a *bill* (a canal) in this area and the inhabitants of this area were irritated by the abundance and disturbance of *catpoka* (a kind of insect). In course of time, people built up residence around this bill area. As a result *bill* is transformed as $k^{h}il$ in dialect form. And from this it has changed into *Chatkhil* that's mean *catpokar bill.* (Islam, 1998)

Sub-district Maijdi of Noakhali is called the city and the central point of administrative functions. In course of time, the administrative functions of Maijdi have decentralized and extended toward other upazillas, because of their increasing population, development of civilization and advancement of communication systems. Thus Chatkhil became an important area. Nowadays Chatkhil has become the central point of business and administrative activities. The people from neighboring district as well as from other districts are coming to Chatkhil.

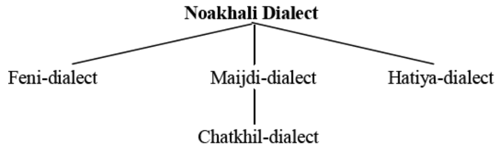


Figure 2: The Origin of Chatkhil Dialect

The distance from Chatkhil to Maijdi is about 100 sq. kilometers (Banglapedia; 2004). The recent development of communication system is unprecedented. The residents of different areas of greater Noakhali immigrated in this area and put up permanent residence from the past. Most of the immigrant people came from Lakshmipur, Laksham, Camilla, Ramganj etc. A lot of people emigrated from far-off greater Chittagong. The total number of people coming from Hatiya is comparatively less due to hindrances. In course of time another dialect i.e., *Chatkhil dialect* of Noakhali is created for these people of different origin living together.

III. Phonological Analysis of Chatkhil Dialect

Though, the Chatkhil dialect is created from the greater Noakhali district dialect; its consonants possess special characteristics. There are twenty-four (24) consonants in this dialect. The consonants of Chatkhil dialect are discussed below according to the place of articulation and manner of articulation.

(a) Place of Articulation

1. Bilabial : /p/ /p^h//b//m/
2. Dental : /t̪//t̪^{h}//d̪/
3. Alveolar : /n//r//l/ /ɟ//s/
4. Palatal : /c//ɟ//ʃ/
5. Palato-alveolar: /t//t^h//d/
6. Velar : /k//k^h//g//ŋ/
7. Glottal : /h/

(b) Manner of Articulation

1. Plosive : /k//k^h//g//c//ɟ//t//t^h//d//t̪//t̪^{h}//d̪/ /p//p^h//b/
2. Nasal : /n//m//ŋ/
3. Rolling : /ɽ/
4. Retroflex : /r/
5. Fricatives : /ç//ʃ//s//ɟ//h/
6. Lateral : /l/
7. Voiceless : /k//k^h//c//t//t^h//t̪//t̪^{h}//p//p^h//ʃ//s//h/
8. Voiced : /g//ɟ//d//d̪//b//ŋ//n//m//r//ɽ//l/
9. Unaspirated : /k//g//c//ɟ//t//d//t̪//d̪//p//b//ŋ//n//m/ /r/ /ɽ//l//ʃ//s/
10. Aspirated : /k^h//t^h//t̪^{h}//p^h//h/

According to the feature matrix, the consonants of Chatkhil dialect can be mentioned in the following way.

TABLE 1:
THE CONSONANTS OF CHATKHIL DIALECT ACCORDING TO THE FEATURE MATRIX

Manner of Articulation → / Place of Articulation ↓	Signs of Sound	Plosive	Nasal	Rolling	Retroflex	Fricatives	Lateral	Voiced	Aspirated
Bilabial	/p/	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	/pʰ/	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
	/b/	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	/m/	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
Dental	/t̪/	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	/t̪ʰ/	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	/d̪/	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
Alveolar	/n/	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
	/r/	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
	/l/	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
	/s/	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
Palato-alveolar	/t/	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	/tʰ/	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
	/d/	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	/c/	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
	/ɟ/	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	/ɽ/	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
	/ʃ/	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+
Velar	/k/	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	/kʰ/	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
	/g/	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
	/ŋ/	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
Glottal	/h/	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+

A. Phoneme

Phoneme is mainly a mental unit of the perception of language of human beings. But this hypothesis has previous stage. It is called phone or sound. It can be called a segment too. There is no obstruction to call phone as a part of speech. It can also be mentioned as the smallest part of suffix form. It is known as a vowels or consonants to the listeners. Speakers always pronounced a sound. But all the time his/her pronouncing sound clusters are not the same. Vowels and consonants are little bit different for the cause of different times or surroundings. Number of phones or fragments of sound exist less or more in every language. As a result it is not easy to discuss them. Thousand of phones of languages are divided into some teams or classes from theoretical aspects. This division or class of phones perception is Phoneme. Phonemes of all languages are well defined and countable (Ali, 2001). There are some significant rules to determine phonemes. These are Minimal pair selections test, Contrast test (*i.e.* Initial, Medial and Final contrast) and Sub-minimal pair test. The consonant phonemes of Chatkhil dialect can be classified into the following groups with the help of minimal pair test:

Initial Contrast

i)	/b/	/d̪/	/b/ > /d̪/
	/buk/ *'chest'*	/d̪uk/ *'sorrow/pain'*	
ii)	/k/	/t/	/k/ > /t/
	/kʰal/ *'canal'*	/tal/ *'plum'*	
iii)	/g/	/d/	/g/ > /d/
	/gol/ *'goal'*	/dol/ *'a tom-tom'*	
iv)	/t̪/	/ɟ/	/t̪/ > /ɟ/
	/t̪ora/ *'your'*	/ɟora/ *'pair'*	

Medial Contrast

i)	/m/	/n/	/m/ > /n/
	/mana/ *'prohibit'*	/nana/ *'grand-father'*	
ii)	/ɽ/	/d/	/ɽ/ > /d/
	/kuɽi/ *'twenty'*	/kudi/ *'to cut'*	

iii) /p/ /t̪/ /p/ > /t̪/
/mapi/ *'measure'* /mat̪i/ *'conscious'*

Final Contrast

i) /b/ /p/ /b/ > /p/
/lab/ *'profit'* /lap/ *'jump'*

ii) /ŋ/ /d/ /ŋ/ > /d/
/hiŋ/ *'horn'* /hid/ *'back'*

iii) /r/ /n/ /r/ > /n/
/ar/ *'and'* /an/ *'to bring something's'*

iv) /l/ /r/ /l/ > /r/
/hɔl/ *'fruits'* /hɔr/ *'light'*

TABLE 2:
INVENTORY OF PHONEMES OF CHATKHIL DIALECT

Consonants				Place of Articulation						
				Velar	Palatal	Palato-alveolar	Dental	Alveolar	Bilabial	Glottal
Manner of Articulation	Plosive	Unaspirated	Voiceless	[k]	[c]	[t]	[t̪]		[p]	
		Aspirated		[kʰ]		[tʰ]	[t̪ʰ]		[pʰ]	
		Unaspirated	Voiced	[g]	[ɟ]	[d]	[d̪]		[b]	
	Nasal	Unaspirated	Voiced	[ŋ]				[n]	[m]	
	Retroflex							[r]		
	Lateral							[l]		
	Rolling	Unaspirated	Voiced			[ɽ]				
	Fricatives	Aspirated	Voiceless							[h]
		Unaspirated			[ç] [ʃ]			[s]		

B. Allophones

It will be easy to explain Allophones if the phoneme is considered to be a family. Family is a cooperative organization and made by the combination of its members. Phonemes alike have numerous members. These members are allophones. The meaning of the words will be changed if the phonemes are changed. But the change in allophones does not resulting in the same. Allophones have significant phonological contextual variants and that can definitely be analyzed. Therefore, the predictable variant of phoneme is called Allophone (Yale, 1995).

The Bengali phonemes have more then one allophones. The Bengali alphabets have a sign of [ŋ]. But it has no pronunciation in standard Bengali language. Everywhere we pronounced it as an alveolar [n]. But if [n] is used as affixed in consonants of classified *ta(ট)*-group of standard Bengali, it will be pronounced quietly as like as a retroflex sound. Hence, in Bengali language [n] is a phoneme and [ŋ] is its' allophone. Allophones of language are determined by rules. To do so, one must be consider as the complimentary distribution and the other is free variation of sound. (Ali, 2001) The allophones of Chatkhil dialect are described below:

1. Standard Bengali language's phoneme /p/ has two allophones [h], [b] in Chatkhil dialect.

/p/ Bilabial, Plosive, Voiceless & Unaspirated
/h/ Glottal, Voiceless, Aspirated &Fricatives
/b/ Bilabial, Plosive, Voiced &Unaspirated

/p/
[h] [b]

p > h : Standard Bengali phoneme /p/ is altered to the allophone [h] and it's used before vowel [a] in the initial position of the word. Examples: [pani] > [hani] *(water)*, [pap] > [hap] *(sin)*

p > b : Standard Bengali phoneme /p/ is altered to the allophone [b] and it is used after vowel [a] in the final position of the word. Example: [sevenup] > [sevenab] *(name of soft drinks)*

2. Standard Bengali language's phoneme /p^h/ has two allophones [h], [s] in Chatkhil dialect.

/p/ Bilabial, Plosive, Voiceless &Aspirated
/h/ Glottal, Voiceless, Aspirated & Fricatives
/s/Alveolar, Voiceless, Aspirated & Fricatives

/p^h/
[h] [s]

p^h > h : Standard Bengali phoneme /p^h/ is altered to the allophone [h] and it stands before vowel [u] in the initial position of a word. Example: [p^{h}ulkopi] > [hulkopi] *(cauliflower)*

p^h > s : Standard Bengali phoneme /p^h/ is altered to the allophone [s] and it is used before consonant [t̪] and after vowel [i] in the medial position of the words. Example: [ip^{h}t̪ar] > [ist̪ar] *(Ifter)*

3. Standard Bengali phoneme /b^h/ has one allophone [b] in Chatkhil dialect.

/b^h/ Bilabial, Plosive, Aspirated & Voiceless
/b/ Bilabial, Plosive, Unaspirated & Voiced

/b^h/
[b] [b^h]

b^h > b : Standard Bengali phoneme /b^h/ is altered to the allophone [b] and it is used after vowel [a] in the final position of a word. Example: [lab^h] > [lab] *(profit).* Again phoneme /b^h/ turn into the allophone [b] and it stands before vowel [a] in the initial position of a word. That's means aspirated becomes unaspirated. Example: [b^{h}alo] >[balo] *(good/well/fine)*

4. Standard Bengali phoneme /c/ has one allophone [ç] in Chatkhil dialect.

/c/ Palatal, Plosive, Unaspirated & Voiceless
/ç/ Palatal, Plosive, Unaspirated & Fricatives

/c/
[ç] [c]

c > ç : Standard Bengali phoneme /c/ is altered to the allophone [ç] and it stands before vowel [u] in the initial position of the words. Example: [cul] > [çul] *(hair)*

5. Standard Bengali phoneme /c^h/ has two allophones [c], [ç] in Chatkhil dialect.

/c^h/Palatal, Plosive, Aspirated & Voiceless
/c/ Palatal, Plosive, Unaspirated & Voiceless
/ç/ Palatal, Plosive, Unaspirated & Fricatives

/c^h/
[c] [ç]

c^h > c : Standard Bengali phoneme /c^h/ is altered to the allophone [c] and it stands before vowel [a] in initial words. Example: [c^{h}al] > [cal] *(bark)*

c^h > ç : Standard Bengali phoneme /c^h/ is altered to the allophone [ç] and it stands before vowel [o] in the initial position of the words. Example: [c^{h}obi] > [çobi] *(picture)*

6. Standard Bengali language's phoneme /t/ has one allophone [d] in Chatkhil dialect.

/t/ Palato-alveolar, Plosive, Unaspirated & Voiceless
/d/ Palato-alveolar, Plosive, Unaspirated & Voiced

/t/
[d] [t]

t > d : Standard Bengali phoneme /t/ is altered to the allophone [d] and it stands before vowels [a] and [i] in the medial position of a word. Examples: [mota] > [moda] *(fat),* [ãti] > [adi] *(bundle),* [ata] > [ada] *(coarse flour)*

7. Standard Bengali language's phoneme /d^h/ has one allophone [d] in Chatkhil dialect.

/d^h/ Palato-alveolar, Plosive, Aspirated &Voiced

/d^h/
[d] [d^h]

/d/ Palato-alveolar, Plosive, Unaspirated & Voiced

d^h > d : Standard Bengali phoneme /d^h/ is altered to the allophone [d] and it stands before [a] vowel in the initial position of a word. Examples: [d^{h}al] > [dal] *(shield).* Again phoneme /d^h/ is altered to the allophone [d] and it stands before vowel [e], after vowel [ɔ] in the medial position of the words. Examples: [ɔd^{h}el] > [ɔdel] *(plentiful).*

8. Standard Bengali language's phoneme /t̪^{h}/ has one allophone [t̪] in Chatkhil dialect.

/t̪^{h}/ Dental, Plosive, Aspirated & Voiceless

/t̪/ Dental, Plosive, Unaspirated & Voiceless

/t̪^{h}/

[t̪] [t̪^{h}]

t̪^{h} > t̪ : Standard Bengali phoneme /t̪^{h}/ is altered to the allophone [t̪] and it stands after vowel [a] in a medial position of words. Examples: [mat̪^{h}a] > [mat̪a] *(head),* [lat̪^{h}i] > [lat̪i] *(kick).*

9. Standard Bengali language's phoneme /d̪^{h}/ has one allophone [d̪] in Chatkhil dialect.

/d̪^{h}/ Dental, Plosive, Aspirated & Voiced

/d̪/ Dental, Plosive, Unaspirated & Voiced

/d̪^{h}/

[d̪] [d̪^{h}]

d̪^{h} > d̪ : Standard Bengali phoneme /d̪^{h}/ is altered to the allophone [d̪] and it stands before vowel [a] in the initial position of words. Examples: [d̪^{h}an] > [d̪an] *(rice),* [d̪^{h}ar] > [d̪ar] *(to borrow)*

10. Standard language's phoneme /ɽ/ has one allophone [r] in Chatkhil dialect.

/ɽ/ Palato-alveolar, Voiced, Unaspirated & Rolling

/r/ Alveolar, Voiced, Unaspirated & Retroflex

/ɽ/

[r] [ɽ]

ɽ > r : Standard Bengali phoneme /ɽ/ is altered to the allophone [r] and it stands before [i] vowel in the medial position of words. Examples: [baɽi] > [bari] *(home),* [maɽi] > [mari] *(gum)*

11. Standard Bengali language's phoneme /ɽ^h/ has one allophone [r] in Chatkhil dialect.

/ɽ^h/ Palato-alveolar, Voiced, Aspirated & Rolling

/r/ Alveolar, Voiced, Unaspirated & Retroflex

/ɽ^h/

[r] [ɽ^h]

ɽ > r : Standard Bengali phoneme /ɽ^h/ is altered to the allophone [r] and it stands before [o] vowel in the medial position of words. Example: [gaɽ^{h}o] > [garo] (Condense)

1. Standard Bengali phoneme /h/ has one allophone [a] in Chatkhil dialect

/h/ Glottal, Voiceless, Aspirated & Fricatives

/a/ Mid, low, central & open

/h/

[a] [h]

h > a : Standard Bengali phoneme /h/ is altered to the allophone [a] and it stands before consonants [t̪] and [ʃ] in the initial position of words and one similar vowel will be extinct. Examples: [hat̪] > [at̪] *(hand),* [haʃi] > [aʃi] *(laugh).*

12. Standard Bengali phoneme /ʃ/ has one allophone [h] in Chatkhil dialect.

/ʃ/ Palatal, Voiceless, Unaspirated & Fricatives

/h/ Glottal, Voiceless, Aspirated & Fricatives

/ʃ/

[h] [ʃ]

ʃ > h : Standard Bengali phoneme /ʃ/ is altered to the allophone [h] and it stands before vowels [i] and [a] in a medial position of the words. Examples: [ʃiŋ] > [hiŋ] *(horn),* [ʃat̪] > [hat̪] *(seven).*

13. Standard Bengali phoneme /s/ has one allophone [ç] [c] in Chatkhil dialect.

/s/ Alveolar, Voiceless, Unaspirated & Fricatives

/ç/ Palatal, Plosive, Unaspirated & Fricatives

/c/ Palatal, Plosive, Unaspirated & Voiceless

/s/

[ç] [c]

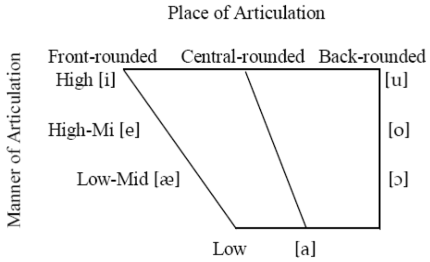
ʃ > ç : Standard Bengali phoneme /ʃ/ is altered to the allophone [ç] and it stands before [i] vowel in an initial position of the words. Example: [sikka] > [çikka]

ʃ > c : Standard Bengali phoneme /ʃ/ is altered to the allophone [c] and it stands before [o] vowel in an initial position of the words. Example: [ʃop^{h}a] > [cop^{h}a] *(sofa)*

C. Vowel

We have got seven oral vowels of Chatkhil dialect during the study. These are given beneath.

TABLE 3:
ORAL VOWELS OF CHATKHIL DIALECT



We can substantiate the vowels of Chatkhil dialect according to four units of extent. These are introduced in the following manner according to the dimensions.

Place of Tongue

We get frontal, central and back vowels according to the position of tongue such as:

Front vowels : [i] [e] [æ]

Central vowels : [a]

Back vowels : [u] [o] [ɔ]

Height of Tongue

According to the height of tongue we get high, high-mid, low-mid and low vowels in this dialect such as:

TABLE 3:
VOWELS OF CHATKHIL DIALECT ACCORDING TO THE HEIGHT AND PLACE OF TONGUE

Height of Tongue	Place of Tongue		
	Front	Central	Back
High	/i/		/u/
High-mid	/e/		/o/
Low-mid	/æ/		/ɔ/
Low		/a/	

Lips position

The position of lips are considered by two dimensions firstly, the rounded or unrounded positions of lips and secondly, the open position of leaps. The following vowels of Chatkhil dialect are given below to consider these two dimensions.

TABLE 4:
VOWELS OF CHATKHIL DIALECT ACCORDING TO THE LIPS POSITIONS

	Unrounded		Rounded
Close	/i/		/u/
Half-close	/e/		/o/
Half-open	/æ/		/ɔ/
Open		/a/	

Position of Soft-palatal

Nasalization features of vowels are changed according to this position. If we addressed the samples of this dialect four nasalization sounds are prevalent here such as /ã//õ//æ̃//ũ/

	Chatkhil-dialect	Meaning
/ã/	[ãi]	I
	[hãp]	Snake
/õ/	[hõa]	Cucumber
	[tʰõd]	Lips
/æ̃/	[tæ̃a]	Taka
	[bæ̃a]	Curve
/ũ/	[t̪ũi]	You (honored)

The nasal consonants are used instead of vowel nasal sounds and it's the especial characteristic of Chatkhil-dialect such as.

Standard Bengali	Chatkhil-dialect	Meaning
[fãd̪]	[hand̪]	Traps

[cãd̪]	[çanni]	Moon
[bãdʰa]	[band̪a]	Tight
[kãca]	[kaca]	Green
[ãti]	[adi]	Bundle

D. Semi-vowel

There are five semi-vowels found in this dialect according to Charles Faguson and Munir Chowdery model. These are /i̯//e̯//a̯//o̯//u̯/. The use of these vowels is shown below:

Semi-vowel	Chatkhil-dialect	Standard Bengali	Meaning
/i̯/	[bilai̯]	[biɽal]	Cat
/e̯/	[d̪oe̯]	[d̪ʰoea]	Wash
/a̯/	[bia̯]	[bibaho]	Marriage
/o̯/	[ɟao̯]	[jae]	To go
/u̯/	[keu̯]	[keu]	Some one

TABLE 5:
THE ORAL VOWEL OF CHATKHIL DIALECT ACCORDING TO THE FEATURE MATRIX

	/i/	/e/	/æ/	/a/	/ɔ/	/o/	/u/
High	+	-	-	-	-	-	+
High-mid	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
Low-mid	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
Low	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
Front	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
Back	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
Central	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
Rounded	-	-	-	-	+	+	+
Unrounded	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
Close	+	-	-	-	-	-	+
Half-close	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
Half-open	-	-	+	-	+	-	-
Open	-	-	-	+	-	-	-

E. Illustration of Phonemic Contrasts

Vowel Phoneme

The contrasts between phonemes are illustrated by minimal or analogues pairs. These contrasts are given below;

Medial contrast

i)	/i/	/e/	/i/ > /e/
	/hid/ *'back'*	/hed/ *'bally'*	
	/di/ *'to give'-1st Person*	/de/ *'to give' non-honored*	
ii)	/ɔ/	/u/	/ɔ/ > /u/
	/hɔl/ *'fruits'*	/hul/ *'flowers'*	
iii)	/o/	/ɔ/	/o/ > /ɔ/
	/hor/ *'father in law'*	/hɔr/ *'milk-film'*	
	/d̪oʃ/ *'crime'*	/d̪ɔʃ/ *'ten'*	
iv)	/æ/	/u/	/æ/ > /u/
	/tæl/ *'oil'*	/tul/ *'bench'*	

Final contrast

i)	/u/	/o/	/u/ > /o/
	/alu/ *'potato'*	/alo/ *'Alo- as a name*	
ii)	/a/	/ɔ/	/a/ > /ɔ/

	/ha/ *'leg'*	/hɔ/ *'yes'*	
	/ma/ *'mother'*	/mɔ/ *'curry soup'*	
iii)	/e/	/ɔ/	/e/ > /ɔ/
	/de/ *'to give'- non-honored*	/dɔ/ *'to give'-2nd Person*	
	/ɟe/ *'yes'-honor*	/ɟɔ/ *'to go'- honor*	

F. Vowel Allophone

1. Standard Bengali phoneme /a/ has two allophones [i] [ɔ] in Chatkhil dialects.

/a/ mid, low & close
/i/ front-unrounded, high, close & unrounded
/ɔ/ back, rounded, low-mid & half-open

/a/
[i] [ɔ]

a > i : Standard Bengali phoneme /a/ is altered to the allophone [i] and used after consonants [p] and [n] in the final position of words. Examples: [mapa] > [mapi] *(measure)*, [ɟana] > [ɟani] (*know)*

a > ɔ : Standard Bengali phoneme /a/ is altered to the allophone [ɔ] and used after consonants [n] and [h] in the final position of words. Examples: [na] > [nɔ] *(negative/no)*, [hã] > [hɔ] *(positive/yes)*

2. Standard Bengali phoneme /e/ has three allophones [a] [æ] [o] in Chatkhil dialects.

/e / high-mid, front-unrounded, rounded & half-open
/a/ mid-low & open
/æ/ low-mid, front-unrounded, half-open & unrounded
/o/ back, rounded, low-mid & half-open

/e/
[a] [æ] [o]

e > a : Standard Bengali phoneme /e/ is altered to the allophone [a] and used after a consonant [n] in the final position of words. Example: [nei] > [nai] *(nothing)*

e > æ : Standard Bengali phoneme /e/ is altered to the allophone [æ] and used between two consonants in the middle position of words. Example: [leɟ] > [læɟ] *(tail)*. Again /e/ is altered to the allophone [æ] and used before consonant [k] in the initial position of a word. Example: [ek] > [æk] *(one)*

e > o : Standard Bengali phoneme /e/ is altered to the allophone [ɔ] and used between two consonants in the middle position of words. Examples: [gengi] > [gongi] *(a vest)*

3. Standard Bengali phoneme /i/ has one allophone [e] in Chatkhil dialect.

/e/ high-mid, front-unrounded, unrounded, half-open
/i/ front-unrounded, high, close, unrounded

/i/
[e] [i]

i > e : Standard Bengali phoneme /i/ is altered to the allophone [e] and used between two consonants in the middle of a word. Example: [gengi] > [gongi] *(a vest)*. Again /e/ is altered to the allophone [i] and used after a consonant [ɟ] in the final position of a word. Example: [ji] > [ɟe] *(yes)*

4. Standard Bengali phoneme /o/ has three allophones [a] [ɔ] [u] in Chatkhil dialects.

/o/ back, rounded, low-mid, half-open
/a/ mid, low, open
/ɔ/ back, rounded, low-mid, half-open
/u/ back, high, rounded, open

/o/
[a] [ɔ] [u]

o > a : Standard Bengali phoneme /o/ is altered to the allophone [a] and used after a consonant [l] in the final position of a word. Examples: [b^{h}alo] > [bala] *(good)*, [kalo] > [kala] *(black)*

o > ɔ : Standard Bengali phoneme /o/ is altered to the allophone [ɔ] and used between two consonants in the middle position of a words. Example: [polau] > [hɔlau] *(fried rice)*

o > u : Standard Bengali phoneme /o/ is altered to the allophone [u] and used between two consonants in the middle position of a words. Example: [koti] > [kudi] *(ten million)*

5. Standard Bengali phoneme /u/ has two allophones [o] [i] in Chatkhil dialects.

/u/ back, high, rounded, close
/o/ back, rounded, low-mid, half-open
/i/ front-unrounded, high, close, unrounded

/u/
[o] [i]

u > **o :** Standard Bengali phoneme /u/ is altered to the allophone [o] and used between two consonants in the middle positions of a word. Example: [kumɽa] [komɽa] *(pumpkin)*

u > **i :** Standard Bengali phoneme /u/ is altered to the allophone [i] and used after vowel [a] in the middle position of word. Example: [caul] > [cail] *(rice)*

6. Standard Bengali phoneme /ɔ/ has one allophone [i] in Chatkhil dialect.

/ɔ/ back, rounded, low-mid, half-open

/i/ front-unrounded, high, open, unrounded

/ɔ/

[i] [ɔ]

ɔ > **i :** Standard Bengali phoneme /ɔ/ is altered to the allophone [i] and used between two consonants in the middle position of a word. Example: [camɔc] > [camic] *(spoon)*

G. Diphthong

A vowel in which there is a perceptible change of quality during a syllable (Crystal, 1992:156). It is mentionable that each sound is unique and the root of this uniqueness is due to two especial identities of sounds. Firstly, each sound has a place of pronunciation of it's possess. Secondly, each sound has a distinct manner of pronunciation. So diphthong has a glide as like as semi-vowel. Usually the second vowel becomes glide. But there is a distinct difference between glide of diphthong and glide of semi-vowel. The glide of semi-vowel can make a syllable; but the glide of diphthong has not that quality. In brief one can say that, diphthong = vowel + glide (Ali, 2001). In Chatkhil dialect, the diphthong may be oral or nasal, formation of diphthongs are common in Chatkhil dialect due to its phonetic habits, where medial or final consonantal segments are dropped and a vocalic segment is added in compensation (Halder, 1929). The nasal diphthongs are identical in number to their oral counterparts. As nasalization is quite a common phonetic feature of the dialect, nasal diphthongs are widespread in Chatkhil dialect. The total number (22) of oral diphthongs of Chatkhil is described here, as obtained from the speech of informant.

TABLE 6:
DIPHTHONG OF CHATKHIL DIALECT

No	Diphthong	Examples	Meaning
1	[ia]	[hial]	Fox
2	[iu]	[hiuk]	To learn
3	[ei]	[beil]	Time
4	[ea]	[cear]	Chair
5	[eu]	[deu]	Wave
6	[ao]	[ɟao]	Go
7	[ɔe]	[kɔe]	To tell
8	[ɔo]	[ɔon]	Now
9	[ua]	[çua]	Sour
10	[oe]	[d̪oe]	To wash
11	[ui]	[huiʃa]	coin
12	[oa]	[noa]	New
13	[ou]	[bou]	wife
14	[oi]	[d̪oi]	Yoghurt
15	[ae]	[kʰae]	To eat
16	[iɔ]	[biɔd̪]	Danger
17	[ea]	[d̪ea]	To see
18	[ue]	[mue]	To mouth
19	[uɔ]	[huɔr]	Pig
20	[ai]	[kʰai]	To eat

IV. CONCLUSION

This is the second attempt to apply the generative transformative model of Chomsky to the phonology of Bengali, more specifically of Standard Bengali and of one other dialect the Chatkhil dialect in Noakhali district, Bangladesh. As it would be expected, some methodological problems arose in finding rules for the language as the work done to date using this model has been largely on non-Indian language. In this research most of the rules are provided by Chomsky-

Halle (1968). The present research has been essentially contrastive in nature. Bengali has a number of dialects, which vary in great degree in the phonology. The Chatkhil dialect as spoken is a restricted area in Southern Bangladesh, was capered in this study with southern Bengali language in phonology. The contrastive mode of study was helpful in the sense that the degree of variation and similarity of the two forms of Bengali became clan through comparison. In phonology there was a tendency to add some new rules and at the same time to delete some old rules. It was surprisingly found that Chatkhil dialect has more rules for phonetic altercation of consonantal segments. Chatkhil Dialect has some phonological differences with standard Bengali language. These differences are explicit and quantifiable in Chatkhil dialect too. To collect the data of Chatkhil dialect, I have conducted an empirical study in the concerned area. During this study I have twenty-four consonants and seven vowels, which are used in this dialect. Besides, there are four nasalized vowel sounds, five semi-vowels and twenty Diphthongs. One of the most important things is in Chatkhil dialect; the aspiration of sound is abolished here. It means aspirated sounds are pronounced as an unaspirated sound.

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Md. Mostafa Rashel received BA (Hons.) & MA in Linguistics from University of Dhaka, Bangladesh. His areas of interests are phonetics and Morphosyntax of Bengali, English and Indigenous language.

He is currently a Senior Lecturer of English (Language and Linguistics) at Daffodil International University and also an M.Phil Researcher in the Department of Linguistics at University of Dhaka, Bangladesh. He has published a number of books and articles in his areas of interest in national and international academic and research journals such as *"Morphosyntactic Analysis of Marma Language"* (University of Dhaka, Bangladesh, the CDR Journal: A Journal of Center for Development Research), *"Morphosyntactic Analysis of Mro Language"* (The Dhaka University Journal of Linguistics (DUJL)) and *"Introducing Language Technology and Computational Linguistics in Bangladesh"* (International Journal of English Linguistics (IJEL), Canada). His current research interests are Endangered Indigenous Languages of Bangladesh, Impact of Single-sex Instruction on Student Motivation and word order typology of English and Bengali.

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Sound and Stylistic Meaning in Helon Habila's *Measuring Time*

Ebi Yeibo
Department of English and Literary Studies, Faculty of Arts, Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State, Nigeria
Email: eyeibo@gmail.com

Tamunotonye Alabrabra
Department of English Studies, Faculty of Humanities, University of Port Harcourt, Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria.
Email: lovelytonyein@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—Earlier reviews of Helon Habila's *Measuring Time* concentrated on literary features, such as theme, plot, characterization and subject matter in the text. However, such reviews have paid little attention to the role sound devices play in foregrounding stylistic meaning, which is very crucial for a comprehensive description and interpretation of the text. This study, therefore, applies the insights and techniques of general linguistics to investigate the stylistic value of phonological devices as semantic signifiers or reinforcers in the text. Specifically, the study deploys M.A.K. Halliday's three metafunctions of language viz: ideational, interpersonal and textual, as the analytical model, to examine the use of sound devices such as parallelism, repetition, alliteration, assonance and onomatopoeia, to foreground aspects of meaning in the text. The study posits that, as a level of language study, phonological structure plays a fundamental role in encoding the meaning and aesthetics of Helon Habila's text, and literary discourse in general.**

Index Terms*—sound devices, stylistic meaning, Helon Habila, *Measuring Time

I. Introduction

Every individual has his peculiar ways(s) of doing things. Style is the term used to capture this inherent human phenomenon, which is also applicable to one's distinctive mode of expression, both orally and in writing. The style of a writer (also known as 'idiolect') is, thus, his unique way or pattern of communicating his views, feelings or messages. Babajide(2000) observes that a person's style is informed and shaped by the aggregate of his social and political background, religious inclination, cultural values, experience, educational attainment, geographical location, and exposure (p.125).

From the foregoing, it is crystal clear that language is not only a means of communication; it is also critical for literary creativity and production. This view is corroborated by Yule's (1996) thesis that language can be used to bring into existence, by applying the imagination in some artistic technique. Todorov (1977) echoes the same idea when he posited that literature has language as both its point of departure and its destination; language furnishes literature its abstract configuration. According to Dada (2004),

Literature is written in language using the techniques and features of language such as tone, grammatical structure, diction and metaphor. (p.3)

This overwhelming fact justifies the examination of the language of given writer, not only to distil his distinctive style, but also to enhance the interpretation and understanding of his idiolect.

Fundamentally, however, language is a complex phenomenon with varied integral layers and constitutive levels, and elements of all these layers or levels are deployed or combined by a given author, to encode meaning and achieve aesthetic effects in his texts. Hence Alo (1998) posits that, the verbal style involves "..all the devices of language that are used to achieve communication goals in speech and writing…"(p. 1). The implication of this thesis is that the language scholar should be interested in all of these constitutive layers or levels. Dada (2004) captures this view inter alia:

A literary work is written in a language and to Understand the work fully, there must be recourse to language in all its aspects – phonetics, phonology, semantics, syntax, etc. (p. 1)

This fact explains why stylistic analysis applies the principles and techniques of general linguistics to the description and interpretation of salient graphological, phonological, syntactic, lexical and semantic features of a text, with a view to characterizing the writer's idiolect.

The present study, therefore, examines the phonological (i.e. sound) devices deployed by Helon Habila in his ***Measuring Time,*** in order to determine their semantic implications in the text. In other words, our task in this study is to determine the nexus between sound and meaning in the linguistic structure of Habila's text.

II. Theoretical Foundations/Literature Review

The concept of linguistic style in literature has been a subject of intense interest by language scholars through the ages, which has resulted in multifarious definitions and theories for its critical exploration. The Russian formalists and the Prague school of the 1920's, the structuralists of the 1960's and Noam Chomsky's (1957) Transformational generative grammar, for instance, have all explained and approached the concept from their distinct perspectives. However, since this study focuses on a functional use of language, we shall adopt M. A. K. Halliday's systemic functional grammar as the theoretical model for the analysis. The interest of this grammar is not only in describing the structure of language, but also in explaining the properties of discourse and its functions. It revolves around the work of J.R. Firth in general and M.A.K. Halliday in particular. In Hallidayan (1971) perception, a formal feature is stylistic if it has a particular meaning, effect or value. This notion emphasizes how language functions in texts and the nexus between language and what it is used for, or to achieve. The critical point here is that, whatever linguistic resource that is worth describing must be put to use, in the sense that the description and interpretation are necessarily based on the situational variables that prompted its use. Hence Oha (1994) posits that the approach recognizes the interdependency of style, meaning and context of situation and that the latter should not be subjected to second fiddle position, or ignored, in the analysis of style (p. 730).

In Systemic Functional Grammar, language structure is analyzed along semantic, phonological, lexical and grammatical lines. Language function, on the other hand, is examined from three angles viz: ideational, interpersonal and textual. These are referred to as the metafunctions of language. The ideational metafunction of language is synonymous with the field of discourse i.e. the subject matter or propositional content of the text and the context of language use i.e. is it a religious or socio-political subject? According to Adeyanju (2008), it "…implies that language serves as an instrument for the encoder (speaker, writer) to express and articulate his idea and experience internally"(p.86). The interpersonal or interactional function, at another level, refers to the tenor of discourse i.e. the social relationship that exists among participants in a specific discourse situation, which can influence or shape language use. According to Ogunsiji (2001), it "… helps to establish and sustain social relations" (p.77).

The textual aspect is particularly germane to the present study. It is concerned with the mode; the internal organization and communicative nature of a text. Leech and Short (1985) see Halliday's textual functions of language as "…ways of using language to organize, understand and express information for effective communication"(p. 209). In Adeyanju's (2008) view, it suggests "… the availability of an internal structure which makes it possible for the writer or speaker to construct texts that are not only coherent but also situationally appropriate"(p.87). The main point is that, the textual metafunction relates what is said in a text to ideas outside the discourse, as we shall demonstrate in the present study.

Habila's place in the third generation of Nigerian prose fiction writers is assured, both by his manifest artistic talent and the wide critical acclaim his works have attracted. In fact, *Measuring Time* has been a subject of world-Wide reviews in many reputable organizations like the *Daily Mail* of London, *Library Journal* of U.S.A. *The London Observer*, *The Guardian* of London, *O. Magazine* and *The Booklist* of U.S.A. However, from available literature, it has not been examined from critical linguistic perspectives, as most of the reviews have approached the work from the literary angles of theme, plot, characterization, subject matter, etc, exploring socio-historical, economic, psychological and political issues, as encapsulated in the text. For instance, Foden (2007) sees the text as a study in historical periods, man's psychology and relativism; Flanagan (2007) focuses on the text's exposition of African village life and politics, and the artistic skill, discipline and maturity evident in the narratology; while Kunzru (2007) examines the work's plot and the theme of struggle in a decadent and cynical world. The present study, therefore, seeks to fill this gap by foregrounding the role phonological devices play in encoding the meaning and aesthetics of the text.

III. The Concepts of Sound and Stylistic Meaning

Language is usually studied at different levels viz: phonology (sound), syntax (sentence structure) semantics, (meaning), morphology (internal structure of words), lexis (words). It is a semiotic system in the sense that it operates on conventional symbols and sounds which help inhabitants of a particular speech community to communicate. Communication itself takes place because these symbols and signs are meaningful i.e messages are associated with or attached to them.

In literary production, writers exploit or manipulate the resources of language to encode meaning, transmit messages and achieve aesthetic effects, in given textual situations. As we have earlier stated, the peculiar way a writer goes about this enterprise constitutes his style. Hence Halliday (1978) contends that style is language in use in relation to the various levels of meaning contained in a work of art.

Essentially sound is one of the linguistic elements exploited by writers to encode meaning. Basically there are two forms of human communication capable of producing meaning viz: Speech (Spoken) and writing (Written). The written form uses graphic symbols while the spoken form uses speech sounds. The airstream from the lungs provides the energy used in the production of human speech sounds which are basically vowels and consonants. According to Ufomata (1996), *The human vocal organs are made to be able to produce an enormous number of these sounds, but each language selects only a few, which it then puts together, not in an arbitrary manner, but also according to a number of specific rules.* (p.191)

In the English language i.e. Received Pronunciation (RP), there are twenty (20) vowel sounds and twenty-four (24) consonants, resulting in forty-four (44) phonemes. Vowel sounds are further broken down into monophthongs (12) and diphthongs (8). The critical point is that, as we shall demonstrate in our textual analysis, sound devices such as assonance, alliteration, onomatopoeia, syllable structure, parallelism, repetition etc, are usually deployed by writers for the creative enterprise. Alo (1998) explains that:

Every word in a language has its phonetic substance, vibration and quality. Each sound behaves in a certain way; some jar the ear; others soothe. The creative language user exploits the inherent qualities in speech sounds in his word choices… to produce special effect.

On the other hand, meaning is at the centre of language use i.e. every linguistic exercise aims to impart meaning. Thus various theories and approaches have been propounded by language scholars to explicate the concept viz: referential, image, ideational, behavioural and contextual theories of meaning. Stylistic meaning is one of the seven types of meaning identified by Leech (1974), others being conceptual or denotative, connotative, collocative, reflected, affective and thematic meaning. Ogunsij (2000) posits that it is considered "….. in relation to the situation in which an utterance is made"(p.53). This means that stylistic meaning refers to meanings that are shaped or conditioned by contextual variables or the environment of use. According to Ogunsiji (2000) these variables or factors include: geographical location, subject matter, medium (spoken or written), sex, age, role relationships etc. Therefore, as we have earlier stated, the present study seeks to bring out the combination of sounds that produces distinctive meanings and aesthetic effects in Helon Habila's text, by applying the principles of general linguistics.

IV. Brief Biography of the Author

Helon Habila was born 1967 in Kaltungo, Gombe State of Nigeria and educated at the University of Jos, Nigeria and the University of East Anglia, England. He teaches creative writing at the George Mason University in Fairfax, Virginia in the U. S. A. where he lives with his family.

Habila is a young writer whose first book *Waiting for an Angel* was awarded the Commonwealth Writers prize for new writing (African region 2003) and the Caine Prize (2001). In 2002, he won the Muson Poetry Prize in Nigeria. He was the first Chinua Achebe Fellow at Bard College (2005), a William B. Quarton Fellow at the University of Iowa International Writing programme and the John Farrar Fellow in Fiction at the 2003 Bread Loaf Writers. He co-edited the British Council's New Writing 14 with Lavinia Greenlaw.

V. Synopsis of the Text

It is expedient to summarize the content of the text since language use is based on it. In other words, our analysis of the language of *Measuring Time* would relate essentially to the content which forms the social and cultural ambience of the text.

Measuring Time is a novel that tell us the story of the twin brothers Mamo and La Mamo whose mother dies as they are born into the world. They grow up with their father, Lamang in a small village in Northern Nigeria called Keti. The hatred they have for their father because of his behaviour towards them and stories heard from gossips, make them take a decision to run away in order to join the army and become solders. Mamo who is suffering from sickle cell anaemia, falls sick on the way and is forced to stay behind while his brother LaMamo goes ahead to become a soldier. Mamo decides to go to school in order to fight the sickness and he becomes a teacher in history, in the village school. While he teaches, his brother is fighting in the war and sends him sketch letters regularly, about the happenings of the war.

Mamo in the village explores the local history by a white man, Drinkwater and is recruited by the traditional ruler, the Mia, to become his secretary and to write a true history of his people, due to the fame given to him by the reply of one of his articles from a British Journal. He fall in love with Zara who assists him with his article while LaMamo risks his life for a girl who would have been raped. Lamang on the other hand fights for political office and is betrayed by one of his party members.

Measuring Time also includes other minor characters like Aunty Mariana, a witch, the widows, a drunken cousin and others.

VI. Textual Analysis

It is expedient to establish that our analysis of phonological devices in the text is based on parallelism, repetition, alliteration, assonance, and onomatopoeia, as a result of their strategic importance as elements of signification and aesthetics in the text.

A. Parallelism

According to Adeyanju (2008), parallelism could be described as "… similarity of features of successive lines of poetry"(p.91). This scholar explains that it is a characteristic of Hebrew poetry as claimed by Livingstone (1977, p.30) and referred to in Adeyanju (1998, p.112). It is expedient to mention, however, that parallelism applies not only to poetry texts but texts of all sorts where there is a deliberate manipulation of linguistic resources to achieve beauty and convey meaning. In Yankson's (1987) view, this rhetorical structural pattern or device deals with the phonetic bond that exists between two or more lexical items in a text, which have a paradigmatic or syntagmatic relationship. Yankson (1987) contends that "one of the stylistic effects of linguistic parallelism is to invest lexical items with the same value ... the three levels of linguistic organization - syntactic, semantic and phonetic – converging on and reinforcing each other"(p. 50). In Habila's *Measuring Time*, it is repeatedly used, in the sense that the author uses the syntactic and phonological mode of expression to show parallelism in the novel. A good example is the use of the words "slimmer" and "thinner"(p.262). Semantically, the lexical items 'slimmer' and 'thinner' are related synonymously, having the same feature adverbial/+size/. Both words also share the same final sound /∂/ and the same stress pattern or stress isochronicity of two syllables, 'thin'ner 'slim'mer'. This is a case of syntactic, phonological and semantic parallelism. The stylistic effect of such parallelism is to invest the given items with the same value i.e. intra-textually, the items 'thinner' and 'slimmer' are the same in structure and sense. Other instances in the text include the following:

Yawning and blinking…. (p.256)
Verb/+ action/, /ŋ /, two syllables
Contractors and councilors…. (p251)
Noun/+persons/, / ∂/, three syllables
Running and screaming, slashing...(P184)
Verb/+ action, /ŋ /, two syllables

The critical point is that Habila uses repetitive structural patterns in relation to meaning, to add stylistic effects to his novel. In addition, the words used to achieve sound effect have the same stress pattern.

B. Repetition

Repetition is also a stylistic device under phonology in which parallel words are repeated in lines to draw the reader's attention to what the writer is actually saying. It is also intended to intensify meaning as well as being an aspect of a particular thesis i.e. using it in a logical way to present content as real. When some words are repeated, they add rhythmic effects to the lines in which they occur. Therefore, Habila has used this device not only to achieve realism but also as a decorative device to add beauty and aesthetic effects to the work. We shall now present some aspects of repetition from the text to illustrate our views.

The song at the beginning of the novel which the villagers composed for Lamang has a stimulating effect produced by the repetition of the words in the lines to bring out specific sounds and meanings i.e.

Mother sighing with longing
Daughter sighing with longing…. (p. 13)

The words "sighing with longing" demonstrate how much women love Lamang and are repeated to emphasize this meaning and create sound effect. Specifically, the repetition makes the lines catchy, which aligns with the meaning of love and longing that they are meant to depict. Additionally, the ...ing /**ŋ**/ form or structure in the two words suggests a continuum; an endless, undiminishing love. Habila has carefully repeated words in so many other lines and we would randomly look at some in the text:

She is dead, she is dead…. (p. 15)
Shot, he was shot… (p. 175)
Waited and waited ….(p. 175)
weight of grief, her grief …(p. 187)
Walking boots and rain boots….(p. 210)
Sunk lower and lower…(P. 218)
Clever, very clever …. (P. 234)
Calm down, calm down … (P. 254)
Money, more money … (P. 284)
Blood, blood … (P. 229)

In the text, the author also repeats some words and phrases in two different lines close to each other but in the same position. Let us consider the extract below:

his own village oak trees …
in the first year of trees …(P. 225)

This is a technique of parallelism and repetition used by Habila all over the novel and it is used in all the instances and contexts highlighted above for similar reasons as we have earlier stated (i.e. to achieve realism and achieve beauty in form).

C. Alliteration

According to Adeyanju (2008), alliteration is the use of "… the same consonant at the beginning of nearby words"(p.91). In other words, it is the repetition of initial consonant sounds within a line of discourse. It is the use of words that begin with alphabets which have the same sounds and are relatively close in a particular line. The deployment of alliteration in a particular discourse situation is usually for aesthetic and functional purposes. In studying

Habila's *Measuring Time*, we observed that the text displays alliteration all over for stylistic effect. We would analyze some of these instances for the sake of illustration:

Of the feeling of abandonment he and
his brother always felt when after waiting
for weeks for their father to return from … (P. 183)

In the extract above, we see the way Habila alliterates the /f/ labio-dental fricative consonant. This is a strong, voiceless consonant and it can be said that the author has used it consciously to capture that aspect of meaning i.e. it suggests the strong feelings that the words are meant to express. There are other areas where the /f/ consonant is used for almost the same stylistic effect and meaning i.e.

From friends and failed to … (P. 120)
Far away from her friends … (P. 268)
I fell from the farm tree … (P. 297)

On the other hand, Habila has utilized the /w/ consonant which is a weak one, for instance, to capture situations or events that are not necessarily energised. This implies that the bilabial approximant /w/ is used by the author to suggest that the situation or subject is not particularly passionate, impassioned or exciting as exemplified by the extract below:

When he attempted to walk on his own, even with his walking stick, his hands would shake and the stick would wobble and … (P. 182)

The fundamental point here is that the extract suggests weakness and Habila foregrounds this semantic slant by using the /w/ consonant. Other examples from the text include:

Was like walking on water … (P. 123)
wouldn't…want to waste … (P. 199)
who were working with … (P. 205)

It is expedient to mention that alliteration in Habila's text is not restricted to the fricative consonant /f/ and bilabial approximant /w/ as we have highlighted above with the illustrations. This sound device manifests in varying forms throughout the text, as exemplified below:

/s/… stood staring and sniffing … (P. 119)
/s/… student, secondary school … (P. 152)
/b/… big bed and brought … (P. 244)
/b/ Bulbs blinked … (P. 246)
/t/… twisting and torturing … (P. 182)
/p/… pointing … plane passing … (P. 118)
/p/ Picked up a pen and paper … (P. 179)
/h/… had her head in her hands … (P. 174)
/h/ Her hands … her wet hair … (P. 264)

The significant stylistic point here is that in all of these forms and contexts, it is used to foreground aspects of meaning and also to serve specific aesthetic purposes. In other words, the use of this device in the text also demonstrates how sound can be manipulated to convey stylistic meaning in a given discourse.

D. Assonance

Assonance deals with the repetition of identical vowel sounds where there is no full rhyme. The sounds are produced when two syllables in words that have the same vowels and different consonants are placed close together. In Adeyanju's (2008) view, it is "… the use of the same vowel sound in the middle of nearby words" (p. 97). The critical point is that Habila also uses this device to distil or bring out sounds of words which have overt stylistic meanings. He uses this device, for instance, to announce one of the sub-titles of the text, which we would analyze shortly: "Lives and times… (P. 197). These two words are used severally in the text and Habila uses them together to bring out their centrality to the meaning of the entire discourse. The critical point here is that both of them contain the loud diphthong /ai/. In other words, there is a formal correspondence between the relative loudness of the sound and the overwhelming importance of the meaning of the words to the text, as they are at the centre of the whole story. So, the loud diphthong /ai/ could be said to be emphasizing or echoing one of the main points or issues in the entire text: Lives and Times. Thus, the form used in this context is suggestive of the sense. Other instances of the use of assonance in the text include the following:

/^/… flew up and cut … (P. 145)
/^/ Come, but some … (P. 15)
/u:/… two bedroom and a living room … (P. 222)
/u:/ To loot and shoot … (P. 138)
/i:/… huge neem trees … (P. 78)
/i:/ With real weakness … (P. 188)
/i/… slimmer, thinner… (P. 262)
/i/… Licking his lips … (P. 24)
/):/… was like walking on water … (P. 123)
/)/ Form of a foreword … (P. 215)

/ai/… like a sigh … (P. 190)
/ai/…Bride-price … (P. 181)
/∂U/… spoke slowly almost … (P. 184)

Importantly, in all of the foregoing instances, the author has demonstrated that vowel sounds can also be manipulated by a literary artist to foreground aspects of meaning and also create aesthetic value.

E. Onomatopoeia

Onomatopoeia is a phonological device of stylistics in which the sounds suggest the meaning of words or expressions because the words are formed by imitating the actual or natural sounds associated with the things concerned. Habila uses this device to reflect sense in the sound of words which have similar sounds to the one described. This device is used by the author to foreground meaning and also for stylistic effects, even though we agree with Leech's (1969) contention that,

…this power of suggesting natural sounds or other qualities is relatively weak – too weak to operate unsupported by meaning – and because of its range, is only latent. (See Yankson, 1987,p.54).

A typical example of Habila's exploration of this device in the text would be analyzed below:

now she was at the window; she hammered at it with her walking stick, tap-tap-tap, till gradually the glass began to crack ... (p. 27)

In this context, we see that Habila captures the sound of the glass as it is being hit with a walking stick by repeating the word **"tap…tap…tap"** three times. It is a device he uses to make meaning quite accessible and realistic and also to add rhythmic beauty to the work. Other examples of this device in the text include the following:

The flies buzzed joyfully … (P. 39)
Mewing like a cat … (P. 44)
The wood creaking … (P. 71)
The crowd gave a roar … (P. 148)
I am babbling … (P. 188)
His voice becoming whispery … (P. 208)
The crowd sent up a wail … (P. 228)
Cock brings to crowing … (P. 259)

Although we also agree with Yankson (1987) that "this is perhaps the most subjective area of literary appreciation", there is no doubt that this device helps the author to create a palpable sense of realism and splendour in the work (p.54). Significantly, this style seems to tally with Yankson's (1987) contention that,

Any sound features which a poet may employ to echo, suggest or enact meaning can work only in conjunction with the meaning of the poetic text. (P.54)

In other words, the suggestive power of the onomatopoeic usages in the text is realized by the textual contexts in which they appear.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this study we have applied the insights and methods of functional linguistics to examine the role sound devices play in encoding or reinforcing meaning and achieving aesthetic effects in Helon Habila's *Measuring Time.* No doubt, the study demonstrates the inexorable relationship between language and literature. The plain fact is that language is the singular medium of literary communication and a given writer inevitably selects his mode of presentation or signification in a given context to catch the attention of the reader in particular ways. This implies that linguistic structure or organization is of prime importance in literary production and interpretation. Thus, Jacobson contends that, the most important feature of literature is the way structure is organized to foreground the substantive elements of texts, particularly phonology, syntax and other levels of language.

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Ebi Yeibo was born in Bomadi, Delta State, Nigeria, on February 24, 1969. He obtained degrees in English from the Delta State University, Abraka (1996) and the University of Ibadan (2000), Nigeria, specializing in discourse analysis and stylistics.

He teaches stylistics, discourse analysis, applied linguistics, semantics and history of the English language at the Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State, Nigeria, and has published scholarly papers on these areas in local and international journals. An award-winning poet, his published volumes of poetry include: *Maiden Lines* (Ibadan: Akol Press, 1997), *A Song for Tomorrow* (Ibadan: Kraftbooks Ltd, 2003), and *The Forbidden Tongue* (Ibadan: Kraftbooks Ltd, 2007).

Mr. Yeibo is a member of various professional and learned associations in Nigeria: Association of Nigerian Authors (ANA), Linguistics Association of Nigeria (LAN), and Nigerian Institute of Public Relations (NIPR).

Tamunotonye Alabrabra was born May 30, 1987, in Port-Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria. She obtained a degree in English and Literary Studies from the Niger Delta University, Wilberforce Island, Bayelsa State, Nigeria and is, at present, an M.A. Student in the Department of English Studies, University of Port-Harcourt, Nigeria.

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Developing Strategies to Cope with Academic Disparities

Anand Mahanand
EFL University, Hyderabad-500605, India
Email: amahanand991@gmail.com

***Abstract*—The aim of the paper is to study the academic conditions of students who come from deprived background and from the rural areas to join universities at the M.A. level and suggest strategies to cope with academic challenges faced by them. The paper assumes that there exists a large gap between students who come from rural areas and from the deprived sections and academic expectations demanded by educational institutions. It studies the nature of their problems and suggests measures to deal with such difference. It also reports an experiment done to improve academic skills of such students.**

***Index Terms*—strategies, disparities, academic skills, regional medium, cognitive ability, performance**

I. Introduction

The composition of university classroom today is different from what it used to be about sixty years back. About sixty years back, the classroom was predominately occupied by students from the feudal/upper class. The classroom was of homogenous nature. The methodology used was common and the problems faced by the students were also common. After Independence, with the democratization of education, the composition of students in the universities has changed. There has been an inflow of students from rural areas and from the underprivileged sections recognized by the constitution as scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. Some of them are first generation learners. They went through disadvantaged schools and through regional medium education. They have little exposure to English language. Their surroundings are far away from contact of English. They lack literature in English to read. They hardly have any audiovisuals at home to provide them exposure to the language. They hardly have relatives on whose visits they can converse in English. The world outside home also does not give them adequate exposure to the use of English. At the school and in some cases, at the college level also the medium of instruction is not English. They learn English just as a subject. But at the university there is a sudden shift to English. At the M.A. level, the medium of instruction is English. Even though they have cognitive ability, they find it difficult to cope with the academic demands made by the universities. As a result they develop some kind of inferiority complex. They are also looked down upon by many teachers as incompetent and inefficient and not so hard working. Needless to say, their performance is low. As a result, they feel frustrated and discriminated. Some give up their courses. Some register protests. The managers of higher education feel that they are not fit to come to the university. Instead, they should be working in the fields or doing some other job but not at the temples of learning. There are hardly any efforts to address this problem. Some universities have Centres for English Language Teaching (CELTs). They ought to address problems of this kind. But a very few have courses meant for this kind of learners. The UGC has been funding to conduct remedial classes for such students in universities. Some are conducting such classes sincerely. Even here there are some problems. Students have to attend classes in addition to their regular classes. So they become overburdened with work. As an alternative they tend to neglect their remedial classes and give more importance to their core courses. Some students do not show interest as they don't want to be categorized as a group for such a course because some kind of stigma is attached to it.

It is the need of the hour to find out ways and means to tackle this problem. The CELTs should be activated and assigned this task to do in an effective manner. Where there are no CELTs, effort should be made to open new ones and the UGC should urge them to study this problem in a systematic manner and design courses and materials to cater to the needs of the students.

II. The Research Problem

Keeping these problems in mind, the author under took up a small research project to study the academic problems faced by M.A. students from the deprived communities and students with a regional medium background enrolled in University departments where the instruction is primarily in English.

Through initial personal interviews through questionnaires (appended) and discussions with such students at his University (EFL-U), Hyderabad he found that these students lacked academic skills. In other words they were unable to do the following:

- read and comprehend their texts and make notes from them,
- listen to lectures and take down notes with discrimination,

- write well-prepared and well-organized essays, papers and reports
- produce well presented answers in exam in various subjects
- express/explain ideas and arguments
- use the dictionary in an efficient way
- organize their study in an effective manner.

Their syllabus did not equip them to handle all these skills in English. All these skills were necessary to cope with the academic demands made by an M.A. programme. The ability to succeed and do well in the MA examinations largely depended on the above mentioned skills.

A possible way of overcoming the situation was to help them organize their academic skills which included academic reading and academic writing, speaking and reference skills. This was done through **a Course in Academic Skills** which helped them with reading, writing, speaking, and reference skills in academic contexts and there was a significant difference in their performance. Since then a course in English for Academic Purposes is on offer as an optional course as part of M.A. programme.

III. Research Method

A micro level analysis of students needs was carried out to study the areas in which students needed real attention. Taking those problems into account detailed lessons were written based on the framework of the outline. A diagnostic test was conducted among the target group of students to know their entry level in the beginning of the semester. Then these materials were trialled with them through the monsoon semester August-November 2008.The class duration was two hour and mostly task based. Students were engaged in doing different tasks on academic skills. These were moderated by the tutor.

IV. Results and Findings

Again an exit level test was conducted and it was found that these materials were quite effective. There was a significant improvement in the target areas. A table showing their improvement (difference) has been appended. Feedback received from students on the course has been very encouraging. Two samples appended. The target group of students (twenty in number) were not segregated from other students but were taught along with other classmates (as the researcher felt that segregation gives rise to stigma). The course has been introduced for the students of M.A. programme at the EFL University, Hyderabad. And it has been made an optional course and being taught regularly. The course out- line and samples of materials have been given below.

Course Outline
(Components)

Unit I: Academic Reading (of different kinds of texts)
a. What is Skimming?
b. How to Skim?
c Scanning
d. What is Scanning?
e. How to Scan?
f. Comprehension Practice (Literary appreciation, information transfer)
g. guessing meaning from contexts, predicting,
h. Understanding main ideas, understanding text organization
Suggested Reading:
Greenall, S. (1986). *Effective Reading Skills for Advanced Learners.* Cambridge: CUP.
Swan, M.(1978). *Understanding Idea: Advanced Reading Skills* . Cambridge: CUP.
Richards, J.C.(2003). *Strategic Reading: Building Effective Reading Skills.* Cambridge: CUP.

Unit II: Academic Writing
a. Note-making from texts
b. Note-taking from Lectures
c. Summarizing
d. Writing an Essay/Paper/Review
Suggested Reading:
Leki, I.(1989). *Academic Writing.* New York: St. Martin Press.
Grellet, F.(2008). *Writing for Advanced Learners*. Cambridge: CUP.
Cholij, M. (2007). *Towards Academic English: Developing Effective Writing Skills.* Delhi: Foundation Books.

Unit III: Reference Skills (Dictionary skills)
a. Using the dictionary

b. How the entries work (Finding headwords)
c. Finding guide words
d. Abbreviations
e. Pronunciation and Spelling
f. Usage

Suggested Reading:

Leancy, Cindy. (2007). *Dictionary Activities*. Cambridge: CUP.

Smith, Mike and Glenda Smith. (1990). *A Study Skills Handbook*. Oxford: OUP.

Tickoo, M.L.(2007). *Teaching and Learning English: A Source Book for Teachers and Learners.* Delhi: Orient Blackswan.

Unit IV: Academic Listening

a. Listening to lectures
b. Comprehending (understanding the main and the subsidiary points
c. Taking notes

Suggested Reading:

Lynch, T.(1983). *Study Listening.*Cambridge:CUP.

Sanabira, K. (2004). *Academic Listening Encounters*. Cambridge: CUP.

Unit V: Speaking for Academic Purposes

a. asking questions in lectures
b. participation in seminar/discussions
c. making oral presentations, answering ensuing questions/points
d. verbalizing data, and giving oral instructions, in seminars/workshop

Suggested Reading:

Bradbury, A. (2006).*Successful Presentation Skills*. Delhi: Kogan Page. Emden, Joan and Lucinda Bechen. (2004). *Presentation Skills for Students*. New York: Palgrave.

Rogerson, Pamela and Judi B. Gilbert.(2004). *Speaking Clearly*. Cambridge: CUP.

Lynch, Tony and K. Anderson.(1992). *Study Speaking.* Cambridge: CUP.

General Reading:

Jordan, R.R.(2004). *English for Academic Purposes.* Cambridge: CUP.

Flowerdew and Peacock.(1994). *Research Perspectives on English for Academic Purposes*. Cambridge: CUP.

Wallace, M.J.(1980). *Study Skills in English*. Cambridge: CUP.

In addition to all these, there are other ways to deal with this problem. Where there is the system of internal assessment through assignments and projects, teachers need to guide these students with a lot of patience and understanding. They need to look at the their assignments with care and appreciate the good points present in the write up and also give feed back at different stages, instead of just awarding a final judgment on it. Their writing process should also be guided properly. Some universities abroad have support centers where students and teachers come forward to help the needy students writing their assignments, proofreading and so on. This task also can be taken up the CELTs. This could be done without making the student conscious of their disability. It is also important to recognize that these students have cognitive ability and skills in their L1. That should be capitalized. And their linguistic ability could be built up.

Efforts should also made to observe learning strategies of high achievers from this section. There are many students who come from this background but do successfully well in their studies. It is worthwhile studying their strategies of study and this may help other students.

V. Conclusion

Students need academic skills to cope with their academic programmes. If they are initiated in these skills they will find it easy to organize their studies in an independent manner. They will not only fair well in the courses they are enrolled in but also these skills will help them in their studies they will take up later. A vast amount of human resource will be empowered. Their future will be safer and brighter.

Notes: SC= Scheduled Castes, ST= Scheduled Tribes, UGC= University Grants Commission, EFL-U=English and Foreign Languages University

Appendix A: Survey

1.Total no. of respondents	40
2. Scheduled Castes/Tribes	30
3. Backward Castes	10
4. From rural areas	22

5. From urban areas		18
6. From regional medium		30
7. From English medium		10
8. No of students who take active part in discussions:	(often)	10
	(rarely)	25
	(never)	05
9. Reasons for not taking part:	(feel shy)	08
	(unable to express in English)	18
	(Does not required)	14
10. No. of students who can read and understand prescribed texts		
	Yes	13
	No	07
	To some extent	20
11. No. of students who have problems in Writing assignments		
	Yes	26
	No	14
12. No of students who can understand lectures		
	Yes	11
	No	08
	To some extent	21
13. No. of students who want to improve their academic English		
	Yes	27
	No	13

APPENDIX B A SAMPLE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This survey is meant for a research paper. Please don't hesitate to supply information. Your identity will be kept confidential. Thank you.

1. Name:
2. Social Status: OC/SC/ST/OBC
3. You are from (a) rural area (b) urban area
4. Your subject:
5. You studied in English medium/ Regional medium before joining the university.
6. What is your average Grade/Marks in your M.A. so far?
7. How often do you take part in classroom discussion?
   a. Often_______________b. Rarely_________c. Never______
8. Do you find it difficult to participate in class discussion/speak in the class ?
   a. Yes____ b. No_____
9. What are the reasons?
   a. I feel shy______b. I lack English c.I don't need to ____
10. Can you read and understand the books and materials prescribed for you?
    a. Yes_____ b. No. _______c. to some extent________
11. Do you find it difficult to write an assignment?
    a. Yes_______ b. No_______
12. If you find it difficult, what are the reasons?
    a. I can't express in writing even though I have ideas___. a. I make mistakes______
13. Can you understand the lectures delivered by your professors?
    a. Yes_____ b.No______ c. To some extent_____
14. Do you want to improve your English to use academic contexts?
    a. Yes______b. No______

APPENDIX C RESULT OF TESTS AND THE DIFFERENCE

Student	Pre-test (100 Marks)	Post-test (100Marks)	Difference
1	45	90	45
2	45	95	50
3	40	90	50
4	45	85	40
5	45	90	45
6	40	90	50
7	45	90	45
8	40	55	55
9	40	90	50
10	45	90	45
11	40	90	50
12	35	85	50
13	35	85	50
14	45	90	45
15	40	85	45
16	35	85	50
17	50	95	45
18	40	90	50
19	40	90	50
20	45	95	50

APPENDIX D APPLICATION

Several tasks on the above mentioned components have been prepared by the researcher. Following task on summarizing is just an example.

SUMMARIZING

Summary is the gist or synopsis of a text. We are familiar with summary of a story or an essay. We summarize things in our day-to-day life. We summarize when we narrate the story of a film we have watched or a book we have read. We summarize when we narrate what all we did during the day or when we narrate an event.

Summarizing is a very important skill for a student. It helps them to store information and use it later. It saves their time. It also helps them to organize their studies. When we summarize, we give a faithful condensed version of the original text. In a summary we should not include our ideas as we do in writing a paraphrase. We also avoid citing examples given in the original text.

The following steps will help you summarize a passage

I. Read the passage carefully and underline the key information.

II. Prepare notes for each paragraph of the passage (text). Use short sentences.

III. Using these notes prepare a draft summary of the passage.

IV. Edit the draft summary and make a final summary of the passage.

Observe how the above mentioned steps have been applied to each of the following passages, to write summaries.

Passage 1

The Learning of language

When someone learns a language, he is not, properly speaking, gaining a knowledge of his environment. Language is no knowledge, but a set of skills. The teaching of it, therefore, must be different from the teaching of a 'content' subject like science… Of course, it is possible to study language or languages in the way we study history or geography or a science- as a 'content' subject, a set of concepts of varying degrees of abstraction. This is the way a linguist studies a language, so that he can analyse and describe it. This, too, requires skill, but it is the sort of skill a scientist needs rather than the language learner: There is many an academic linguist who is capable of giving an excellent description of a language in which he is only a mediocre performer.

The skills of performance and those of description are different, and the most intensive descriptive study of a language does not necessarily lead to an ability to communicate in or understand that language. It may, in certain circumstances, particularly with highly educated adult learners, help to do so, but it is not a necessary or an intrinsic part of learning a language.

Most aspects of everyday behaviour, including language, are learnt to a high degree of skill without any formal teaching. We have all learned, for example, to eat, walk and sleep without having been instructed in the physiological or anatomical aspects of those activities. We were taught them as skills, as behaviour, but not as a body of language.

Languages, then, can be learnt without the learner being given a linguistic description of the language, and learning a language is learning a set of skills. This is now becoming generally accepted, though not yet always acted upon. (310 words)

(S.Pitcorder: *The Visual in Language Teaching* (1966)

Stage II

When someone learns a language, he is not, properly speaking, gaining a knowledge of his environment. Language is no knowledge, but a set of skills. The teaching of it, therefore, must be different from the teaching of a 'content' subject like science… Of course, it is possible to study language or languages in the way we study history or geography or a science- as a 'content' subject, a set of concepts of varying degrees of abstraction. This is the way a linguist studies a language, so that he can analyse and describe it. This, too, requires skill, but it is the sort of skill a scientist needs rather than the language learner: There is many an academic linguist who is capable of giving an excellent description of a language in which he is only a mediocre performer.

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Languages, then, can be learnt without the learner being given a linguistic description of the language, and learning a language is learning a set of skills. This is now becoming generally accepted, though not yet always acted upon. (310 words)

Notes

The Learning of Language

1. Lang not knwldg but skls: itss tchng must be difrnt from tchng content subjects.

1.1 Possible to study lang. as content subj- as done by linguists.

1.2 Linguist analyses and describes a lang.-needs –skls of description.

2. Skls of performance and skls of description are diffrnt. Skls of description to do not necessarily lead to skls of perfomance.

3. Lang. Like other daily habits is lrnt with little frml tchng.

3.1 Lang can be lrnt without giving any descript. of the lang.

3.2 Lang. Lrng. Lrng- leng a set of skls.

Stage III

Draft Summary

Language is not knowledge but a set of skills. Therefore its teaching must be different from teaching other content subjects. It is also possible to study language as a content subject, as done by linguists. A linguist studies a language, analyses and describes it. In order to do this he also needs skills- skills of description. These are different from the skills of performance. The former do not necessarily lead to the latter. Language, like eating and sleeping is learnt without any formal teaching. It can be learnt without the learner acquiring a description of it. It involves learning a set of skills.

Stage IV

Final Summary

Language is not knowledge but a set of skills. Therefore its teaching must be different from teaching other content subjects. It is also possible to study language as a content subject, as done by linguists. A linguist, who studies a language, analyses and describes it, also needs skills- the skills of description, which are different from the skills of performance. The former do not necessarily lead to the latter. Language, like eating and sleeping, is learnt without any formal teaching. It can be learnt without giving the learner a description of it. It involves learning a set of skills.

(96 words)

Notice that

- only the essential points are included in the notes
- the draft summary is written on the basis of the notes and not on the text
- the draft summary is further condensed
- necessary additions or deletions are made so as to make the summary read as a coherent piece of writing- repetitions are avoided
- the original text is about 310 words and the summary is about 97 words- nearly one third of the original.

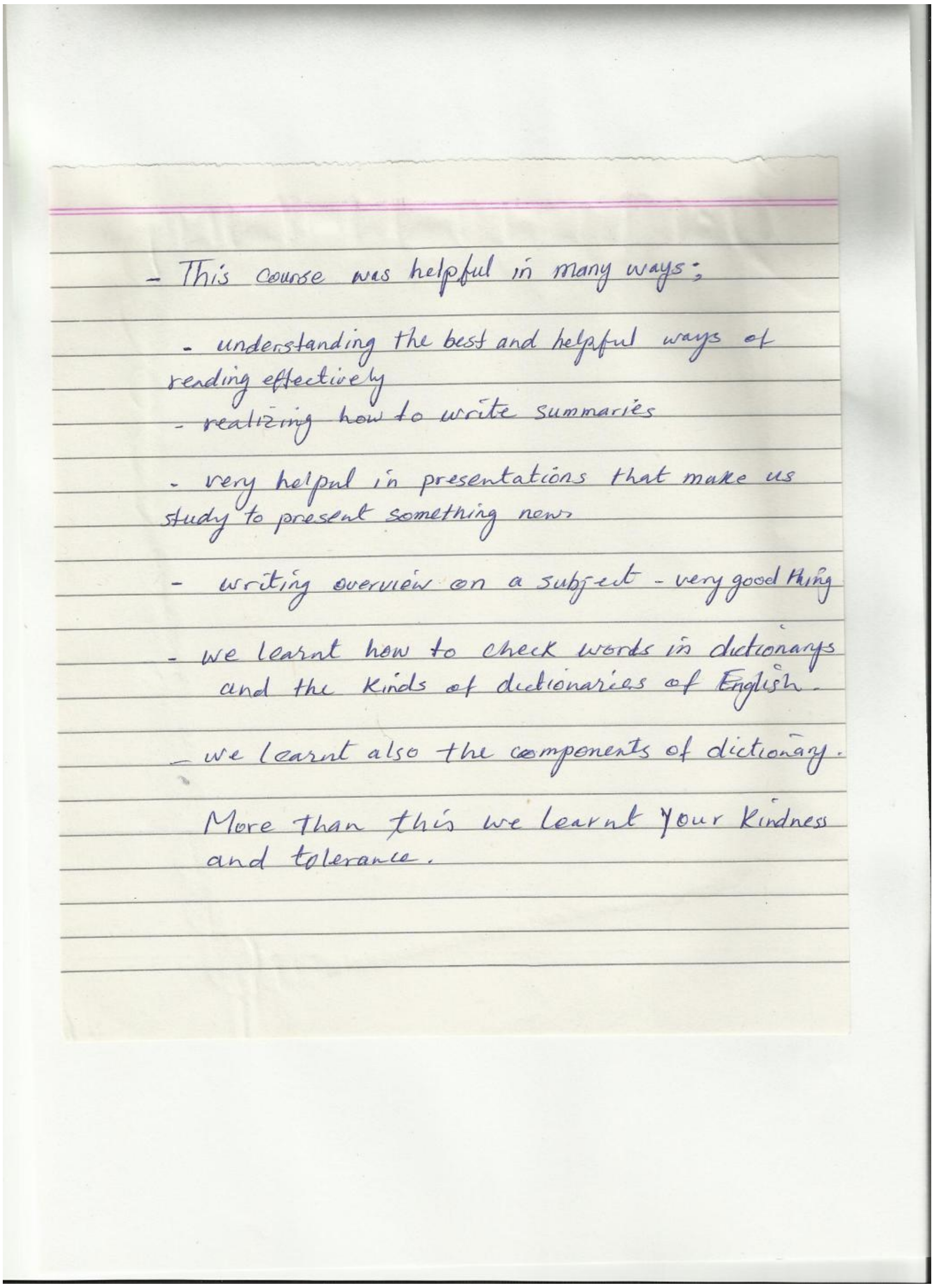
APPENDIX E APPRECIATION

Bhanu
Roll no- 541

EAP ELE-176

classmate
Date
Page

1) EAP course is always necessary for all the learners who come from non-native community. And students who study in CIEFL are from non native background only (maximum) who need to know every aspects of Academic situation or context which could help learners in order to perform well in their academics. EAP course consists of study skills (not all, but maximum) reference skills dictionary skills and allmost all related skills for the students. We are living in communicative age where our primary goal is to communicate (oral, or written) and after coming communicative approach, we felt the need of diffent skills (L, S, R, W) in academic situation. EAP is one of the solution to overcome the problems which a student might face during his/her study. All the skills which was taught in EAP course helpt us to overcome the problem which we face when we come for the study of English language.



- This course was helpful in many ways:

- understanding the best and helpful ways of reading effectively
- realizing how to write summaries

- very helpul in presentations that make us study to present something news

- writing overview on a subject - very good thing

- we learnt how to check words in dictionarys and the Kinds of dictionaries of English.

- we learnt also the components of dictionary.

More than this we learnt Your Kindness and tolerance.

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Anand Mahanand teaches English at the English and Foreign Languages University, Hyderabad, India. He is interested in Materials Development, English for Academic Purposes, Language through Literature and English in Multilingual Contexts. He has published books, materials and articles in these areas. His recent publication (with Lalita Goswami) includes- *English through Folktale* (Viva Books).

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The Effect of Instruction in Pragmatics: Compliments & Compliment Responses

Zia Tajeddin
Allameh Tabataba'i University, Iran
Email: Zia_tajeddin@yahoo.com

Mohammad Reza Ghamari
Allameh Tabataba'i University, Iran
Email: dr_m_rezaghamary2@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—Researchers claim that learners benefit from instruction in compliments and compliment responses in a foreign language context (Ishihara 2003a, 2011; Billmyer 1991). Others have found that a narrow range of syntactic formulas accounted for the majority of observed compliments. This study tries to investigate the learnability of compliments in a formal foreign language context. Also, attempt is made to find whether the formulas obtained lend support to the Asian model of preference for acceptance or rejection strategy as far as compliments and compliment responses are concerned. 40 female students participated in the study and an 18-item metapragmatic assessment questionnaire was administered. The results were examined through a t-test providing some evidence that instruction in pragmatics can make a positive difference in a formal context. Farsi-speaking female students using preference for acceptance strategy, cast doubt on the existence of any sort of strict dichotomy, but claiming that it's a matter of continuum.**

***Index Terms*—pragmatics, compliments, compliment response, questionnaire, foreign language, instruction**

I. Introduction

This article offers the results of a study on the effects of instruction in pragmatics, with the target features being compliments and compliment responses.

Pragmatics is a framework for understanding language use. Focusing on the role of context, O'Keeffe, et al. (2011) hold that there are many means of arriving at a pragmatic understanding of language, ranging from the analysis of texts to philosophical debate.

They assert that the teaching of pragmatics is important for two reasons: "(1) It has been demonstrated that there is a need for it; and (2) quite simply it has proven to be effective" (O'Keeffe, et al., 2011, p.38). In Takimoto's study (2009) those who received instruction concerning polite requests, outperformed the control group.

Research on compliments and compliment responses is largely traced back to the work of Nessa Wolfson and Joan Manes (Wolfson & Manes, 1980; Manes & Wolfson, 1980; Wolfson, 1981a; 1981b; Manes, 1983), which provided the first comprehensive description of the formulaicity of compliments in American English. They found that a narrow range of syntactic formulas accounted for the majority of observed compliments.

An excellent study on compliments and compliment responses conducted by Miles (1994) provides a useful synthesis of existing categories for compliment responses which was the starting point for this study. These categories include acceptance (e.g. Thanks), deflect, (e.g., Anyone can do this), rejection, (e.g., No, it's not really that nice), and no response.

An interesting issue in compliment responses research is that of potential differences across cultures. In the case of compliment responses, several studies which have found a preference for rejecting compliments in Chinese contexts are relevant for this study because this preference would appear to run counter to the prevailing view of the American preference of accepting compliments.

For example, in a study of the compliment responses of native speakers (NSs) of American English and NSs of Mandarin Chinese, Chen (1993) found an overwhelming preference for rejection for the latter (19.73%), while the former employed this option far less frequently (12.7%). In responding to compliments, Americans tended to accept compliments or justify or extend them; Japanese questioned their accuracy, denied them, and explained the reason why they were not deserved, or responded by smiling or saying nothing at all. The closer the relationship was, the more frequently Americans gave compliments especially on appearances, while Japanese were less likely to offer praise. Female speakers in both cultures were more likely to give and receive compliments (Barnlund & Araki, 1985).

II. Research Questions

Two major questions are going to be addressed in this study.

1. Do learning compliments and compliment responses occur in a FL context? In other words, are compliments and compliment responses teachable?

2. Does the study come up with results that lend support to the Asian preferences for accepting, or rejecting compliments?

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Chung-hye (1992) comparing the compliment responses of ten Korean females in English interactions and in Korean interactions, with 10 American females, found that Korean females responded differently when speaking in Korean and English, with little evidence of pragmatic transfer. In Korean, the respondents mostly rejected the compliments (45%), deflecting or evading them in 35% of the cases, and accepting them only in 20%. In English, there was 75% acceptance with only 20% rejection.

Creese (1991) looks at how cultural differences are reflected in five speech acts of the Americans and the Britons: requesting, thanking, apologizing, complimenting, and greeting, paying attention to lexical predictability, compliment responses, syntactic categories, and compliment topic.

In a study done by Daikuhara (1986), ninety-five percent of all responses to compliments fell into the ‘self-praise avoidance’ category, which included rejection of the compliment (35%), smile or no response (27%), and questioning (13%).

Billmyer (1991) conducted a study investigating the effect of instruction on the performance of compliments by two groups of adult Japanese females studying English-as-a-second-language at the University of Pennsylvania. Instruction was shown to have positive effects for learners on five out of seven measures of performance.

Furukawa (2000) illustrates through examples that compliments reflect not only sociocultural values but also personal values and standards, and defines the compliment in consideration of the recipient of the compliment and closeness and status of the interlocutors. Furukawa (2001) believes that compliments directed at someone who is of higher status are considered a face-threatening act in Japanese, yet native speakers use a number of strategies to retain respect and politeness while realizing the act.

Ishihara (2011) introduces classroom instruction on giving and responding to compliments for intermediate ESL learners. In her previous study (2003a), the results had led to the findings indicating that instruction probably facilitated learners' improvement not only in terms of giving but responding to compliments.

The instruction facilitates learners' outside-of-class observation and interaction with other speakers of English. Class discussions encourage learners to consider various situational factors and compare American compliments with those in their native languages, sensitizing them to appropriate use of language and cultural differences. In the study, Ishihara (2003a) explores immediate and delayed effects of formal instruction on giving and responding to compliments in an ESL classroom setting. The instruction, given to 31 intermediate adult ESL learners, facilitated their out-of-class observation and interaction. The results of the analyses lend support to the positive effects of formal instruction in pragmatics reported in previous studies.

The response strategies in the data obtained by Koike (2000) from 326 native speaking subjects were examined separately for interpersonal variables, generations, and gender. The author also came up with her own categorization based on past studies (acceptance, rejection, and neural responses, and sub-strategies in each). Subjects in their 30’s tended to either express thanks (25%), or reject the compliment and offer humble comments (44%), while those in their 60’s mostly responded favorably, often accepting the compliment.

In the above study, gender played a considerable role. Women used rejection, humble comments, and thanks more often than men, while men responded proudly, showing a sense of power and dominancy, or expressed shyness more than women.

Lorenzo-Dus (2001) examined a corpus of over 1000 tokens of compliment responses in British English and Peninsular Spanish in terms of cross-cultural and gender differences. The analysis of the outcome revealed cross-cultural and gender differences.

Rose and Kwai-fun (2001) compared the effects of inductive and deductive approaches to the teaching of English compliments and compliment responses to university-level learners of English in Hong Kong. Results for compliment responses revealed a positive effect only for the deductive group, indicating that although inductive and deductive instruction may both lead to gains in pragmalinguistic proficiency, only the latter may be effective for developing sociopragmatic proficiency.

Using 901 responses to compliments from TV talk shows and authentic conversations, Teroa (1996) focuses on characteristics of compliment responses in Japanese. Compared to Holme (1986) (although the taxonomy is slightly different) where acceptance types occurred 60% of the times, acceptance was found less than a third (30%). Rejection was used much more frequently in Japanese (25%) than in English (10%). By drawing examples and analyzing some lexical items, the researcher points out that even in acceptance types in Japanese, there were humble comments that speakers offered. Speakers also used various other semantic strategies to avoid self-praise and admiration for their family members (e.g., offering negative comments and perspectives).

Rose and Kwoi-fun (2001) point out that more research is needed before any conclusions can be reached concerning cultural preferences for compliment responses, and not all existing studies have found a preference for rejection among

"Asians". They believe that there is conflicting evidence on "Asian" preferences for compliment responses, with several studies indicating some degree of preference for compliment rejection (p.147).

The rationale for examining the effects of instruction in pragmatics is underscored by Schmidt's (1993) contention that simple exposure to the target language is insufficient (Kasper & Rose, 2002). The results of a growing body of interventional pragmatics studies, according to Kasper & Rose (2002) strongly suggest that most aspects of L2 pragmatics are indeed teachable, that instructional intervention is more beneficial than no instruction specifically targeted on pragmatics, and that for the most part, explicit instruction combined with ample practice opportunities results in the greatest gains.

Therefore, in the present study attempt has been made to collect data concerning native speakers of Farsi, as far as and compliment responses are concerned.

This study also tries to examine the effects of instruction in compliments and compliment responses. Bilmyer (1990a, 1990b) was among the first to study the effects of instruction in compliments, finding that although there was an advantage for the instructed group, her participants were able to learn how to compliment in American English with or without instruction.

Bilmyer's learners benefited from the acquisition-rich ESL environment in which they lived. This feature is a key factor in a number of studies on the effects of instruction in pragmatics. The question is whether results similar to those obtained in SL environment would obtain in an FL context.

IV. Methodology

A. Subjects

The samples taking part in this study included 40 female students studying at police women academy with the average age of 21.60. The participants were chosen randomly and were assigned to two groups, control and experimental. Rose and Kwai-fun (2001) point out that research has indicated that gender is an important variable in the use of compliments and compliment responses, so the gender disparity across groups will have to be taken into consideration in interpreting results.

B. Instrument

A metepragmatic assessment questionnaire (MAQ) was used in this study to address the research questions. It contained 18 scenarios according to which the subjects were to choose the correct one out of the four possible compliment responses provided. The answers included a dichotomy: a preference for acceptance or a preference for rejection.

To collect data concerning the subjects' reaction to the compliments offered and to prevent any probable misunderstanding of the scenarios described, also, a translated version of the questionnaire and more explanation about the environment of the situations was given to the subjects.

A pre-test was assigned to both groups, followed by a five-week instruction only for the experimental group.

Then, a post-test was used for both groups. In this stage, in view of any possible misunderstanding of the scenarios described, a translated version of the questionnaire was given to the subjects. More explanation about the environment of the situations was given orally by the researcher.

C. Data Collection

Although Kasper and Roever (2005) note that all questionnaire types, including DCTs, probe into "offline self-reporting states of knowledge or beliefs, multiple choice studies which probe situational routines and implicatures were found to have a satisfactory degree of consistency" (O'Keeffe, et al., 2011, p.27). So, an 18-item questionnaire, containing a scenario for each, was administered. Each scenario was followed by a compliment. For each compliment, 4 kinds of possible compliment responses were given as you might see in a multiple choice test. The participants were asked to choose the correct one out of the four responses. Every correct response scored one with a maximum of 18. An obvious problem here is just what counts as a "correct" response. One way to determine correctness, according to Rose and Kwai-fun (2001), is to simply consider the response of the majority of NSs the "correct response", which is what, was done here. While there are potential problems with this approach, it's the fact that U.S. group scored near perfect (17.47).

Two intact classes took part in this study, each of which was randomly assigned to one experimental group and one control group. The control group received no treatment, but took part in both pre-test and post-test during the same time periods as the experimental group.

The experimental group received instruction in compliments and compliment responses that consisted of 4 lessons lasting for approximately 30 minutes each. Instruction began in week 4 of the semester and continued through week 8.

D. Data Analysis

Participants were asked to choose among the four possible responses to a compliment, provided for a described scenario. These responses belonged to either of the two major compliment response strategies –preference foe acceptance or preference for rejection- along with the option of saying nothing at all, that is opting out. The data that this instrument yields can be analyzed differently. The way which was treated in this study appears not to be complex.

The metepragmatic assessment questionnaire (MAQ) essentially was treated as a compliment response test, allocating one point for each correct response. The mean of correct response were computed for the two groups during pre-tests and during post-tests. The obtained results were compared as displayed in table1.-5. Examining the means of responses for each group reveals some interesting similarities and differences.

To analyze the MAQ, the means for the 2 groups for both pre-test and post-test were computed and compared. To do so, McNamar test was utilized. Table 3 displays the results of MAQ pretest and post test.

E. Results

The two questions motivating the present study provided us with the following results. In order to see whether the two groups of subjects were homogeneous and evaluate the performance of the participants in the two groups, an independent t-test was conducted on their means performances. Table1 shows the results of the t-test in which sig. (.598) was higher than .05, which means that there is no significant difference between the two groups.

TABLE 1
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TESTS BETWEEN CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PriTest	Equal variances assumed	4.754	.035	.532	38	.598	.55000	1.03409	-1.54341	2.64341
	Equal variances not assumed			.532	32.968	.598	.55000	1.03409	-1.55395	2.65395

A paired sample test was administered for both groups to see if there was any change between the performances of the participants in experimental group during pre-test and post test. As table 2 and 3 show, there was a significant difference (sig=.007) between the means obtained by participants in experimental group during pre-test and post test. Lower and upper intervals appear negative, proving a positive effect for the variable employed. Accordingly, the assumed null hypothesis for the first question of the study, no relationship between instruction and learning pragmatics, is rejected

TABLE 2.
THE MEANS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP DURING PRE-TEST AND POST TEST

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	PriTestEx	8.6500	20	3.85630	.86229
	PostTestEx	12.3000	20	3.58506	.80164

TABLE 3
COMPARING THE MEANS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP DURING PRE-TEST AND POST TEST

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair1	PriTestEx - PostTestEx	-3.65000	5.45098	1.21888	-6.20114	-1.09886	-2.995	19	.007

Meanwhile, a paired sample test was administered to evaluate any probable change for the control group; no significant difference was seen. Tables 4 and 5present the results of the paired sample test for control group during pre-test and post test. Sig. (.419) appears more than .05 showing no significant difference.

TABLE 4.
THE MEANS OF CONTROL GROUP DURING PRE-TEST AND POST TEST

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	PriTestCtl	8.1000	20	2.55260	.57078
	PostTestCtl	7.9500	20	2.16370	.48382

TABLE 5.
COMPARING THE MEANS OF CONTROL GROUP DURING PRE-TEST AND POST TEST

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair1	PriTestCtl - PostTestCtl	.15000	.81273	.18173	-.23037	.53037	.825	19	.419

The means of the correct response of compliment responses as presented in the above tables, states that the participants in the present study show a tendency toward acceptance of the compliments.

The results of the overall means of participants' performances in the four tests, pre-test and post test for control group (8.10 and 7.95 respectively) and pre-test for experimental group (8. 65) show that they, as female Farsi-speaking students lend support to the preference for acceptance strategy. The low means obtained show that this tendency is not strict.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study set out to answer two questions. The first question concerned whether learners benefited from instruction in compliments and compliment responses in a foreign language context. The second sought to determine whether Farsi-speaking subjects as speakers of an Asian language use the preference rejection strategy or preference acceptance strategy regarding compliment responses. The results revealed that the female students of this study made use of instruction in learning pragmalinguistics. Also, the participants of this study showed a tendency toward the preference for acceptance strategy, which Asian cultures, Chinese and Japanese, have not tended in previous researches such as Chen (1993).

In sum, this study has provided some evidence that instruction in pragmatics can make a difference in a foreign language context. Also, the results from MAQ (metapragmatic assessment questionnaire) show that Farsi–speaking female students use preference for acceptance strategy. Accordingly, I might conclude that the answer to the second question, based on the overall results especially before any teaching intervention, would support the preference acceptance strategy, rejecting any sort of strict dichotomy. One could not believe in the existence of two specific poles, either mere acceptance or mere rejection of compliment responses. Rather it's a matter of a continuum, confirming the theories recognizing acceptance, inflection and rejection. The results, although, add some evidence to one side of the continuum, they do not reject the other side.

The marked increase in the use of preference for acceptance strategy regarding the experimental group, with no similar increase for the control group, indicates that instruction had a positive effect.

Since it has been proved that gender effect has a significant role in compliment response studies, it could be argued that the results of this study are limited to female Farsi-speaking learners and further research is needed to take male subjects into consideration.

APPENDIX 1

Unit 1 Teaching Compliments and Compliment responses

Lesson 1: Teaching Compliments

Ref.http:// haginsolutions com/ mtouch/?page-id=53

I. Warm up.

When you meet a friend or a relative, it's better to show your feeling if there is a new product, idea or activity.

The purpose of this lesson is to engage students in an activity where compliments are given and received and to discuss the feelings that arise from both situations.

Questionnaire about compliments and compliment responses

Think about compliments that you have given to somebody recently.

1. What were you talking about?
2. Who were you talking to?
3. How well do you know him?

a. very well b. not very well c. not at all
4. What was your relationship to the person?
a. a friend b. a teacher c. a relative
5. How serious was the compliment?
a. very serious b. serious c. not serious
6. What was your situation?
a. home b. work place c, street
7. How did you answer the compliment?
a. very polite b, polite c. rude
define "compliments" by giving a compliment to another student.
state how they felt when giving and receiving a compliment.
complete a paper plate face showing how their face looked when giving and receiving a compliment.

Mini talk 1.

Ref. www.conversation

Listen to the conversation
Marie: You're really fit, Paul. Do you exercise very much?
Paul: Well, I almost always get up very early, and I lift weights for an hour.
Marie: You're kidding!
Paul: No. And then I often go Rollerblading.
(Ref. New interchange,1997 p.35)
Answer the following questions based on the above conversation.
1. What is the topic of this conversation?
a. lift weights b. exercise c. shop
2. What is the relationship of speakers?
a. teacher-student b. friends c. child-parent
3. What did Marie compliment Paulr on?
a. the shoes b. green color c. physical appearance

Mini talk 2.

Ref. englishcafe.wordpress.com

Listen to this short conversation and answer the following questions.
Helen has got 20 in physics.
John: Your physics is great.
Helen: Thanks lot.
1. What was the adjective used in the compliment?
2. Did Helen accept it or reject it?
3. What's your probable answer in the situation?

Lesson 2. Teaching Compliment responses
It really is very nice.

Ref. mssu.edu

Listen to the following conversation.
A&C= daughters
B= mother

A: That's a nice sweater, mom.
B: Thanks.
C: It really is very nice. Where did you get it?
B: I got it at Second Time Around in exchange for the red bag.
A: Oh, you got rid of the red bag?
B: Yeah, well, what else was I going to do with it?
A: But it was a gift from Jean.
B: I know, but that's okay, she wouldn't mind. We're used it enough.
C: Speaking of Jean, how's she doing, I wonder. We haven't heard from her much these days, have we?
B: No, not much, which doesn't surprise me, since she's gone on a whale-watching tour off the coast. She must be traveling in Canada by now.
C: Oh, really? I never knew that! How did I miss such news?
A: You never knew that? Oh, that's right! You were out of town on business the last time she stopped by. Now was it when you were in New York Chicago?

Answer the following questions based on the above conversation.

1. What is the conversation about?
2. Who got the sweater?
3. Where did the mother get it

Listening 2. You're in great shape

www.photosearch.com

Listen to the following dialogue.

Rod: You're in great shape, Keith.
Keith: Thanks. I guess I'm a real fitness freak.
Rod: How often do you work out?
Keith: Well, I do aerobics twice a week. And then I play racquetball.
Rod: Say, I like racquetball, too.
Keith: Oh, do you want to play sometime?
Rod: Uh, … how well do you play?
Keith: Pretty well, I guess.
Rod: Well, all right. But I'm not very good.
Keith: No problem, Rod. I won't play too hard.
Ref. New interchange 1997, p. 37.

Answer the following questions based on the above conversation:

1. Who is in a good shape?
2. What was Keith's reaction to the compliment?
3. What did Rod say?

Lesson 3. Top 6 Compliment Formulas

You're blouse is really beautiful. You're hair looks great! I really like your dress. I love your new apartment. That's a really nice rug. That's a great looking car.

Compliment Response Formulas

Downgrading	Well, I just got it in …, though. It was pretty cheap.
Questioning	Do you really think so?
Shifting credit	Thanks. A friend of mine bought it to me from Oregon.
returning	Thanks. S're you!

I. Phrases and words used to offer compliments

It's usual to pay attention to the feelings of others by offering a compliment.

Example:

Two businessmen are talking after a meeting.

BM1. I thought you did a great job in the meeting just now, John. Your report was very well-done.

BM2. Thanks a lot. I was pretty nervous, though.

Fill in the blanks using appropriate phrase or word in the following dialogue.

Mary: That's a really …. tie you have on tonight. I like it.

John: Thank you. I think you ….. really nice tonight, too.

Mary: Do you think so? This is wonderful place. How did you ever find it?

John: A friend of recommended it. I've been here a couple of times before. It has a …… atmosphere.

Mary: I agree. I must compliment you on your …… taste.

Clarify the offering compliments in the following sentences and put a checkmark next to each.

Your apartment is fantastic.

What a beautiful garden!

Thank you.

How nice you look tonight!

Do you think so?

I'd like to compliment you on your report.

Don't give me that.

Lesson 4. Phrases and words used in compliment responses

Mini talk 1.

Listen to the conversation

Jennifer has already recently bought a pair of shoes.

Sara: Your shoes are really beautiful.

Jennifer: Thanks. I love green shoes.

Sara: Where did you get them?

Jennifer: From the shop next to the post office.

Answer the following questions based on the above conversation.

1. What is the topic of this conversation?

a. post office b. shoes c. shop

2. What is the relationship of speakers?

a. teacher-student b. friends c. child-parent

3. What did Sara compliment Jennifer on?

a. the shoes b. green color c. shop

Phrases and words

Example: A *young man* is talking with the *clerk* at a driving center.

C. Can I help you?
YM: Yes, I want to get a driver's licencse.
C. O.K. Fill out this form and bring it back to me here.
YM. Yes, ma'am. (Later) Here it is, Ma'am.
C. O.K. Let me see … O.K. Everything looks fine…
YM. Wow! You have really nice handwriting
C. Don't try to flatter me, young man. Flattery will get you no where.
YM. I'm not trying to flatter you; I honestly think it's nice ….

A compliment may be accepted or rejected

Clarify whether the following statements accept or reject a compliment.
Thank you.
Don't give me that.
I don't like flatterers.
Nonsense.
Do you think so?
Oh, they're really not very good.
Thank you for the compliment.
Oh, it was nothing.

Discourse completion tasks

Situation 1.

You are at the university, and class has just ended. Your teacher overhears you answering your classmate's questions about how to use the computer. She tells you that you are good with computers.

You say: ………………………………..

Situation 2.

You have just finished having dinner at home that was prepared by `Mrs. White (the mother). You compliment her on the meal.

She says: ………………………………

Situation 3.

You are at university, and class has just finished. While you are putting your books away, your teacher notices your new backpack and says that she or he likes it.

You say: ………………………………..

Communicative Activities

Based on the situations described provide appropriate phrase or word.

1. You are at a party. A friend has just finished singing a song.
You: You've got a nice voice.
Your friend: ……………..

2. A husband and wife are playing golf together! The wife hits a long-iron shot that lands two feet from the pin.
Husband: It was great.
Wife: ………

3. You are going out for dinner with a friend. He/she is very dressed up and looks very nice.
You: ……………….
Friend: Thanks a lot.

Points to consider

#People feel good when they are told nice things about themselves.

The desired behaviour is giving specific compliments such as "Susan, you make beautiful pictures" rather than "you are nice."

#Compliment a student, than ask others to give a compliment to the student.

APPENDIX 2

سلام. خواننده عزیز احتمالا برای نخستین بار است که با این مطالب مواجه می شوید. دقت شما در پاسخ به سوالات و انتخاب نزدیکترین گزینه به انجام تحقیق علمی معتبری کمک میکند. لطفا موقعیتهای تعریف شده زیر را بخوانید و برای سوال خواسته شده پاسخ مناسب بنویسید و سپس گزینه مناسب را با علامت ضربدر مشخص نمایید.

1. الکس (یکی از فرزندان شما) مدیر تجاریست. او امروز برای شغلی پاره وقت در یک شرکت بزرگ سرمایه گذاری مصاحبه دارد. بنابراین بهترین لباسش را پوشیده است. شما از او در باره لباسش تعریف می کنید. چه می گویید؟

در پاسخ شما او کدام گزینه را انتخاب می کند:
الف) تشکر، شما لطف دارید.
ب) چشاتون قشنگ می بینه.
ج) فکر نکنم، هدیه است.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارد.

2. در خانه اید و به تازگی شام را صرف کرده اید. این غذا را خانم وایت(مادر) تهیه کرده بود. از او در باره غذا تعریف می کنید. چه می گویید؟
در پاسخ شما او کدام گزینه را انتخاب می کند:
الف) نوش جان، ممنونم.
ب) چیزی نخوردید که!
ج) گمان نکنم، حتما گشنه ا ت بوده.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارد.
3. شما در دانشگاهید و کلاس تازه تمام شده. معلم می شنود که دارید به بقیه نکات رایانه ای را کمک می کنید. او در باره دانشتان از رایانه تعریف می کند. چه می گوید؟
در پاسخ او کدام گزینه را شما انتخاب می کنید:
الف) تسکر، شما لطف دارید.
ب) واقعا؟ گمان نمی کنم.
ج) نه، آنقدر هم بلد نیستم.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارید.
4. به تازگی گوشی همراه تازه ای خریده اید. وقتی به خانه می رسی کسی جز آقای بوش (پدر بزرگ) آنجا نیست. او تلفن تازه شما را می بیند و از آن تعریف می کند. چه می گوید؟
در پاسخ او کدام گزینه را شما انتخاب می کنید:
الف) ممنون.
ب) قابل ندازه.
ج) فکر نکنم، یه جوریه!
د) پاسخ دیگری دارید.
5. بعد از ظهر یکشنبه است و شما به خانه جف (شاگردتان) می روید تا به او ریاضی یاد دهید. لباس خیلی شیکی پوشیده زیرا تازه از کلیسا برگشته. از تیپش تعریف می کنید. چه می گویید؟
در پاسخ شما او کدام گزینه را انتخاب می کند:
الف) تشکر، ممنونم.
ب) واقعا شیکه؟
ج) نه، فکر نکنم.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارد.
6. تو دانشگاهید و کلاس تازه تمام شده است. همکلاسی شما در کلاس سخنرانی خوبی داشت. از او تعریف می کنید. چه می گویید؟
در پاسخ شما او کدام گزینه را انتخاب می کند:
الف) خیلی ممنون. تشکر.
ب) واقعا جدی میگی!
ج) نظر بقیه که این نبود!
د) پاسخ دیگری دارد.
7. در دانشگاهید و استاد ورقه ای را که دو هفته پیش نوشتید برگردانده است. به محض اینکه آماده رفتن می شوی استاد می گوید که ورقه ات خیلی خوب بوده و تعریف میکند. چه می گوید؟
در پاسخ او کدام گزینه را شما انتخاب می کنید:
الف) خیلی ممنون.
ب) واقعا؟
ج) آنقدر هم خوب نبوده، عجله کردم.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارید.
8. امروزمجبوری سخنرانی مهمی در کلاس داشته باشی، بنابراین بهترین لباست را می پوشی. قبل از اینکه خانه را ترک کنی خانم وایت (مادر)از ظاهرت تعریف می کند. چه می گوید؟
در پاسخ او کدام گزینه را شما انتخاب می کنید:
الف) منونم.
ب) واقعا؟
ج) اینجور به نظر میاد؟ گمان نکنم.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارید.
9. شما به خانه جف (شاگردتان) می روید تا در درس ریاضی به او کمک کنید، می بینی جعبه مداد تازه ای خریده. از ان خوشتان میاد. چه می گویید؟
در پاسخ شما او کدام گزینه را انتخاب می کند:
الف) ممنونم.
ب) قابل نداره.
ج) اما ساخت چینه، عمرش کمه.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارد.
10. شما و الکس (یکی از فرزندان) به دانشگاه می روید تا با هم در استخر انجا شرکت کنید. بعد از اتمام، الکس از شنا کردن شما تعریف میکند. چه می گوید؟
در پاسخ او کدام گزینه را شما انتخاب می کنید:
الف) ممنونم.
ب) جدی که نمیگی؟
ج) یادم رفته قبلا واردتر بودم.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارید.

11. در حالیکه در خانه پیانو تمرین می کنید خانم بوش (مادر بزرگ) می شنود. از پیانو نواختن شما تعریف می کند. چه می گوید؟
در پاسخ او کدام گزینه را شما انتخاب می کنید:
الف) ممنون، لطف دارید.
ب) نه، اینقدرها هم قشنگ نمی زنم.
ج) گمان نمی کنم.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارید.

12. خانم وایت و مادرش، خانم بوش، تازه از خرید برگشته اند. خانم بوش (مادر بزرگ} یک کیف دستی تازه خریده و شما از آن تعریف می کنید. چه می گویید؟
در پاسخ شما او کدام گزینه را انتخاب می کند:
الف) تشکر، خواهش میکنم.
ب) قابل نداره.
ج) عجله ای بود.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارد.

13. در دانشگاه هستی و کلاس تازه تمام شده. در حال جمع و جور کردن کتابها هستی کا استاد متوجه کیف تازه ات می شود و از ان تعریف می کند چه می گوید؟
در پاسخ او کدام گزینه را شما انتخاب می کنید:
الف) تشکر، خواهش میکنم.
ب) قابل نداره.
ج) چشاتون قشنگ می بینه.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارید.

14. سو (دخترتان) به خرید رفت و مقداری طلا خرید. حلقه تازه و قشنگی در دستش می بینید و به او می گویید ...
در پاسخ شما او کدام گزینه را انتخاب می کند:
الف) مرسی.
ب) قابل نداره.
ج) فکر نمیکنم. واقعا قشنگه؟
د) پاسخ دیگری دارد.

15. در پایان هفته شما و همکلاسی هایتان به باغی می روید و آوازی می خوانید. بعد از اینکه تو آواز می خوانی، یکی از همکلاسی هایت از آوازخواندنت تعریف می کند. چه می گوید؟
در پاسخ او کدام گزینه را شما انتخاب می کنید:
الف) ممنون، لطف دارید.
ب) واقعا جدی میگی؟
ج) نه بابا، کنید.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارید.

16. آقای وایت (پدر) امروز قرار ملاقات مهمی دارد، بنابراین بهترین لباسش را پوشیده. قبل از اینکه به سر کار برود از لباسی که به تن دارد تعریف می کنید. چه می گویید؟
در پاسخ شما او کدام گزینه را انتخاب می کند:
الف) خیلی ممنون.
ب) چشاتون قشنگ می بینه.
ج) گمان نمی کنم. از مدش گذشته.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارد.

17. شما به خانه شاگردتان جف می روید تا در درس ریاضی به او کمک کنید. به شما میگوید که در آخرین امتحان ریاضی نمره اش ف شده است. و شما از اینکه اینقدر خوب عمل کرده از او تعریف میکنید. چه می گویید؟
در پاسخ شما او کدام گزینه را انتخاب می کند:
الف) خیلی ممنون.
ب) بدون کمک شما که نمیشد.
ج) خیلی هم مشکل نبود.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارد.

18. بعد از سلمانی به دانشگاه میری و یکی از همکلاسی هایت از اصلاح تازه موی سرت تعریف می کند. چه می گوید؟
در پاسخ او کدام گزینه را شما انتخاب می کنید:
الف) ممنونم.
ب) جدی میگی؟
ج) آنقدر هم قشنگ نشده.
د) پاسخ دیگری دارید.
تشکر (Thank you)

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Zia Tajeddin is the head of the faculty of English Language and Literature at Allameh Tabataba’i University in Tehran, Iran from 2001and an associate professor of TEFL and Adjunct Professor and Postgraduate Committee Member of Sharif University of Technology. At present, he runs Discourse Analysis and Interlanguage(TEFL), Syllabus Design and Material Development(TEFL), Theories of Learning(TEFL) at Ph. D. level and Language Testing(TEFL), Syllabus Design and Mateial Development(TEFL), Theories of Second Language Acquisition: (Linguistics: Teaching Persian to the Speakers of Other Languages), Language Testing (Linguistics: Teaching Persian to the Speakers of Other Languages), Practical Teaching (Linguistics: Teaching Persian to the Speakers of Other Languages), Essay Writing (Translation Studies), Principles of Language Teaching(TEFL) and Teaching Language Skills(TEFL) at M. A. level at a number of universities including Allameh Tabataba’i University. Moreover, he has published many articles, written and translated many books, had many conference presentations, run some conference chairs, supervised many Ph. D. and M. A. Dissertations and Theses. Currently, he is Editor-in- Chief and Committee Member of many Journals and prominent Research Centers.

Mohammad Reza Ghamari Received a B.A. in English Language and Literature from Shahid Beheshti University in Tehran and an M.A. in TEFL from the Islamic Azad University in Najafabad, in 2006. He is currently a Ph.D. student of TEFL at Allameh Tabatab'i University and a faculty member of Police University. As for his professional background, he has taught the English course at various universities. Moreover, he has published a few articles and 5 books.

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Learners' Needs Analysis of a New Optional College English Course—Interpreting for Non-English Majors

Ping Li
School of Humanities, Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, Beijing, China
Email: hopejkl@yahoo.com.cn

Zhihong Lu
School of Humanities, Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, Beijing, China
Email: zhihonglu2002@yahoo.com.cn

***Abstract*—Following rapid social development and educational policy orientation in China, higher institutions are developing new optional courses in English. One of these courses is interpreting for non-English majors (IFNEM), which requires a needs analysis (NA) at the beginning. However, few studies have been found on the NA of an IFNEM, empirical ones in particular. In the limited empirical research, merely sophomore students' needs were surveyed through a single questionnaire, leaving many practical issues to be further explored. To advance the current body of research, the authors of this paper designed a complex structured questionnaire based on Hutchinson and Waters's Framework for Analyzing Learning Needs, delivered it to 104 freshmen and 52 junior students and conducted follow-up interviews with eight of them who had given typical answers in this questionnaire. Such issues were investigated as students' motivation for taking an IFNEM, their anticipated goals and objectives of the course, course entry requirements (if there should be any), selection of teaching content and materials and teaching environments. Results showed that the students highly approved of establishing an IFNEM for mainly Surface Motivation and wished for no entry requirements; however, limited by their current English proficiency, they aimed to improve both interpreting skills and English listening and speaking abilities. This study attempts to offer insights into the curriculum design of IFNEM and other optional courses in English for higher institutions.**

***Index Terms*—curriculum design, interpreting, needs analysis**

I. INTRODUCTION

Following rapid social development and educational policy reorientation in China, a profound reform of College English teaching is now underway. Teaching guidelines have been modified, resulting in a shift in the teaching model from teacher-centeredness to student-centeredness, and a change in the teaching objective from grammatical competence to communicative competence. More obviously, higher institutions are now adjusting, altering and restructuring their English curricula. Colleges are developing new optional courses in English, which leaves the pressing question of how to design them.

The Ministry of Education of China (2007) stipulated in *College English Curriculum Requirements* that "the teaching of College English should follow the principle of providing different guidance for different groups of students and instructing them in accordance with their aptitude so as to meet the specific needs of individualized teaching" (p. 19). To design a course that meets students' specific needs, the first step is performing a Needs Analysis (NA). A NA plays a vital role in designing and carrying out any language course. It is "the best place" to start "when a curriculum is being developed from scratch for a completely new language program" (Iwai et al, 1999, p. 7), so it is especially useful for analysing the needs of a new optional course– Interpreting for Non-English Majors (IFNEM), which many universities have not yet established.

Little research can be found on interpreting in China, and the few studies on interpreting seem to be ill-proportioned. According to Liu & Wang (2007), among the available 161 papers that study interpreting, only one third (31.1%) focus on teaching practices (p. 38), and these studies tend to emphasize teaching methodology more than curriculum development (Wen, 2004, p. 66). A recent overview of the interpreting research in the past decade states that Non-English majors have never been the main subject of research, and empirical approaches have rarely been adopted. In fact, only three studies are of empirical nature in the current literature reviewed by Liu & Wang (2007, pp. 38-39).

Even less research is available on the NA of IFNEM, empirical research in particular. There is only one empirical study conducted by Wang (2009) according to the authors' search through papers published in CSSCI Journals of English language teaching, which offered valuable suggestions on IFNEM through a NA of sophomore students of non-English majors after they had taken an interpreting course for one term (pp. 72-82). However, Wang's study surveyed only sophomore students of Non-English majors, leaving the NA of other grades in the dark. Besides, there are some practical issues to be further explored, which include students' motivation for taking an IFNEM, their anticipated goals and objectives of the course, course entry requirements (if there should be any), and selection of teaching content and materials. Besides, the survey instruments can be improved by using a better-founded questionnaire with more reference to NA theories and more instruments like follow-up interviews. All of these problems are what the authors of this paper intend to solve here.

To address those issues in the NA of IFNEM for other grades with improved instruments, the authors of this paper designed a questionnaire based on NA theories, delivered 156 questionnaires to both freshmen and junior non-English majors in the participating university and interviewed eight students after they had finished their questionnaires. The data analysis shed light on the following questions about the NA of the IFNEM:

1) Is it necessary to set up an IFNEM as an optional College English course?
2) Should there be any entry requirements for this course?
3) What motivation do the students have for taking an IFNEM?
4) What should be the goals and objectives of the IFNEM?
5) What teaching content and materials should be applied?
6) When and where should an IFNEM be held?

II. Literature Review

A. Needs Analysis

Needs Analysis (NA) became well established in the mid-1970s when learner-centered and communication-focused approaches to language teaching were gaining popularity. Deriving from English for Specific Purposes (ESP), NA is applicable to both ESP and English for general purposes. NA is a vital prerequisite for developing a course because "it forms a rational basis for all the other components of a systematic language curriculum" (Iwai *et al*, 1999, p. 7). Its importance in curriculum design has been widely recognized (Yalden, 2000; Brown, 2001; Hutchinson & Waters, 2002; Shu, 2004; Wen, 2004; Ni and Liu, 2006).

A well accepted definition of NA was given by Brown (2001). He defined NA as "the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students"(p. 35). In this definition, the "learning needs" mean "a gap or measurable discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future state" (Berwick, 1989, p. 52). Simply put, they are "the gap between what is and what should be" (Brindley, 1989, p. 63).

B. Target Situation Analysis and Present Situation Analysis

Two situations should be investigated in an NA: the present situation ("what is") and the target situation ("what should be"). Accordingly, Target Situation Analysis (TSA) and Present Situation Analysis (PSA) are suggested.

TSA is "a needs analysis which focuses on students' needs at the end of a language course" (Robinson, 1991, p. 8).While TSA concerns the final results of satisfactory teaching, PSA aims to describe the learners' beginning situations. Since the IFNEM is new and lacks clearly phrased objectives (destination point), its NA should rely heavily on the PSA approach, making the most of the starting point. Moreover, PSA can provide TSA with necessary data on learners' strength and weakness in language, skills, learning experiences (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p. 125), paving the way for a well-informed decision on the destination point.

However, merely adopting the two approaches (PSA and TSA) would not be enough to find "the way" from "what is" to "what should be". Students' learning needs, the needs posed by social development and market demands should also be taken into account. An ideal curriculum design for interpreting (and translation) should have teaching that meets the learners' needs and market demands to the largest extent possible (Li & Hu, 2006, p. 61). The importance of integrating social considerations into the curriculum design has been echoed by other scholars as well (Shu, 2004; Hu, 2005; Zhang, 2007).

C. Needs Analysis Model

The first NA model for language teaching was proposed by Munby (1972), but it is too complex to "be applied in any comprehensive fashion to curriculum design" (Nunan, 2001, p. 149). Based on the Munbian Model, Hutchinson & Waters (2002) created a more applicable framework for analyzing learning needs (pp. 62-63), which the authors of this paper adapted and employed as the theoretical basis for designing the questionnaire (available upon request). The correspondence between the questions in the questionnaire and the items in the framework is illustrated in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
THE AUTHORS' ADAPTED VERSION OF FRAMEWORKS FOR ANALYZING LEARNING NEEDS

The Authors' Adapted version of Hutchinson and Waters's Framework for Analyzing Learning Needs	Related Questions in the Questionnaire
Why are the learners taking the course?	
- compulsory or optional;	Q17, Q3
- apparent need or not;	Q7, Q6, Q11
- Are job prospects involved?	Q5.
- What do learners think they will achieve?	Q18, Q40
- What is their attitude towards the IFNEM course? Do they want to improve their English interpreting skills?	Q26, Q4, Q12, Q19
- What else also accounts for their taking this course?	Q27
How do the learners learn?	
- What is their learning background?	Q7-11. Q13
- What is their concept of teaching and learning?	Q16, Q31
- What methodology will appeal to them?	Q32, Q38
- What sort of techniques are likely to bore/alienate them?	Q39
What resources are available?	
- professional competence of teachers;	Q29-30
- teachers' knowledge of and attitude to interpreting training;	Q28
- materials;	Q35-37
- aids;	Q33
- opportunities for indirect learning of out-of-class activities	Q28
Who are the learners?	
- age/sex/nationality;	Information available
- What subject knowledge do they have?	Information available
- What is their socio-cultural background?	Information available
- What do they know already about Interpreting?	Q13-14
- What are their interests in teaching content?	Q35
- What teaching styles are they used to?	Q31-33
- What is their attitude to English and interpreting skills?	Q4, Q12, Q15
- Should they meet any entry requirements? If so, what requirements?	Q20, Q21
Where will the IFNEM course take place?	
- Are the surroundings pleasant, dull, noisy, cold etc?	Q24, Q25, Q40
When will the IFNEM course take place?	
- time of day;	Q23
- every day/once a week;	Q40
- full-time/part-time;	Q22

III. RESEARCH

A. Participants

The participants consisted of 156 undergraduate students from six classes taught by the authors of this paper at their home university. Among them, there were 104 freshmen students (59 male, 56.7%; 45 female, 43.3%) majoring in E-commerce and Law, Telecommunication Engineering and Management and 52 junior students (28 male, 53.8%; 24 female, 46.2%) of three majors: Japanese, Electronic Engineering, Information and Communication Engineering. The junior students have taken the College English Test (Band-4) (CET-4). Their average total CET-4 scores ranged from 350 to 655 with an average of 533.18; their listening test scores in CET-4 ranged from 60 to 221 with an average of 151.73. Both groups took the questionnaires at the end of their respective school year.

Different from other freshmen, the freshmen participants in this sample attend International School, where all of their subjects are taught in English and their English skills progress faster than students from other schools of the university. In one year they cover what students of the other schools learn in two, so when they took the questionnaire at the end of their first year, they theoretically had the language proficiency of sophomores. Therefore their responses could reflect to some extent the needs of average sophomore students as well as intermediate and advanced learners among freshmen in other schools.

B. Instruments

Three instruments were used in this study.

1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire (available upon request) was designed to analyze students' target needs (goals and objectives) and learning needs with special attention to their motivation, after surveying the necessity of establishing IFNEM. As mentioned before, the theoretical basis of the questionnaire was the authors' adapted version of Hutchinson and Waters's Learning Needs Framework (see Table 1).

In this questionnaire there were 41 questions in total, covering students' motivation, their present learning situation, their expectations on learning goals and objectives, teaching content, materials, and the teachers as well as other things. Among all the questions, 36 have open-ended constructions, allowing for a fill-in option after multiple choices. The questionnaire also contains tasks to put items in order of importance or preference.

The questionnaires were delivered and completed on line using a web-based English language training and research system, "Rofall." This system enables researchers to design complex structured questionnaires and obtain immediate results in excel format once the participants have finished all the questions. All the 156 questionnaires were collected and counted valid.

2. Data from a research report

In order to analyze social demands for an IFNEM, the authors of this paper utilized statistics from a macro investigation ("Report on constructing an undergraduate program for translation majors") done by School of Foreign Languages, Huazhong University of Science and Technology in 2009.

3. Focus group discussion and follow-up interview

The authors of this study held a focus group discussion with all of the 156 students in class immediately after they had submitted responses. The class discussion focused on the necessity of this new optional course. After scanning each student's responses of the questionnaire in the "Rofall" system, the authors interviewed eight students (four freshmen and four junior students) who had given typical or interesting answers. The interview lasted for 15 minutes each, exploring mainly their English backgrounds, general expectations on an IFNEM and reasons to give particular answers.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Need for an IFNEM

Both Students' written and oral answers supported the establishment of an IFNEM as an English optional course. As shown in Table 2, 75% said it was necessary to set up an IFNEM, and about 18% attached extremely high importance to this course. Only 7.69% didn't consider the course very necessary. Their reasons, according to the follow-up interview, are three-pronged: lack of interest, no future use and being incapable of interpreting with limited English abilities. On balance, these findings confirm the necessity to open IFNEM as an optional course of College English, meanwhile point out the need to tailor the course to non-English majors who have relatively low English proficiency.

TABLE 2.
NECESSITY OF ESTABLISHING AN IFNEM

Question 17: What's your opinion on establishing an optional English course— Interpreting for non-English majors?	
Items	Percent
Vitally necessary	17.95
Necessary	57.05
Not so necessary (Please give your reason)	7.69
Not necessary at all (Please give your reason)	0.64
I don't know how necessary this course is	15.38
Other (Please specify:____________)	1.28

The need for IFNEM is more than obvious from the social context, when looking at the growing market demands for qualified interpreters and limited options for interpreting training. Statistics collected by the School of Foreign Languages, Huazhong University of Science and Technology in 2009 showed that among 40,000 professional translators and interpreters and 500,000 practitioners of related fields, as many as 90 percent were unqualified. There has been an urgent need for interpreters with both professional interpreting skills and strength in a certain field.

In fact, non-English major students have great potential to become such professional interpreters, because background knowledge, or subject knowledge, plays an integral part in the comprehension process of interpreting. The importance of background knowledge has been illustrated in Gile's Comprehension Equation of Interpreting (1995, pp. 80):

$$C=KL+ELK+A, \tag{1}$$

in which "C" stands for comprehension, "KL" is for "knowledge of the language", "A" means the active analysis of the interpreter, and "ELK" refers to "extra-linguistic knowledge" like subject knowledge. In fact, many members of the AIIC[1] are not English majors. Non-English majors with sound language proficiency often outperform English majors in interpreting practices, thanks to their abundant knowledge in certain fields. Therefore, non-English major students need to have access to interpreting training to tap their potential.

1 AIIC: International Association of Conference Interpreters, the most authoritative organization of professional conference interpreters

Presently there are only limited choices for interpreting training—within universities, such training mainly targets English majors, involving undergraduate programs for students who major in Translation and Interpretation and graduate programs for interpreting degrees in English departments. Off campus, interpreting training is offered by some companies, but those programs are yet to be standardized in both price and quality. This training needs to be expanded and revised to cover non-English major students. A possible solution is to offer courses like IFNEM.

In addition, IFNEM is also in line with the goals of College English set by the Ministry of Education of China: "to develop students' ability to use English in a well-rounded way, especially in listening and speaking" (Department of Higher Education, 2007, p. 18). Interpreting is communicative in nature, so the course can enhance students' listening and speaking abilities aside from interpreting skills, as believed by the overwhelming majority of participating students (92.94%) (See Table 3).

TABLE 3.
BELIEFS ON THE IMRPROVEMENT OF LISTENING AND SPEAKING SKILLS FROM IFNEM

Question 18. If such a course is offered, what influences do you believe the course would have on improving your English listening and speaking abilities?	
Items	Percent
It would be of great help.	23.71
It would be very helpful.	25.00
It would be helpful.	44.23
It would be useless.	1.28
It would have a negative impact.	0
I am not sure whether it would be helpful.	5.78
Other (Please specify:_ _)	0

B. *Entry Requirements of IFNEM*

Interpreting is "a practice requiring comprehensive capabilities including observing, listening, speaking, writing and reading" (Mei, 2000, p. 8), especially mastery of listening and speaking abilities. For English majors, interpreting courses are not opened until the third or fourth year of undergraduate programs, when they become "ready" with better English proficiency. Non-English majors, on the other hand, seem to be less prepared due to insufficient training of English listening and speaking skills. Therefore the authors suggested the use of entry requirements and asked students for their opinions.

Only about two thirds (63.46%) approved of a threshold score for IFNEM (Table 4). The rest (36.54 %) disagreed, among which freshmen opposed more strongly, giving comments like "WE WERE BORNED EQUALLY! (sic)"–fairness of education was one major concern that both grades shared (77.14%) according to their written comments. Another reason was that they hoped their interest in interpreting to be considered (45.71%). Three freshmen in the follow-up interviews expressed the worry that their low scores in entry exams of IFNEM might deny their chance to take this course, yet they had genuine interest in learning interpreting. One junior student said what an IFNEM should teach was merely learning method, which wouldn't require high language proficiency, so there should be no entry requirements.

TABLE 4.
WHETHER TO HAVE ENTRY REQUIREMENTS FOR IFNEM

Question 20: Do you think there should be threshold scores for admission to Interpreting for non-English majors?		
Items	Agree	Disagree(Please specify:_______)
Percent (total)	63.46	36.54
Percent(freshmen)	62.50	37.50
Percent(Juniors)	65.39	34.61

Despite the ideal of equal accessibility to this course, 53.85% didn't think they were ready to take an IFNEM with their present English listening and speaking abilities, and 12.18% gave negative answers to this question, as seen in Table 5. Interestingly, freshmen were more confident—there were fewer freshmen (10.58%) who gave a resolute "No" answer compared to juniors (15.38%). However, this might be related to freshmen's less certainty about their own English proficiency (11.54%), compared with older students (7.69%).

TABLE 5
READINESS TO TAKE IFNEM WITHOUT ENTRY REQUIREMENTS

Question 13: Do you think you are fully prepared to learn interpreting skills with your present English listening and speaking abilities?			
Items	Percent (total)	Percent (juniors)	Percent (freshmen)
I think so.	19.87	19.23	20.19
Not right now, But I would like to try after I improve my English listening and speaking abilities.	53.85	55.77	52.88
No.	12.18	15.38	10.58
I don't know, but want to give it a try.	3.85	1.92	4.81
I don't know and I don't want to try.	10.27	7.69	11.54
Other (Please specify:___________)	0	0	0

Having IFNEM accessible to every student might be an ultimate aim, but in reality it would be too difficult to ensure satisfactory education for students with diverse needs, since a large class size and students' various English backgrounds would pose a great challenge to teaching efficiency and effects, as proved by Wang's empirical study (2009, p. 78). With the limited teaching resources in China at present, a more realistic and convenient solution seems to be adopting entry exams or a placement test, so as to facilitate teaching and ensure learning achievements.

Students who approved of entry requirements were polled on types of entry exams. As seen in Table 6, most of them preferred either an oral English test before class (40.38%) or a listening test of CET-4 (21.15%); around one third (30.76%) advised CET-4 total scores and an interpreting test before class. Moreover, 11.54% of respondents suggested other factors to be referred to, like learners' learning motivation and class performance in other courses. As for the threshold marks of entry exams, students were asked to put down a number from 1 to 100. Their answers ranged from 60 to 80, with an average of 71.33 for the speaking test before class and 73.75 for the listening test of CET-4.

TABLE 6
PREFERRED ENTRY EXAMS FOR IFNEM

Question 21: If there should be threshold scores for this course, which exam scores should be taken into consideration? (Multi-answer)	
Items	Percent
Oral English test before class	40.38
Listening test of CET-4	21.15
CET-4	15.38
Interpreting test before class	15.38
Other (Please specify:___________)	11.54

There is no consensus among teachers on which entry exam to select for an IFNEM. Chi (2007) recommended CET-4 on the grounds that passers of CET-4 were supposedly with adequate English vocabulary, listening and speaking abilities (p. 126). However, Guo's empirical study on IFNEM for graduate students (2009) proved CET-6 to be a proper measurement. The authors of this paper would suggest CET-4 plus a listening & speaking test before class. In fact, no matter what exam to take, it should be valid and reliable, capable of assessing students' comprehensive ability to use English, especially listening and speaking skills. As for the exact score of the entry requirements, more research, empirical study in particular, is called for in the future.

C. Motivation

Analyzing motivation is critical in a NA of a language curriculum because motivation strongly influences learners' learning needs (Ni and Liu, 2006, p. 22). According to Biggs (1987), motivation can be categorized into Surface Motivation (Instrumental Motivation) and Deep Motivation. Surface Motivation "is to meet requirements minimally; a balancing act between failing and working more than is necessary". Deep Motivation is "intrinsic interest in what is being learned; to develop competence in particular academic subjects" (p. 3). In other words, Surface Motivation is extrinsic by nature and related to one's future, while Deep Motivation is intrinsic and usually without direct link to one's future or economic interests, like one's interest in the language and culture (Wen, 2001, p. 105).

Students' motivation for learning English and interpreting were both surveyed. Data in Table 7 indicate that the students' motivation for learning English was mainly instrumental (74.37% in total, items C, D and F) while their Deep Motivation accounted for only 10.9 % (Item A). The students' dominant motivation for learning English was to enhance comprehensive ability (36.54%) and to become more competitive in the job market (34.62%). These findings were consistent with their motivation for taking an IFNEM course—to increase their comprehensive ability, especially listening, speaking and communicative abilities (Table 8, 69.23%, Item B and E), and to prepare for future use of interpreting skills, as 76.92% of them (Table 9) contained interpreting in their possible occupations after graduation.

TABLE 7
MAIN PURPOSES TO LEARN COLLEGE ENGLISH

Question 3: Your main reason/purpose to learn English in college is:	
Items	Percent
A. I love English and am very interested in learning English	10.90
B. I need to communicate with others in English in daily life	11.54
C. To improve my comprehensive ability	36.54
D. To become more competitive in the future (job-hunting, going abroad, etc.)	34.62
E. No special purpose, have to learn English in college	3.21
F. To get the credits of English courses and be able to graduate	3.21
G. To meet the expectations of my family	0
H. To win the acclaim of the teacher and fellow students	0
I. Other (Please specify:___________)	0

TABLE 8
STUDENTS' MOTIVATION FOR TAKING AN IFNEM

Question 19: If you select this course, you would do so mainly for:	
Items	Percent
A. Learning interpreting skills and self-training methods of interpreting.	17.31
B. Improving English listening and speaking abilities through interpreting exercises.	47.44
C. Preparing for interpreting tests, to be more competitive in job-hunting with a certificate of interpreting.	4.49
D. Enhancing cross-cultural communicative ability.	8.33
E. Promoting English communicative ability.	21.79
F. Other (Please specify:___________).	0.64

TABLE 9
CAREER PLANNING NEEDS

Question 5: Is interpreting one of your possible occupations after graduation?	
Items	Percent
Definitely	21.79
Probably	55.13
Probably not	14.10
Definitely not	4.49
Don't know	4.49
Other (Please specify:___________)	0

It comes as no surprise that these Non-English major students had a pragmatic attitude towards IFNEM. Research on motivation of Chinese non-English major students has proved that they learn English courses mainly for Surface Motivation (Qin, 2002; Tang, 2005); while English major students have more Deep Motivation (Gao *et al*, 2003a, p. 36), which grows over school years (Wen, 2001, p. 106).

Since non-English major students' motivation is more extrinsic than intrinsic, the teaching goals, objectives, content, and materials of IFNEM should be adjusted accordingly, different from those of interpreting course for English majors. In addition, IFNEM should also attempt to increase students' Deep Motivation, which plays a more significant role in learning than Surface Motivation, with its greater influence over learners' learning beliefs, strategies (Wen, 2001, 9. 109) and involvement (Gao *et al*, 2003b, p. 36).

D. Goals and Objectives

Motivated by extrinsic factors, the students prioritized improvement of English listening, speaking abilities (47.44%) and communicative ability (21.79%) in the goals and objectives of an IFNEM, and considered interpreting skills of secondary importance–only 17.31% listed it as the primary goal (See Table 8 above). This is because, according to respondents' written and oral responses, some of them were not fully prepared to practice interpreting due to their limited listening and speaking abilities. Nevertheless, many stated that they would like to learn interpreting skills for future use and believed IFNEM should be useful to enhance other English skills. It seemed that interpreting in their opinions were icing on the cake while listening and speaking abilities more fundamental.

Students' emphasis on listening and speaking abilities can be explained by analyzing data from Table 10 and Table 11. Among English skills, students regarded speaking and listening skills to be the most important, with percentages of 46.79 and 39.74 respectively (Table 10). However, these two crucial skills were also their weakest. The combined percentages of students who chose listening and speaking as their first, second and third weakest skills were 48.08 and 55.77 respectively (See Table 11). That may account for their preferences on improving the two skills first.

TABLE 10
MOST IMPORTANT ENGLISH SKILLS

Question 6: How important are the following skills to you? Please put them in order of Importance.						
Items	Order of Importance					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Listening	39.74	46.79	8.33	3.21	1.92	0.00
Speaking	46.79	36.54	10.26	5.13	0.64	0.64
Reading	8.33	8.33	39.10	24.36	13.46	7.05
Writing	1.92	3.21	11.54	42.95	21.15	18.59
Translation (in written form)	0.00	2.56	4.49	8.97	35.26	48.72
Interpreting (oral translation)	3.21	2.56	26.28	15.38	27.56	25.00

TABLE 11
WEAKEST ENGLISH SKILLS

Question 7: Which skills are you weak at? Please put them in order (the first one being your weakest):						
Items	Order of Weakness					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Listening	10.26	17.95	19.87	12.18	21.79	18.59
Speaking	19.23	20.51	16.03	18.59	15.38	9.62
Reading	2.56	5.13	5.77	15.38	18.59	50.64
Writing	10.90	11.54	17.31	21.79	23.72	14.74
Translation (in written form)	3.21	25.64	23.08	27.56	17.95	3.21
Interpreting (oral translation)	53.85	19.23	17.95	4.49	2.56	3.21

However, this does not necessarily mean that they had little intention to learn interpreting. In Table 11, the majority of them (91.03%) saw interpreting their first, second and third weakest skill. Most participating students expressed their desire to learn fundamental knowledge and general skills of interpreting in the written responses to an open-ended question on learning goals. Undoubtedly an IFNEM should focus on interpreting training, preparing students for practical needs of interpreting in the future.

To summarize, to meet the needs of non-English majors, the goals and objectives of an IFNEM should be double-fold: to improve both students' interpreting skills as well as English listening and speaking abilities in accordance with their present language proficiency. These goals also agree to some extent with the objectives of the College English curricula for non-English majors, i.e., to improve students' comprehensive ability, especially listening, speaking and communicative ability (Department of Higher Education, 2007, p. 18).

E. Teaching Content and Materials

With these goals and objectives, students anticipated to learn teaching content that integrated training of both interpreting and other English skills. As for what aspects to learn in interpreting, students preferred those they deemed more useful and interesting. Seen from Table 12, they had preference for interpreting skills and practices (with a combined percentage of 89.66) and application of translation software (72.41%), while exhibiting less interest in a brief introduction to interpreting (65.51%), which was believed to be less important (5.17%) as demonstrated in Table 13.

TABLE 12
NEEDS ANALYSIS ON TEACHING CONTENTS

Question 35: What would you like to learn in this course? (You can choose more than one answer)		
Items	Number	Percent
Interpreting skills	52	89.66
Interpreting practices	52	89.66
Application of translation software	42	72.41
Brief introduction to interpreting	38	65.51
Others	0	0

TABLE 13
MOST IMPORTANT ELEMENTS OF TEACHING CONTENTS

Question 35: What would you like to learn in this course? (multi-answers) (please put down your answer in the order of importance, the first choice being the most important)		
Items	Number	Percent
"Interpreting skills" as the first choice	27	46.55
"Interpreting practices" as the first choice	26	44.83
"Brief introduction to interpreting" as the first choice	3	5.17
"Application of translation software" as the first choice	1	1.72

Specifically, in terms of teaching materials for interpreting practices (Table 14), students favored easier materials which were appropriate for their English abilities and more likely to be used in the future, including those for general purposes (24.36%) and daily conversations (23.72%). They accepted to learn selected materials in classic textbooks (20.51%) but showed little interest in interpreting famous people's speeches and talk shows (both 12.82%), which appeared more difficult and less relevant to their future work.

TABLE 14
MATERIALS PREFERRED IN INTERPRETING PRACTICES

Question 37: What materials do you prefer to use in interpreting practices?	
Items	Percent
Materials containing general interpreting circumstances, like tourism, foreign affairs, accompany interpretation.	24.36
Daily conversation	23.72
Selected materials in classic textbooks	20.51
Famous people's speeches	12.82
Talk show of celebrities	12.82
Other (Please specify: ________)	3.21
Materials for simultaneous interpretation	1.28
More difficult Materials, i.e. Premier Wen's press conference	1.28

Besides interpreting knowledge and skills, around 70% agreed to have class activities in order to improve their basic English abilities (Table 15). It can be seen from Table 16 that they hoped to improve pronunciation (42.5%), listening (35%) and speaking skills (22.5%). This is related to their English education history: unlike English majors, they usually have no separate course on English pronunciation and intonation and fewer chances to practice English listening and speaking skills, which leads to their less confidence in these abilities.

TABLE 15
NEEDS ANALYSIS ON OTHER ENGLISH SKILLS

Question 36: Do you agree that the teacher should include in class training activities aiming to improve students' basic English skills (such as, pronunciation, listening, speaking, etc)?	
Items	Percent
Agree	68.97
Disagree	31.03

TABLE 16
ENGLISH SKILLS THAT NEED IMPROVING

Question 36.1: If you need the teacher to carry out activities in class to help you improve English pronunciation, listening and speaking abilities, which abilities do you need in particular (multi-answers)?		
Items	Number	Percent
Pronunciation	17	42.50
English listening ability	14	35.00
English speaking ability	9	22.50

However, about one third (31.03%) disapproved of class activities designed for this purpose (Table 16). A major reason given by one junior interviewee was that those activities were unnecessary for advanced learners, who aspired to learn something beyond fundamentals. Another reason was that those skills could be honed by students independently after class, utilizing readily available Internet resources and computer software; the class time was too precious to be wasted on those activities.

F. Scheduling and the Teaching Environment

For universities planning to establish IFNEM, a practical issue is when to start it and what teaching environment it requires. Based on his teaching experiments, Wang (2009) advised to start IFNEM in the second term of the sophomore year after students had finished a preparatory course "Translation for non-English majors" (pp. 80-81). Different from his suggestion, the students surveyed hoped to have an IFNEM in the first term of the second year (juniors, 42.31%) or the first term of the first year (freshmen, 28.85%) (See Table 17).

TABLE 17
SCHEDULING OF OFFERING THE IFNEM

Question 22: When is it most appropriate to offer this course?			
Items	Percent (total)	Percent (juniors)	Percent (freshmen)
The 1st term of the 1st year	15.38	8.65	28.85
The 2nd term of the 1st year	9.62	10.58	7.69
The 1st term of the 2nd year	30.77	42.31	7.69
The 2nd term of the 2nd year	16.03	19.23	9.62
The 1st term of the 3rd year	15.38	12.5	21.15
The 2nd term of the 3rd year	5.13	0.96	13.46
The 1st term of the 4th year	4.49	0.96	11.54
The 2nd term of the 4th year	0	0	0
Other (Please specify:______)	3.21	4.81	0

The freshmen's wish to open this course in the first year is related to their better English proficiency, higher motivation and ambition as well as time constraints in other school years. As mentioned before, the freshmen surveyed were from International School, where they had more chances and higher motivation to learn English. In one year they covered what students of other schools learned in two, so they were more confident about their English proficiency. Besides, according to the class discussion, most of International School students aspired to go abroad after graduation, so they had higher motivation for learning English and hoped to take more English courses as early as possible. Another outstanding reason lied in their busy scheduling in other school years. The follow-up interviews revealed that students of Science or Engineering majors were usually busiest with their own subjects in the sophomore year, preventing them from taking optional courses. However, being highly-motivated and confident language learners, they would love to take the opportunity to learn interpreting. So they expressed the wish of having IFNEM at the beginning of freshmen year when they had more free time.

Taking students' opinions into account, the authors of this paper believe that IFNEM should be started with a careful consideration of the overall curricula and students' specific English backgrounds. When to open IFNEM depends on the students' English proficiency levels other than their grades. With college students' increasing English abilities thanks to their previous English education, it is of feasibility to open IFNEM in the freshman year. For this idea, more empirical studies need to be carried out.

In terms of the appropriate time to conduct IFNEM, the two groups put priority on the first evening class (18:30—20:30 p.m., 48.72%), the first morning class (08:00—10:00 a.m., 19.23%) and the second morning class (10:00—12:00 a.m., 16.03%) (See Table 18). Three junior students and two freshmen students reported that they chose morning and evening because they were usually free in the evening and more energetic in the morning.

TABLE 18
SCHEDULING OF CONDUCTING THE IFNEM

Question 23: When is it most appropriate to conduct this course?			
Items	Percent (total)	Percent (juniors)	Percent (freshmen)
18:30—20:30 p.m.	48.72	23.08	61.54
08:00—10:00 a.m.	19.23	44.23	6.73
10:00—12:00 a.m.	16.03	21.15	13.46
15:30—17:30 p.m.	8.97	9.62	8.65
13:30—15:30 p.m.	4.49	1.92	5.77
Other (Please specify:)	2.56	0	3.85

In agreement with Wang's findings (2009), the paramount class size according to the students is around 20 as indicated in Table 19. Larger class sizes were also acceptable, like classes of about 30 (10.9%) and 40 (11.54%).

TABLE 19
NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN AN IFNEM CLASS

Question 24: The number of students enrolled in this course should be fewer than___.			
Items	Percent (total)	Percent (juniors)	Percent (freshmen)
24	31.41	50	22.12
16	28.21	32.7	25.96
8	14.1	5.77	18.27
40	11.54	5.77	14.42
32	10.9	5.77	13.46
Other (Please specify:_______________)	3.85	0	5.77

There are some basic requirements on the teaching environments as Table 20 suggests. A language lab (61.54%), multi-media facilities (60.98%), and computers with access to the internet (43.59%) were advised. What's worth noticing is students' emphasis on movable tables and chairs, which many language labs do not have, yet they are very useful in facilitates communication and the simulations of real situations of interpreting.

TABLE 20
THE TEACHING ENVIRONMENT AND FACILITIES OF IFNEM

Question 25: The teaching environment and facilities should include：(You can choose more than one answer)			
Items	Percent (total)	Percent (juniors)	Percent (freshmen)
Language lab	61.54	67.31	58.65
Multi-media facilities	60.9	67.31	57.69
Movable tables and chairs	47.44	44.23	49.04
Computers with access to the Internet	43.59	48.08	41.35
Other (Please specify:_______________)	3.85	0	5.77

V. CONCLUSION

From the analysis above, we can conclude that it is highly necessary to set up an IFNEM as an optional College English course due to social demands and students' needs. Despite the students' ideal to have equal access to an IFNEM without entry requirements, a more realistic solution might be having entry exams or a placement test, utilizing well validated and reliable instruments to assess their English proficiency, especially listening and speaking abilities. Further experiments will be needed to determine which tests to take and what the threshold marks should be.

Since students would take IFNEM mainly for instrumental motivation and some of them are not fully prepared to practice interpreting with the current English backgrounds, the teaching goals and objectives of IFNEM should be improvement of both interpreting skills and other language abilities, English listening and speaking abilities in particular. In interpreting practices, the authors recommend materials related to the students' own majors so as to tap their potentials to become interpreters with strength in a certain field. As for exercises of English listening and speaking, they should be included in class, but to a limited degree and mainly be done by students independently after class.

Students hoped to take an IFNEM in their freshmen and sophomore year, on the grounds of their better language proficiency, higher motivation and time constraints in other school years. They agreed to have IFNEM either in the evening or in the morning, when they were usually free and more concentrated. They also expected an IFNEM class of small size, with around 20 students being the ideal and 40 at its worst. The teaching environments were expected to have facilities including multi-media appliances, computers and movable tables and chairs, which can facilitate communication and simulation of real interpreting situations.

This study is based mainly on students' needs. However, due to practical reasons, it lacks analysis on the needs from other sources, such as teachers, experts, administrators, employers, institutions, and nations, whose needs "may also have a bearing on the language teaching and learning situation" (Brown, 2001, p. 20). The data on the needs of the society in this paper is secondhand and requires updating, which calls for a more authoritative and comprehensive survey done by joint efforts.

The NA of IFNEM is a continual process. This paper focuses on students' initial needs, while their ongoing needs are yet to be discovered during the practice of teaching. Moreover, in the future NA of an IFNEM, more approaches are advised, like Pedagogic Needs Analysis and Deficiency Analysis (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, p. 125).

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Ping Li was born in Weifang, Shandong Province in 1982. She received her M. A. degree of Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics at Nankai University, Tianjin, China in 2007.

She is currently a Lecturer in School of Humanities, Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, Beijing, China. Her research interests include computer-assisted language learning, English language teaching and translation & interpretation.

Zhihong Lu was born in Urumchi, Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region in 1963. She received her B. A. degree of English Education from Capital Normal University, Beijing, China in 1985. She attended the Graduate Training Program at Beijing Foreign Studies University during 1993-1994, specializing in applied linguistics.

She is currently a Professor and Supervisor of master students in School of Humanities, Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications, Beijing, China. Her research interests include applied linguistics, especially, computer-assisted language learning, language teaching, and sociolinguistics.

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Henrik Ibsen's *A Doll's House*: A Postmodernist Study

Noorbakhsh Hooti (corresponding author)
English Department, Faculty of Arts, Razi University, Kermanshah, Iran
Email: nhooti@yahoo.com

Pouria Torkamaneh
English Department, Faculty of Arts, Razi University, Kermanshah, Iran
Email: pouriatorkamaneh@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—Henrik Ibsen is deemed as one of the major Norwegian playwright of the late 19th century who introduced to the European stage a new order of moral analysis that was placed against a severely realistic middle-class background and developed with economy of action, penetrating dialogue, and rigorous thought. Most of his literary works are often dissected from a modernist perspective; however notions like women's emancipation, irony, and conflict, have paved the path for critics to survey his works from various angles and terms. This paper tends to lay stress on the postmodernist dimensions of Henrik Ibsen's *A Doll's House*, a play which manifests different aspects of modernism as a common feature of Ibsen's works; nevertheless, demonstration of different notions of postmodernity cannot and will not be repudiated in the play.**

***Index Terms*—postmodernism, modernism, irony, feminism, conflict, deception and truth**

I. Introduction

Those who have just read *A Doll's House* for the first time are suspected to have little trouble forming an initial sense of what it is about, and, if past experience is any guide, many will quickly reach a consensus that the major thrust of this play has something to do with gender relations in modern society and offers us, in the actions of the heroine, a vision of the need for a new-found freedom for women (or a woman) amid a suffocating society governed wholly by unsympathetic and insensitive men. It is frequently argued that the play's theme is not women's right or emancipation, but rather the need of every individual to find out the kind of person he or she really is and to strive to become that person. Throughout the play we can feel the dusty and shattered framework of Helmer's marriage, reflections of unbelievably egotistical behaviors of the characters and the endless pain of searching for one's self in the characters mannerism and meditation. This study begins with an introduction to postmodernism and then it will specifically accentuate some of the postmodern elements of *A Doll's House.*

II. Postmodernism

Postmodernism is a silent and non-violent revolt against the so-called rationality of Modernism. Modernism enjoys totalization of the well-framed principles; the principles, which simply get consolidated by the passage of time and move on a straight line. It believes that *History* is a kind of totalizing of unanimous episodes, while Postmodernism believes in fragmentation and segmentation. It emphasizes that history is made of fragmented segments of disintegrated episodes. It highlights the incessant but unrelated chunks of events. It does not believe that *Time* can be frozen and *Notions* mummified. As McQuillan (2007, p. 6) opines:

It is the play of *différance* within historical meaning as a non-totalisable figure of auto-immunity which puts the historical, histories and the idea of history itself into deconstruction. These mutations, these deconstructions, continue unabated (it is irreversible, after all). The mutation of the institutions and circumstances of today takes place under the incessant pressure of the future. The mutation is predicated upon the arrival of what comes and further still, the possibility of what might come after it. The future, having arrived, we must always ask, what comes after it. Thus, the open-ended anteriority of the future is what makes history possible. It is the very chance and motor of history as a ground without stability, where any meaning, experience or figure may make itself possible. History is not a thing of the past; it is always a question of the future. It is for this reason that we might offer a couple of related propositions. Firstly, that the future of deconstruction will be guaranteed by the deconstruction of the future, that is, the figure of auto-immunity which makes itself legible as the future. Here, the future is *différance*, that which generates all generation, makes possible possibility itself, and is the condition of all and every significance. One might say that there can be no future without the future.

The voracious politicians of the world of Modernism give a fresh decoration to the old and well-practiced rules and norms and toss them onto the well-trodden path of the past, which is the sole pushing lever towards the climax of their world of superiority.

Indeed postmodernism is not a welcomed guest within the World of Modernism. It is a threat to all those powers or superpowers, especially in the under-developed third world countries, which utilize these presupposed principles to run their political institutions smoothly and exploit the repressed and suppressed nations without any disturbing and preventive roadblocks. These mummified principles in the world of Modernism have turned into ever fixed red light signals, which never change to be yellow, let alone green. Crossing these red lights is considered ethical, moral, social and political violations, which may lead to irretrievable traumatic consequences. Actually one has to tread circumspectly in the World of Modernism where individual is under severe surveillance, while in the World of Postmodernism one can feel the fresh breeze of freedom and the amicable and welcoming ambience of belonging. Indeed, Postmodernism does not believe in any kinds of red lights, which are the main hurdles and stumbling blocks of individual progress. Hooti and Torkamaneh (2011, p. 40) assert:

The phenomenon of postmodernism cannot be enunciated in purely temporal words. It somehow shackles most of the obvious epistemological points in various scientific points. In postmodernism, unlike modernism, we are not dealing with any scientific rules, but it is the absolute incredulity toward Metanarrative, which became popular, mostly after the Second World War.

In the world of Modernism achieving success has got the paramount importance. Individual is taught to be successful and gain success at any costs, while postmodernism believes in success, which is wedded to efficiency and merit.

It goes without saying that one of the most frequently and hotly debated topics of recent scientific discussions is the confusing term “postmodernism”. Postmodernism is no ordinary term. As Hooti (2011, p. 330) assrts:

Postmodernism is a comprehensive concept which has been challenged and argued over in so many scientific, literary, philosophical, cultural fields. Some critics regard it as originating in architecture. Based on natural attributes, it can not be defined as stable and fixed.

Postmodernism cannot be clarified with simple words or definitions; however, the best possible way to feel the specific features of this extraordinary mode of thinking is by making a comparison with its chronologically proceeded and counterpart in characteristics term called “modernism”.

As we move into the twenty-first century the modern/postmodern divide has emerged as more apparent than real. Coming not only from a distinguished critic, but also the foremost academic champion of an avant-garde that – whatever disagreements its individual members have about their place in postmodernism – has defined itself against modernism, After all, the divide once seemed crucial to many literary historians.

But, what are the crucial differences between modernism and postmodernism?

Certainly by simple definition, the difference would seem incontrovertible. However, whatever matters in the modern world is closed off and impossible to develop to any further idea and scrutiny, while in the postmodern world every new idea is supposed to be true and respectful and therefore source of a new context by itself. Before going any further in surveying different aspects of postmodernism, it is required to juxtapose three diverse styles of thinking in various epochs through their epistemology and their sources of authority.

A. Premodernism (Almost up to 1650's)

Epistemology: The basic epistemology of the premodern period was based on revealed knowledge from authoritative sources. In premodern times it was believed that ultimate truth could be known and the way to this knowledge is through direct revelation. This direct revelation was generally assumed to come from God or a god.

Sources of Authority: The church, being the holders and interpreters of revealed knowledge, were the primary authority source in premodern time.

B. Modernism (about 1650-1950's)

Epistemology: Two new approaches to knowing became dominant in the modern period. The first was empiricism (knowing through the senses) which gradually evolved into scientific empiricism or modern science with the development of modernist methodology. The second epistemological approach of this period was reason or logic. Often, science and reason were collaboratively or in conjunction with each other.

Sources of Authority: As the shift in power moved away from the church, politics (governments, kings, etc.) and universities (scholars, professors) took over as the primary sources of authority. Mostly a religious perspective was integrated into these modern authority sources, but the church no longer enjoyed the privileged power position.

C. Postmodernism (1950's to Current Times)

Epistemology: Postmodernism brought with it a questioning and skepticism of the previous approaches to knowing. Instead of relying on one approach to knowing, they advocate for an epistemological pluralism which utilizes multiple ways of knowing. This can include the premodern ways (revelation) and modern ways (science & reason), along with many other ways of knowing such as intuition, relational, and spiritual.

Sources of Authority: Postmodern approaches seek to deconstruct previous authority sources and power. Because power is distrusted, they attempt to set up a less hierarchical approach in which authority sources are more diffuse.

In the postmodern world, every mode of thought is totally acceptable and is considered as another way of defining a certain point. In other words it is somehow bringing up a new kind of thinking. In reality, for every thought one must expect a strange tomorrow (Baudrillard, 1987). Therefore it is not inappropriate to state that postmodernism casts doubt on the previous methods of thinking and deconstructs and challenges all the proven metanarratives. Some of the most important and striking features of the differences between modernism and postmodernism are:

1. against the modernist idea of a rational, humanist, unified and autonomous subject, postmodernists call for a conception of the subject as socially and linguistically decentred, fragmented and multiple.

2. In reaction to modernist assumptions of social and historical coherence, linearity and causality, as well as to its macro-theoretical, universalizing and totalizing claims, postmodernists stress ‘microtheory’, relativism, indeterminacy, detotalization and multiplicity.

3. In opposition to modernist forms of political understanding and organization (i.e. Marxism and liberalism), postmodernists call for new forms of political life which stress plurality, locality and difference. Where modern political strategies focus centrally upon (macro) issues of political economy and the state, postmodernists concentrate instead on ‘superstructural’ concerns relating to identity, culture and the realm of everyday life.

4. In the strange and tortuous world of postmodernism nothing is absolute or eternal. What is true today may be wrong tomorrow. What is proven now is disavowed later on. In other words, nothing is fixed and all the scientifically substantiated rules are reshuffled in the postmodern world. On the other hand, suffice it to say that, modernism does not even dare to talk about these metanarratives and proven rules.

5. Postmodernism is a manifestation of how modernism was interrupted through several myths called society, communism or freedom or whatever; myths which are only justified through the proclaimed scientificity of classical sociology or social science, which themselves are the irrefutable features of Modernism.

III. Irony

In the era of simulation, mass communication and disenchantment, how can one distinguish sincerity from irony?

How can one offer a critique of judging reason without adopting a tone of judgment?

How can one present the cruelties of morality without moralizing?

How can one criticize the rational point of view that detaches itself from all contexts, without such a criticism creating its own elevated context?

Only irony can, at one and the same time, judge the tyranny and moralism of a certain context and display its own complicity in that tyranny. But to attach or link up irony and postmodernity and a better understanding of postmodernity it is vital to state that postmodernity is a radical rejection or redefinition of irony. If irony demands some idea or point of view above language, contexts or received voices, postmodernity acknowledges that all we have are competing contexts and that any implied ‘other’ position would itself be a context. To sum up, it is apt to mention that irony tries to allude something other than what is perceived or discerned by ear or by heart. It sometimes conceals the truth, which is one of the commonplace features of the postmodern world. This literary device attempts to make a story seem more exiting and entertaining in the literature.

A Doll’s House encompasses numerous instances of irony as well. Many of the examples of irony in this play are classified in the category of Dramatic irony. The abstract definition of this literary criticism according to Merriam Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary is “the incongruity between a situation developed in a drama and the accompanying words or actions that is understood by the audience but not by the characters in the play” (p. 662). In this regard, irony is thought to be a method of adding depth and dimension to the characters in a play.

Throughout the play this irony is manifested distinctly between Nora and Torvald, the two main characters of the play, with Torvald being the character whose knowledge is insufficient. As a matter of fact the play is rich in symbols and imagery, but irony is one of the most magnificent ingredients of the play. The first instance of irony can be perceived in act one when Krogstad says that in case her husband dismisses him, he will have the courage to reveal the secret of the discrepancy in the loan paper which brought about this scandalous occurrence for Nora.

Nora: It would be perfectly infamous of you. (Sobbing) To think of his learning my secret, this has been my joy and pride, in such an ugly, clumsy way— that he should learn it from you! And it would put me in a horribly disagreeable position. (Ibsen, 1987, p. 26-henceforth Ibsen)

This is completely ironic in that her “pride and joy” is something that her husband would absolutely disapprove of, and the notable part is when Torvald asserts that he is not into any borrowed money as he puts it “No debt, no borrowing. There can be no freedom or beauty about a home life that depends on borrowing and debt” (Ibsen, p. 5)

But the fact is that, the die is cast and Nora has already borrowed that amount of money, and it is her pride and joy, although the audience is aware or is given the knowledge that torvald will come to know about this incident. Nora has been able to save up the money all on herself, on the contrary that women were never able to borrow money, but she made all the payment on her loan. What makes it more joyful for her is that she managed to secure his husband’s welfare and save his life.

Another portrayal of irony arises in act three, in the climax of the play when Torvald becomes cognizant of his wife’s loan. What makes it even more ironic is the statement that Torvald make after comprehending the secret. Even he uses the words “pride and joy” after his discovery of the vexatious secret accentuates this sense of irony.

Torvald: (walking about the room). What a horrible awakening!
All these eight years—she who was my joy and pride—a
Hypocrite, a liar—worse, worse—a criminal! The unutterable
Ugliness of it all!—for shame! For shame! (Ibsen, p. 70)

Again this can be interpreted that, Torvald assumes his wife puts her through a scandalous situation and castigates her for what she did, but he soon finds out that he has made a wrong decision by reprimanding her.

Apart from all these points of dramatic ironies, it would be noteworthy to moot some of the examples of situational irony. Situational irony is a relationship of contrast between what an audience is led to expect during a particular situation within the unfolding of a story's plot and a situation that ends up actually resulting later on. It is thus the result of a special sort of discrepancy in perspective that is not "moment-bound," in that it involves the contrast between what we knew in one moment with what we have come to know in another.

The first and foremost illustration of situational irony presents itself patently not from a single occurrence of the play ,but can be discerned conspicuously throughout the play, when Nora treats her children, the way she has always been treated. In fact, not only does she try to subjugate herself to her children's needs and freedom, but also she treats them exactly the way it happened to herself.

Nora: (undisturbed). I mean that I was simply transferred from Papa's hands into yours. You arranged everything according to your own taste, and so I got the same tastes as your else I pretended to, I am really not quite sure which—I think sometimes the one and sometimes the other. (Ibsen, p. 74)

And this can be deemed as an example of a situational irony, although she has always presumed that her brand new life with Torvald would bring her exuberance and elation, it shed a darker cloud of desolation upon her life, and she is treated by her husband as a doll in the way that she used to be treated by her father when he was alive.

Torvald's sanctimonious character reveals itself once more when he is trying to show his phony love toward gullible Nora as he puts it " Do you know, Nora, I have often wished that you might be threatened by some great danger, so that I might risk my life's blood, and everything, for your sake" (Ibsen, p. 69). In this situational irony both the audience and Nora know that it will never happen, but Helmer does not and it somehow turns out to be contradictory to what Torvald thought.

One of the most spectacular symbols of irony is Nora's brief and simple, yet ironical and thought-provoking statement.

Nora: I have other duties just as sacred.
Helmer: That you have not. What duties could those be?
Nora: Duties to myself.
Helmer: Before all else, you are a wife and a mother. (Ibsen, p. 76)

Although she believes that she has duties to herself as well, she has always subdued this kind of right from herself only for the sake of her spouse and her children, and this is ironic because she is just reminding this right and she had never even thought about this, and it is again a discrepant coincidence in which she has never provided herself with this right.

IV. Conflicts and the Fall of Grand Narratives

In General, Postmodernists believe in different modes of thought, different interpretations of the narratives and disbelief, query and suspicion in all sorts of metanarratives in order to prove a free and cognizant self; however modernism is the exact belief in all the established, proved and orthodox metanarratives. One of the most effective terms in which postmodernism tries to make use of, is through the term "conflict". As a matter of fact, conflict is the impediment that puts any conscious human being in an unbelievably mind-boggling predicament in which that person cannot decide which alternative to choose from. To be exact, this kind of conflict is analogous to a selection between modernism and postmodernism or whether to say yes to the metanarratives and fossilized obligations of modernism or opt for micronarratives and a free self. In literature, conflict is regarded as a focal point in most of the novels and plays. In fact, conflict is utilized in most segments of nearly all works of literature in order to immerse the listener or the reader in the play or novel. Most of the time conflict is engendered between the protagonist and the antagonist in order to get them involved in the play thoroughly. Actually this literary element links characters and their actions together like a chain of events and therefore, the reader or observer is absolutely engaged with this chain of incidents. To be accurate, conflict is the essence of drama. In most parts of the play, a doll's house, generally, the psychological tension in the characters' mind and heart can be felt more rather than external actions. There exist two kinds of conflict in the play which are explicated as follows.

Internal conflict is one of the most salient features used in a doll's house. It involves a quandary, facing the character inside and its impact on the character. This kind of conflict arouses a kind of universal emotion in people, whether it is an inner need, desire or turmoil. One of the most crucial themes that the characters, especially the protagonist, have to cope with is the internal conflict, in which the natural feeling from one hand and belief in authority on the other hand attacks the character's mind and soul.

The first instance of this conflict occurs in the first act, when the audience discovers that Nora has borrowed a large amount of money, in spite of the fact that she was not allowed to do so without her husband's signature, which she does not have. To make matters worse, she ignores the law one more time, by forging her father's signature in order to get a loan, which she finally succeeds in. However, it ensues an irritating chaos in her subconscious part of her mind which is too strenuous to deal with, although she believed that what she did was right. This is the initial dilemma that the postmodern features create for its followers.

Nora's mental growth leads her to a sort of self-recognition and self-identity. It slowly unravels her mental complexities and leashes her towards self-determination. She does not remain docile and submissive any longer. This change and growth is tangible in Nora's following statement:

I don't believe it. Is a daughter not to be allowed to spare her dying father anxiety and care? Is a wife not to be allowed to save her husband's life? I don't know much about law; but I am certain that there must be laws permitting such things as that. Have you no knowledge of such laws— you who are a lawyer? You must be a very poor lawyer, Mr. Krogstad. (Ibsen, p. 29)

It is easily tangible that Nora ignores the rules of the modern world once more by selecting what she thinks is right. In spite of the fact that she has never done anything extraordinary, out of her ordinary life with Torvald, but this postmodern tendency finally wins over her thoughts and emotions. Therefore; Nora does what she believes is right; she is between the devil and the deep blue sea, but she finally prefers getting the loan, no matter she is taking the risk of putting her life at stake by forging her father's signature on a promissory note.

External conflict arises as an outward roadblock or as an avalanche of setbacks to the main character's success and often provides the motivation for relationships, struggles and the primary action of the plot. This literally device has been subject of numerous debates and is predominantly deployed effectively in nearly all parts of *A Doll's House*. As a matter of fact, Ibsen's use of this conflict has turned him into one of those writers who depicts the society's praxes and difficulties, and tussles they bring about for people. He has made use of this in *A Doll's House* as well.

In 19th century the most pivotal role of a woman was to stay at home, raise her children and attend to her husband, and this is exactly flouting the norms and the laws of the postmodern world by lashing the female emancipation. In *A Doll's House* as well as other Ibsen's works, this unfair role and Cause Célèbre conflict is reverberated in a tormenting and poignant way; as Azher Suleiman puts it:

Ibsen focused in many of his plays on problems of mature and capitalist society. He was concerned with the crisis of liberalism, the conflict of the bourgeois families, women's emancipation and the psychological breakdown of the individual and the power of economy over human relations in capitalist society. (2010, p. 10)

Nora Helmer is the character who plays the role of a nineteenth century woman and a victim of this fallacy.

In most parts of the play she is oppressed by the unjust behavior of her husband and numerous tyrannical social conventions. Torvald, her husband, often treats her as if she is one of his responsibilities in his workplace or a part of his ordinary work; hence she is always treated like a child. Consequently, she becomes fully aware of this unscrupulous relationship, therefore in the climax of the story, at the end of the play, she takes a stand against Torvald, who plays the role of a character, who causes conflict between Nora and himself.

Basically, the end of the play is not a conflict between Nora or Torvald or Even the society, but it is definitely the endless struggle of choosing between modern belief or a postmodern solution.

The following dialogue between Nora and Helmer shows Nora's revolt against the presupposed metanarratives. It shows how Nora tries to break the shackles of obedience and passivity and claim her own identity:

Helmer: first and foremost, you are a wife and mother.

Nora: I don't believe that any longer. I believe that before all else I am a human being, just as you are or, at all events that I must try and become one. I know quite well, Torvald, that most people would think you right, and that views of that kind are to be found in books; but I can no longer content myself with what most people say, or with what is found in books. I must think over things for myself and get to understand them. (Ibsen, p. 76)

She is actually fighting with the meaningless and imposed rules of the current period of time when and where women do not have the right to stand against the notions of their husbands, no matter what happens, but she is standing still against those rules that are dictated by the society. On the other hand, though Torvald indicts her for giving up her code of ethics and religion and also the unacceptability of leaving one's spouse, she is again in this irksome predicament, whether to leave her husband or not, but she follows her postmodernity-shaped labels of her instincts one more time and sets her heart on deserting him. She proves that her personal feelings and growth are more important than the decrees, which the society imposes on her, although it is absolutely forbidden by the not standardized beliefs of "appropriate" actions prescribed by the discriminatory society for mothers and wives.

The other thought- provoking dialogue which reveals how Nora has been tyrannized in her conjugal life is presented in act three.

Helmer: To desert your home, your husband and your children! And you don't consider what people will say!

Helmer: It's shocking. This is how you would neglect your most sacred duties.

Nora. What do you consider my most sacred duties?

Helmer: Do I need to tell you that? Are they not your duties to your husband and your children?

Nora: I have other duties just as sacred.

Nora: Duties to myself (Ibsen, p. 76)

Due to the unfair behavior of Helmer, she even prefers to desert her children too, because she has always sacrificed herself to her family's well-being; she believes that it is time to think about the duties for herself and seek her own freedom.

V. Deception and Truth

The abyss gap between appearance/realty, truth/falsehood and morality/immorality are manifesto of a mind-boggling plot of a novel or a play. These key terms of postmodernism, which can be interpreted as the absolute notion of binary opposition as well, are all converged in the suffocatingly misleading world of *A Doll's House* and harbinger of numerous instances of opposition and conflict.

In *A Doll's House* nothing is always what it seems. Nora, the protagonist, is considered to be the mother and a wife, thoroughly devoted to her children and her connubial life, latterly turns out to be a self-centered person who regards herself as autonomous woman to live on her own and discovers the true meaning of life. During her life with Torvald, she takes a great deal of patience, but because of their dishonest and unopened married life she decides to leave the murky and gloomy ambience of Torvald's home replete with lies and duplicity.

On the other hand, Torvald, a loving, committed and generous husband does not unveil his true character as a shallow and egotist person till the end of the play. Her admiring behavior with Nora makes the audience believe that he is such a perfect husband, but the truth turns out to be something else. From the beginning of the play she is swindled by her husband's blandishments. He calls Nora with appellations like "my little songbird" (Ibsen, p.30), "my own darling" (Ibsen, p. 41) or "my little skylark" (Ibsen, p. 64) which shows his affectionate, but deceitful behavior through words of affirmation.

The other character that is introduced as the symbol of hatred and is characterized with abominable features in the play is Mr. Krogstad. Torvald describes him without even being slightly sure about his claims.

Helmer: Just think how a guilty man like that has to lie and play the hypocrite with everyone. How he has to wear a mask in the presence of those near and dear to him, even before his own wife and children. And about the children—that is the most terrible part of it Nora. (Ibsen, p. 32)

He is characterized as a detestable person, as a vengeful extortionist and a person to have poisoned everyone with his lies and hypocritical behavior, but again this claim turns out to be somehow contradictory. Most important of all when he finds out that his old flame, Mrs. Linde, after a long period of time is still in an unconditional love with him, and because of the fact that she does not want to lose her once more, he tries to recall the letter so as to make her happy, although Mrs. Linde changes her mind and talks him out of his decision for the sake of Helmers. His innate characteristics are changed dramatically, when he finds out that they can be together at last, he is turned to be a benevolent, merciful and honest person.

Krogstad: (grasps her hands) Thanks, thanks, Christine! Now

I shall find a way to clear myself in the eyes of the world. (Ibsen, p. 60)

Therefore his callous, shallow and narcissistic personalities which considered to be right in his description, do not seem to be fair in the abstruse and deceitful world of *A Doll's House*, where people's behavioral characteristics change**s** in every instance of the play. On the other hand, Mrs. Linde at first strikes the audience as a self-sufficient person, but as time**s** goes forward, she herself declares and reveals that she actually feels "empty", due to the fact her husband is passed away and her children are gone to their own separate ways. She finds the direction of the rest of her life with krogstad's companionship and the interesting part is that Krogstad himself is absolutely willing to this relationship.

To be realistic, the reason why there is such a profound gap between reality and appearance, truth and deception, which are incontrovertible and undeniable dimension of the postmodern building, created by its residents, is that every single character of the play is trying so hard to gain the trust and approval of others in particular and the society in general. Nora lies about the loan and hides her own strength and even lying about trivial matters such as eating sweets just to put a dark cloud on her dishonest relation with Torvald in her mind.

VI. Insufferable Feminism

The term feminism is a collection or set of movements towards having equivalent economical, political, cultural and social rights in the society for women as well as men. Flex explores his definition of feminism in this way, "Feminist theories call for a transvaluation of values—a rethinking of our ideas about what is just, humanly excellent, worthy of praise, moral, and so forth". (1991, p. 21)

To be exact, alleviating and weakening the efficacy of the problamatized notion of feminism made by people's altered way of thinking and obliterating a great deal of this fallacy made in this mostly male-dominated world by women's interminable endeavors toward shackling these impediments during the past few centuries, have paved the path for creating a more balanced and equitable conditions for an alive and conscious living for both genders.

Apart from this general view about feminism, this fallacy is debatable in literature as well. For instance, Ibsen himself is a playwright who mostly inquests into people's freedom in the world and how they can vindicate their individual right specially, through women's point of view. Nora Helmer and Mrs. Alving, main character of Hedda Gabler, are instances of this feature in Ibsen's works.

Koht (1931) believes that the thing which filled Ibsen's mind was the individual man, and he measured the worth of a community according as it helped or hindered a man in being himself. He had an Ideal standard which he placed upon the community and it was from this measuring that his social criticism proceeded.

Treating women as inferior and not considering their self-esteem and values were rampant and relatively accentuated in 19th century. This injudicious belief is certainly perceptible in *A Doll's House* as well. Ibsen always brings this kind of unjust way of thinking into question.

One of the most common themes enduring in folklore and in less spontaneous works of art is the notion of innocent journeying through the world to discover the basic human values. In *A Doll's House* too, the most poignant and traumatic incidents of the play are intended to affect Nora, the protagonist of the play. She has always been under mental pressure by her father, society, and most irritating of all, by her husband who has treated her like nothing more than a doll in their married life.

Consequently; she finds her only exit, away from all these restricting traditional obligations and dehumanizing oppressions of women in just abandoning everything in search of a new identity and meaning in her life. Templeon puts it better when he says:

Patriarchy's socialization of women into servicing creatures is the major accusation in Nora's painful account to Torvald of how first her father, and then he, used her for their amusement . . . how she had no right to think for herself, only the duty to accept their opinions. Excluded from meaning anything, Nora has never been subject, only object. (1997, p. 142).

The interwoven themes of *A Doll's House* recur throughout most of the Ibsen's works. The specific problem of this drama deals with the difficulty of maintaining an individual personality, in this case a feminine personality within the confines of a stereotyped social role. The problem is personified as Nora, the doll, strives to become a self-motivated human being in a woman-denying man's world.

The final scene of *A Doll's House* is one of the most famous and hotly debated moments in modern drama, which is endlessly argued about. There have been various analyses of this part, as some critics refer to it as the tragic part of the play, where Nora, decides to leave. This part of the play is the absolute notion of postmodernism that not only defines postmodernity in a magnificent way, but it also shackles and attacks the elements of modernism as well.

Helmer: Can you not understand your place in your own home? Have you not a reliable guide In such matters as that?—have you no religion?

Nora*:* I am afraid, Torvald, I do not exactly know what religion is.

I know nothing but what the clergyman said when I went to be confirmed. He told us that Religion was this, and that, and the other. When I am away from all this, and am alone, I will look into that matter too. I will see if what the clergyman said is true, or at all events if it is true For me. (Ibsen, p. 76)

In these meaningful dialogues Helmer is trying to trap and leash Nora with religious matters, but the notion of postmodernity is totally awake in Nora's mind. She not only succumbs to modernist ideas of her husband, but she also attacks the outdated notions of modernity by emancipative power of postmodernity.

VII. Conclusion

Those who see Nora's predicament as something primarily imposed on her from the society around her, by oppressive men especially, may well feel that this play has become somewhat antediluvian. After all, so many progressive strides have been made since then and leaving house and home to forge a self-created life is so much easier in all sorts of ways, for women and for men. Templeton pertinently observes that ‘‘such an assessment is a great mistake’’ (1997, p. 143), but her observation serves to remind readers that there is still much to do if women are to be truly free of the "chivalric ideal and the notion of a female mind" (p. 145).

For Ibsen's conclusion, especially in *A Doll's House*, it is proper to put it that, this riveting and gripping play is something much more profoundly tragic, unconditionally harrowing and pointing, as it does, to the inescapably notion of self-identification.

As a matter of fact, *A Doll's House* is not about the prevalent notion of feminism or the insufferable domination of men in a modernist world of 19th century, but it emphasizes the absolute right of each individual, no matter single or married, to abscond from multitude of restricting rules of the modern world to find his or her right in the postmodern world where each individual is deemed as a respectful society by itself and to find the freedom which is summarized in choosing what you truly believe in.

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Noorbakhsh Hooti is currently an Assistant Professor of English Language and Literature at Kermanshah Razi University, Iran. He is a member of the research committee of the College of Humanities and Literature, Razi University. His main interests of research are drama, Short Story and Novel. He has been engaged in teaching English language and Literature for more than fifteen years. He holds Ph. D. in English Language and Literature, M. A. in English Language and Literature, and B.A in English Language and Literature. He has published a number of books, Research Projects, and articles in his areas of interest in academic journals.

Pouria Torkamaneh is a BA student of English Language and Literature at Kermanshah Razi University. He has published articles in the noted international scholarly Journals. He has been teaching English at various Language Institutes for more than five years.

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Knowledge of Mediation and Its Implementation among Secondary School EFL Teachers in China

Xiongyong Cheng
Xinyang Agricultural College, 464000 No. 1 Nongzhuan Road, Xinyang City, Henan Province, China
Email: xiongyong@siswa.um.edu.my

***Abstract*—This paper concerns China's secondary school EFL teachers' knowledge of mediation and their classroom practices to explore why mediative classrooms are so rare and what can be done to make a classroom more mediative. To provide a general picture of EFL teachers' knowledge and execution of mediation, a methodological triangulation (i.e., questionnaire, observation, and interviewing) is employed for the data collection. The research findings indicate that most EFL teachers in China have no knowledge of mediation and thus are unable to mediate students' learning. The paper thus tries to reveal reflective implications and positive demonstrations for teacher practitioners by providing reference evidence for policy makers, curriculum developers, and educators.**

***Index Terms*—EFL teacher, mediator, cognition, implementation**

I. Introduction

Mediation theory, located within the framework of social-constructivism, views that all language users begin from birth to build relationships with people around them (Williams & Burden, 2000). Through constant interactions with others, they learn to use language and make sense of the world (Vygotsky, 1978). Thus, people around learners act as mediators who "may be the parent, facilitator, teacher, or some significant other who plays the intentional role of explaining, emphasizing, interpreting, or extending the environment so that the learner builds up a meaningful internal model of the context or the world experienced" (Seng, Pou, & Tan, 2003, p. 11). When this occurs in language classrooms, teachers interact with students and help them apply the language themselves instead of only providing them with the language knowledge (Fisher, 2005). With the emphasis on facilitating learner autonomy and life-long education in recent reforms, it has become significant that students self-control their learning and become more active thinkers and problem-solvers (Ting, 1987; Yang, 2003; Ye, 2007). To ensure learner-centered EFL (English as a foreign language) instruction, teachers highlight the development of students' independence and autonomy by re-orienting their roles (Ministry of Education of China [MOE], 2001). The current education context implies that it is necessary for teachers to play the teacher role as mediator instead of as disseminator in the language classroom since the value of adult mediation in children's learning can never be overstressed (Seng et al., 2003). This paper thus concerns China's secondary school EFL teachers' implementation of the mediator role based on the identification of their knowledge of mediation.

II. Statement of the Problem

China's new *National Standards of English Curriculum for Basic Education* (hereafter referred to as *Curriculum Standards*) was generated on the basis of multiple intelligences theory and social-constructivism (Fu, 2003; Gardner, 1993; MOE, 2001; Peng, 2005; Tang, 2009; Yang, 2005; Yu, 2005). Multiple intelligences theory holds that "learners individually possess diverse learning styles and intelligences" (Ediger, 2000, p. 35), and social-constructivism "provides various ways to access the students' multiple intelligences" (Teague, 2000, p. 9). Now, the implementation of the new *Curriculum Standards* is in process throughout China before another new circle of curriculum reforms for secondary education is made known. The development of the *Curriculum Standards* seems indispensable as "the current situation of English education still does not meet needs of the economic and social development" (MOE, 2001, p. 2).

The *Curriculum Standards* contends that the teacher should no longer be authoritative but become the co-constructor of knowledge with learners (MOE, 2001). Under the new *Curriculum Standards* where the new educational beliefs of humanism and all students' lifelong development are advocated, teachers are considered as the key to the reform (Tang, 2009). Teachers need to care more about the teaching process rather than results, to help students know how to learn instead of only what to learn, and to help students establish creative learning instead of adaptive learning (MOE, 2001). Moreover, MOE can decide the goals, objectives, curricula, syllabi, and textbooks throughout China whose education system is characterized by high centralization (Liao, 2004; Yu, 2001). Nonetheless, numerous researchers and educators have articulated teacher role shifts under the *Curriculum Standards* from the theoretical perspective only (e.g., Fu, 2003; Peng, 2005; Tang, 2009; Yang, 2005; Yu, 2005). They have investigated the application of Feuerstein's (1980) 12 mediated learning experience (MLE) criteria through surveys, reporting that teachers fail to entirely adopt the 12 techniques to "mediate" students' learning. To their thinking, teacher roles required by the *Standards* should be assessors, helpers, researchers, organizers, participants, tutors, facilitators, and prompters (Harmer, 2001). This kind of shift in teachers' roles foregrounds the role of mediator whose functions encompass those of the above teacher roles (Feuerstein, 1980; Sun, 2005). As such, this study tries to fill the gap in the existing literature on the extent of teachers' adherence to MOE requirements in EFL instruction.

III. Research Questions

This study is to probe into the cause of the unpopularity of mediative classrooms in China and what can be done to make a classroom more mediative. To achieve this goal, two questions that follow to be addressed are proposed:

1. What knowledge about mediation do China's secondary school EFL teachers hold?
2. What are EFL teachers' classroom practices in relation to 12 mediation functions?

IV. Literature Review

This review surveys the body of literature informing the two questions, introducing the theoretical structure in light of Feuerstein's 12 MLE features incorporated into Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD).

A. Vygotsky's Social Constructivism

Vygotsky's famous "Three Principal Assumptions" is known as his greatest contribution to social constructivism (see Vygotsky, 1978). The first assumption is that the community and its internal members or people play a central role by interacting with the individual in that individual's view of the world (Vasireddy, 2007). The second is the assumption that the tools, whose type and quality determine the pattern and speed of cognitive development, are involved in the surrounding culture and language and important adults (Vasireddy, 2007). The ZPD theory is viewed as Vygotsky's third principal assumption, conceptualized as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and level of potential development as determined through solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Vygotsky (1987) argues, "What the child is able to do in collaboration today he will be able to do independently tomorrow" (p. 211).

At the outset of a learning process, the teacher is bound to undertake the majority of the task before the teacher and students assume the collaborative duty (Schunk, 2000). The teacher gradually reduces the help as scaffolding until students can perform on their own since they become more capable (Campione et al., 1984). "The key is to ensure that the scaffolding keeps learners in the ZPD, which is altered as they develop capabilities. Students are challenged to learn within the bounds of the ZPD" (Schunk, 2000, p.245).

B. Feuerstein's Mediation

Not every interaction involving a task, learner, and mediator possesses a quality of MLE, so a system of the MLE criteria is developed to distinguish levels of MLE interactions (Feuerstein, 1980). In the MLE program, Feuerstein proposes 12 parameters as indispensable criteria for evaluating the quality of MLE interaction as shown in Table 1.

Feuerstein (1980) believes that teachers can "mediate" in numbers of different ways. The 12 criteria of the MLE program represent 12 different ways of mediation for the teacher in the language classroom to conduct (Seng et al., 2003). The first "three criteria are also considered *universal*, in the sense that they can be present in all races, ethnic groups, cultural entities, and socioeconomic strata" (Seng et al., 2003, p. 36). By contrast, "the remaining nine criteria are considered responsible for the process of diversification of humankind in terms of cognitive styles, need systems, types of skills mastered, and the structure of knowledge", and "these nine criteria are also considered *situational* because they need not always be present in every MLE" (Seng et al., 2003, p. 36). Given the need of this study, the operational definitions of *universal mediation* and *situational mediation* are drawn on, referring to the first three MLE criteria and the remaining nine respectively.

TABLE 1
REPRESENTATION OF FEUERSTEIN'S MLE CRITERIA

Parameter	Conceptualization
1. Significance	The teacher makes students realize the importance of a learning task so that they can look at the significance of the task to their own and in a broader cultural context.
2. Purpose beyond the here and now	Explains to learners how conducting a learning activity will help them in the future beyond the moment and situation for the time being only.
3. Shared intention	In presenting a task, the teacher must make instructions clear and ensure the intention is understood and reciprocated by learners.
4. A sense of competence	Fosters learners' feelings of competence and capability of learning.
5. Control of own behavior	Encourages students to become autonomous by self-controlling their learning procedure.
6. Goal-setting	Teaches learners how to establish achievable targets and to locate approaches for the purpose of realizing them.
7. Challenge	Helps learners to develop an internal need to confront challenges and to seek for new challenges in life.
8. Awareness of change	Stimulates learners to monitor changes in themselves and to understand the fact that humans are changeable all the time.
9. A belief in positive outcomes	Urges learners to assume that there is always the possibility of finding a solution, even when faced with an apparently intractable problem.
10. Sharing	Invites learners to share behaviors and collaboration among themselves and to perceive that it is advisable for some problems to be addressed collaboratively.
11. Individuality	Helps learners realize their individual characteristics in terms of their unique aspects.
12. A sense of belonging	Aids learners to establish a consciousness of pertaining to the whole class community in the process of the completion of the task.

Note. Adapted from *Instrumental enrichment: An intervention program for cognitive modifiability* by R .Feuerstein, 1980.

C. Missing Link: from Vygotsky to Feuerstein

Vygotsky and Feuerstein seem to facilitate each other in effectively important manners in the case of their works since Vygotsky (1978) utters the ZPD, a location in which the probability of enhancement of a learner's abilities is able to be seen. Lantolf (2000) asserts that the ZPD is where social forms of mediation are performed and realized. Feuerstein's (1980) MLE describes what comes about within the ZPD, which centers on a mediator's helping learners get through this special zone and obtain their competence development in the zone eventually. Once students receive high-quality mediated learning in the school setting, they will have some grasp on how to learn for the future, at least tacitly and imperceptibly (Feuerstein, 1980). Vygotsky believes that human "higher mental processes are functions of mediated activity" (cited in Seng et al., 2003, p. 6), but even then " the role of the human mediator is not fully elaborated within [Vygotsky's] theoretical framework" and that the theoretical gap is thus bridged with the help of "Feuerstein's (1990) theory of mediated learning, which assigns the major role to a human mediator"(Kozulin, 1994, p. 284, cited in Seng et al., 2003, p. 7).

Accordingly, the application of mediation theory incorporated into the ZPD is expected to be the strongest rationale to carry out the teacher role as mediator in that students' facilitation is the target of education (MOE, 2001). At this point, it seems meaningful for the ZPD and mediation theory to be applied together for the most persuasive justifications of this study.

V. DATA COLLECTION

The data sources of this study were derived from the questionnaire survey and case studies in the forms of two-round observations and semi-structured interviews with five self-claimed teachers.

A. Questionnaire

To obtain the data to address the research questions, a questionnaire survey was applied, which was adapted from Williams and Burden's Mediation Questionnaire (2000) testing teachers' classroom practices in the case of Feuerstein's 12 MLE features, together with reference to Liao's Communicative Language Teaching Questionnaire (2003) (see Appendix A). The revised mediation questionnaire contains four question items summarized as shown in Table 2. In view of potential linguistic biases from EFL, a Chinese version questionnaire was employed in the study, subjected to a panel of experts in the Chinese language.

TABLE 2
QUESTIONNAIRE QUESTIONS AND SCOPES

Question	Main Content	Category	Focused Area
Question 1	Asking teachers whether they have idea of mediation.	Open-ended	Cognition
Question 2	Requesting teachers (a) to identify mediators and traditional teachers and (b) to compare their roles with those of the four teachers.	Open-ended	Cognition Behavior
Question 3	Asking teachers to scale their classroom practices.	Likert-type	Behavior
Question 4	Collecting EFL teachers' demographic data.	Closed-ended	Background

Note. Adapted from Williams & Burden's *Mediation Questionnaire* (2000) and Liao's *Communicative Language Teaching Questionnaire* (2003).

B. Observations

A purposive sampling technique was administered as well in this study since five EFL teachers were selected for the field observations according to their claim in the answered questionnaires that they were mediating the students' learning. The observed teachers got informed that the observation was an observation to recognize what happened in their classroom rather than a performance evaluation (Liao, 2003). They were reminded not to perform differently when their textbook-based lectures were observed which might manifest the requirements of the Curriculum Standards (MOE, 2001; Zhang, 2008). A classroom observation worksheet (see Appendix B) was designed identifying EFL teachers' extent of the execution of the 12 MLE features in the form of Likert-type scale.

In order to gain a true picture of the five self-claimed teachers' classroom instruction, each of them was observed for twice. A skilled technician was employed in charge of video-recording the teacher participants' observed lessons and the interviews with them. In process of the observation, the researcher played the role of non-participant observer (Creswell, 2005). For the purpose of backuping the observation data, the teaching of each of the participants was fully transcribed to identify focal themes after being video-recorded (Zhang, 2008).

C. In-depth Interviews

The interview was seen as an opportunity for the teachers to utter their opinions on issues related to their profession (Liao, 2003), which was also a crucial approach for the researcher to check the accuracy of the impressions that he had gained through the observations (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2007). In the interviewing process, whatever question prompts and suggestive possible answers were averted (Liao, 2003). A face-to-face semi-structured interview protocol (see Appendix C) was guided by a set of open-ended questions to elicit the answer to the predetermined research questions (Creswell, 2005; Kvale, 1996; Verma & Mallick, 1999). Sufficient attention was focused on formulating interview questions in an open-ended way since loosely structured questions allowed participants more freedom to relate more of what was significant to them (Li, 2004).

To facilitate communication and eliminate any barrier generated by EFL, the participants were interviewed in the Chinese language which is the mother tongue of both the interviewee and the interviewer. All the interviews were video-recorded and then partially transcribed to highlight the important subjects in relation to this study as the interviewing was semi-structured.

VI. SUBJECTS

This study was conducted in Henan province located in eastern central China for the accessible population (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2007). According to Creswell's (2005) rough estimate of a survey sample size, 350 teachers were chosen randomly from 350 secondary schools in Henan. A vital difficulty with the questionnaire survey was that only a small percentage of the pre-sampled respondents tended to answer the questionnaire (Liao, 2003). Out of the 350 distributed questionnaire sheets, 152 effective copies (43.4 %) were returned, but "power is not an issue" since the sample size is larger with 100 or more subjects (Stevens, 1996, p. 6, cited in Pallant, 2007, p. 205).

In the case study, generalization is not the ultimate target to seek for, so there is no need of applying the representative sampling technique (Ary et al., 2006; Creswell, 2005; Stake, 1995). Purposeful sampling seems an ideal alternative which is aimed at discovering, understanding, and obtaining the most effective insights by selecting a non-random sample (Merriam, 1998). Thus, to identify the implementation of EFL teachers' mediative functions, five self-claimed teachers as mediators with respective pseudonyms---Huang, Jiang, Lv, Zeng, and Zhang were sampled purposively for observations and interviewing.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS

The data for this study originate from the 152 participating teachers' answered questionnaire sheets, observations, and interviewing. The quantitative data analysis was processed with the help of the *Statistical Package for Social Sciences* (SPSS) version 16.0 for Windows, while the qualitative data were coded and analyzed manually.

VIII. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings of the study are reported in order of the two research questions in terms of the survey and case studies, followed by the findings discussion related to each of the research questions.

Findings and Discussion for RQ1: What Knowledge about Mediation Do China's Secondary School EFL Teachers Hold?

The questionnaire survey findings indicate that the teacher participants had misconceptions and inadequate knowledge of mediation. Most of the participating teachers incorrectly regarded the role of mediator as the "transmitter" of knowledge from the teacher to students, the "organizer" of the implementation of classroom activities, and the "go-between" between students and teaching materials. Around one third of the participants failed to identify the teacher role in the PPP procedure (i.e., presentation, practice, and production) and mistook the traditional instructor for the role of mediator. Given the four teacher scenarios related to different teaching roles (i.e., 1 universal mediator, 2 situational mediators, and 1 traditional instructor) (see Appendix A), the small minority of the participating teachers seemed clearer about the knowledge of situational mediation than of universal mediation. They claimed to make better sense of situational mediation functions like "control of own behavior", "challenge", "a belief in positive outcomes", "sharing", and “individuality”, but they had a poor command of “a sense of competence”, “awareness of change”, “goal-setting”, and “a sense of belonging” (see Table 1).

The teacher participants’ misconceptions about mediation are embodied in two aspects. First, the participating teachers considered the role of mediator as the “transmitter” of knowledge, cultures, learning strategies, and learning how to be. The function of the transmitter is to bring knowledge to students directly without any interactions or activities, and the teacher takes charge of the output of knowledge making students the container of knowledge (Fisher, 2005; Hird, 1995). This kind of instructional role is identical with “instructor” which seems like a Chinese equivalent *jiao (1) shu (1) jiang (4),* in which *jiao (1) shu (1)* represents “instruction” with *jiang (4)* meaning “craftsman”. In addition, the subjects referred to the role of mediator as a “go-between”, implying that the teacher participants seemed to be influenced by the Chinese equivalent *zhong (1) jie (4)*, in which *zhong (1)* means “in-between” with *jie (4)* referring to “medium”. In fact, many previous studies had similar findings to the above (e.g., Fu, 2003; Peng, 2005; Tang, 2009; Yang, 2005; Yu, 2005).

Second, the PPP procedure is characterized by teacher-centeredness and the instruction for accurate language functions, during which the teacher controls the instructional pace completely with students as organisms guided by skilled training techniques to generate correct responses (Nunan, 1989). In particular, the final stage *production* provides real situations for students to produce various forms of spoken and written language products for the free use of language (Ellis, 1992; Liao, 2003). Nevertheless, the teacher role in this procedure is conceptualized as “instructor” since the class is teacher-centered. Many of the participants in the survey wrongly viewed the traditional instructor in the PPP procedure as a mediator, which could be attributed to their insufficient cognition of the PPP procedure.

In the five cases of self-claimed teachers, only one teacher (i.e., Huang) had a clear concept about situational mediation. However, the other four teachers possessed incomplete knowledge of situational mediation functions, and among them, Zhang had no conception of mediation since she conceptualized the role of mediator as the transmitter only (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
INCOMPLETE KNOWLEDGE OF MEDIATION OF JIANG, LV, AND ZENG

Mediation Function	Teacher(s) (Who?)
Control of own behavior	Jiang, Lv, Zeng
Goal-setting	Lv, Zeng
Sharing	Jiang, Lv, Zeng
Individuality	Jiang
A sense of belonging	Jiang

On the basis of correct knowledge of situational mediation, Huang was able to implement situational mediation in the class due to favorable attitudes towards mediation and the absence of situational constraints (Mueller, 1986; Oskamp, 1991). Zhang encountered far fewer constraints compared with Jiang, Lv, and Zeng in the classroom practices, but she was unable to refrain from playing the traditional role of instructor because of the incorrect knowledge of mediation despite her positive attitudes towards the role of mediator. As a result, the five self-claimed teachers held distinct levels of mediative knowledge which influenced their behaviors differently since cognition was one of the fundamentals of their implementation of the mediator role (Attitudes, 2008; Mueller, 1986; Oskamp, 1991).

Findings and Discussion for RQ2: What Are EFL Teachers’ Classroom Practices in Relation to 12 Mediation Functions?

Most of the teacher participants in the questionnaire survey argued that they played the roles of situational mediator rather than the universal mediator. Around one third of the participating teachers claimed to play the PPP (presentation, practice, and production) instructor role. Item 3 of the questionnaire had a 5-point Likert-scale to measure the teachers’ assessment on how often they implemented each of the 12 MLE features. The respondents’ mediative behaviors in terms of the 12 statements were measured on a scale of 1 to 5, representing *never, sometimes, often, usually,* and *always* (see Appendix A). The mean scores of the 12 mediation features (marked *b1-b12*), frequencies, standard deviations, and ranking orders (according to *M*) as regards the teacher participants’ behaviors are shown in Table 4, which shows that the means of “a belief in positive outcomes” (1st), “sharing” (2nd), “a sense of competence” (3rd), and “control of own behavior” (4th) are ranked the four highest. By contrast, the scores for the first three features (i.e., universal mediation) are a little lower, in which, “purpose beyond the here and now” (12th) is rated lowest.

Regarding the participants’ mediative practices, it appeared that their own behavioral reports in the survey might be the only evidence before they were observed and interviewed. Most of them claimed to perform situational mediators or play “to some extent” either as they found universal mediation too difficult to implement or as they held no correct knowledge of universal mediation. The teacher participants’ classroom practices were restricted by situational constraints when they attempted to implement the situational mediator role. Though the subjects had no correct knowledge of universal mediation, some of them asserted that they were implementing the universal mediator role. They seemed to conform to social desirability which “is a response set characterized by answering questions in the direction that is most socially accepted, regardless of whether such an answer is actually correct for the response” (Liebert & Liebert, 1995, p. 242). No practitioners like to fall behind as they are urged to administer role shifts in the ongoing curriculum reforms of China.

In the five case studies, Huang was experienced in managing the classroom and had the abilities to involve each of the students in the learning activities. She was encouraging and showed positive attitudes towards teaching her students, acting as the role of mediator in many ways such as helping the students share and develop a sense of belonging and a strong belief in positive outcomes. She also gave more positive feedback rather than criticisms in terms of the students' performance. Huang designed the adequate tasks and activities for the students to participate in by allowing them opportunities for cooperative learning. Meantime, she showed much concern for the individual students and offered them constructive suggestions as well as realistic goals. So Huang played a mediator better than the others. Jiang, Lv, and Zeng held favorable attitudes towards mediation and possessed partial knowledge of mediation, but they were traditional instructors owing to the situational constraints that they encountered. Zhang's misconception of mediation and situational constraints made her go far beyond the execution of the role of mediator though she had positive attitudes towards the role of mediator.

TABLE 4
TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO THE BEHAVIORS RELATING TO MEDIATION

Question Item	Frequency					*M*	*SD*	Ranking
	1 Never	2 Sometimes	3 Often	4 Usually	5 Always			
b1. Shared intention	1	34	39	58	19	3.40	.994	8th
b2. Significance	3	40	56	34	18	3.16	1.014	9th
b3.Purpose beyond the here and now	9	72	30	32	8	2.72	1.034	12th
b4. A sense of competence	1	20	33	57	40	3.76	1.011	3rd
b5.Control of own behavior	1	17	35	61	35	3.75	.965	4th
b6. Goal-setting	2	18	35	64	30	3.68	.973	6th
b7.Challenge	9	53	40	31	18	2.97	1.131	10th
b8. Awareness of change	6	60	38	34	13	2.92	1.062	11th
b9. A belief in positive outcomes	2	8	15	54	72	4.23	.927	1st
b10.Sharing	1	16	33	58	42	3.83	.981	2nd
b11. Individuality	2	22	36	54	36	3.67	1.041	7th
b12. A sense of belonging	2	24	34	40	50	3.75	1.124	5th

IX. IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study show that teachers' poverty of knowledge of mediation prevented them from implementing the role of mediator. Many experts on mediation assert that the execution of the mediator role is extremely challenging to educators (e.g., Bligh, 1971; Feuerstein, 1980; Feuerstein & Feuerstein, 1999; Higgins, 2003; Johnson & Johnson, 1987; Seng et al., 2003; Williams & Burden, 2000). As Seng et al. (2003) put it,

The roles of teachers will have to change dramatically if they are to remain relevant to a new generation of students. The challenge is indeed for educators to design new learning environments and curricula that really encourage motivation and independence to equip students with learning, thinking, and problem-solving skills through good mediation. (p. 17)

EFL teachers therefore have to obtain professional training about mediation in order to perform as real mediators. Given the findings of this study, updating teachers' knowledge of mediation seems to hold great importance.

It is the first time that mediation theory has been put forward in the secondary school *Curriculum Standards* (MOE, 2001). The previous and current research studies have indicated that most EFL teachers have little or no exposure to knowledge of the role of mediation (e.g., Grosser & Waal, 2008; Guo, 2004; Lai, 2004; Sun, 2007; Xu, 2006). For instance, Zeng, in this study, who claimed to have learnt of mediation at university, was unable to implement mediative functions.

In China's educational setting, "it is not only necessary but also crucial in language teacher education programs to be conducted in the EFL context to achieve an understanding of language teachers' knowledge base to get a sense of where they are, to comprehend their teaching context, and to know their professional development needs" (Cheng & Wang, 2004, p. 4). Fisher (2005) has the following account in terms of this "knowledge base":

We know that effective teachers exhibit an impressive range of competencies, including *curriculum knowledge* (the content of teaching), *pedagogical knowledge* (the skills of teaching in theory and application, which include the skills of presentation, organization and management of learning), *psychological knowledge* of children as individuals and *sociological knowledge* of the nature of cultural and social groups. In addition, they need *evaluative skills* to assess children's learning and the effectiveness of their own teaching. (p. 144)

Consequently, *pedagogical knowledge* on the execution of the mediator role seems underscored in the case of teachers' re-training programs at issue in this study. Seng et al. (2003) believe that the research on MLE shows that teachers themselves will turn reflective and efficient regarding the execution of the mediator role if they possess a good command of Feuerstein's (1980) 12 MLE tools which contribute to teachers re-examining their roles as:

- facilitators for learning content knowledge

- facilitators for learning the process, heuristics, and strategies of learning a particular knowledge field
- mediators of knowledge sources (helping learners to learn to access information sources)
- mediators of lifelong learning (helping learners develop dispositions and mindsets for learning to learn)
- mediators of life-wide learning (helping learners transfer learning across contexts and disciplines)
- designers of the learning environment (p. 16)

Namely, teachers would become more reflective practitioners as mediators if they are prepared to be efficient learners of the MLE model. At this point, the challenge for teachers is to use good mediation to design new learning environments to qualify students for learning strategies, thinking skills, and problem-solving techniques because "as designers of the learning environment, teachers engage students in learning beyond the boundary of the classroom and the immediate human interactions, thus fostering in them independence and a higher level of interdependence" (Seng et al. 2003, pp. 16-17).

In the current study, moreover, Huang's case indicates that there are other approaches to teacher development besides attending teacher-training courses. For example, she could acquire the knowledge of mediation by reading relevant books, engaging in related research, and conducting the hands-on implementation of mediation under theoretical guidance. As Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995, cited in Liao, 2003) argue,

Teachers learn by doing, reading, and reflecting (just as students do); by collaborating with other teachers; by looking closely at students and their work; and by sharing what they see. This kind of learning enables teachers to make the leap from theory to accomplished practice. (p. 191)

X. Conclusions

Hopefully, the study is among the initial attempts to explore EFL teachers' knowledge and implementation of the mediator role. Based on the findings, a conclusion is drawn that most EFL teachers fail to mediate their students' learning. In China's present educational setting, however, implementing mediation is theoretically acceptable and practically feasible as illustrated by the case of Huang in this study. It is toughly challenging for EFL teachers to administer it smoothly due to the lack of the knowledge of mediation as well as the situational constraints associated with the education system, students, and teachers themselves. It is thus proposed that EFL teachers re-orient their roles from traditional instructor to mediator to adapt to the progress of the society at present.

Appendix A Mediation Questionnaire

Teacher ID: ____________

Dear participants**,**

I am conducting research on "Knowledge of mediation and its implementation among secondary school EFL teachers in China" and would appreciate a few minutes of your time in accomplishing this questionnaire to help with my ongoing research. Your responses will be used for research purposes and kept absolutely confidential. Be kindly informed that safe measures must be taken to ensure that your answered questionnaire sheet will not fall into any wrong hands. No participants will be named in the research. The validity of this survey depends on the extent to which your responses are open and frank. So you are warmly required to answer honestly.

Yours sincerely,

Xxx

Question 1: Do you have any idea of the term "mediator" in EFL teaching? Yes________ No_________. Please tick one choice between "YES" and "NO" at first. And then define or explain it if you answered "YES".

____

____

____

____

Question 2: Please read the following accounts on four EFL teachers' roles in their classrooms. Answer the questions that follow each account.

Teacher A thinks the teacher should make learners realize the significance of a learning task so that they can see the value of the task to their own. Learners should know how to conduct a learning activity will help them beyond the immediate time and place. In presenting a task, he makes instructions clear and ensures the intention is understood by the learners.

2.1. Is this teacher playing the role of mediator in his class?

Yes_______ No_______ Not sure ________

Please make comments on your answer here.

____

____

2.2. Is the role that you play in your own class like this?

Yes_______ No _______ To some extent ________

Please make comments on your answer here:

Teacher B argues that she fosters the learners' feelings of competence by encouraging them to control their own learning, thinking, and actions. She teaches the learners how to set realistic goals and to locate approaches of achieving them. Helping the learners to develop an internal need to confront challenges and then seek for new ones, she makes them monitor the changes in themselves, and understand human beings are constantly changing. During the activity, the learners' optimistic awareness is developed so that they realize the task is not as difficult as it seems to be.

2.3. Is this teacher playing the role of mediator in her class?

Yes_______ No_______ Not sure ________

Please make comments on your answer here.

2.4. Is the role that you play in your own class like this?

Yes_______ No _______ To some extent ________

Please make comments on your answer here:

Teacher C believes it important to make his students recognize that some problems are better solved by inviting them to share behaviors and co-operation among themselves on the basis of their own personality and the awareness of their own individuality and uniqueness. He also helps them to establish a sense of belonging to the whole class during the completion of the task.

2.5. Is this teacher playing the role of mediator in his class?

Yes_______ No_______ Not sure ________

Please make comments on your answer here.

2.6. Is the role that you play in your own class like this?

Yes_______ No _______ To some extent ________

Please make comments on your answer here:

Teacher D regards language as a system of grammatical structures. She teaches EFL basically to ensure that the students can use EFL correctly. The materials that she uses rely on teaching a list of grammatical structures. In her class, she follows the PPP procedure (i.e. presentation, practice, and production) for drilling new grammatical structures. Namely, she first presents a new grammatical structure, then directs her students to practice the structure in a controlled way, and finally asks them to use the structure in a free production activity.

2.7. Is this teacher playing the role of mediator in her class?

Yes_______ No_______ Not sure ________

Please make comments on your answer here.

2.8. Is the role that you play in your own class like this?

Yes_______ No _______ To some extent ________

Please make comments on your answer here:

Question 3: For each of the following 12 statements, please circle the figure from 1 for *never* to 5 for *always* that most closely agrees with your routine teaching practices. Consider your answers in the context of your current job or past work experience.

1= Never; 2= Sometimes; 3= Often; 4= Usually; 5= Always

How often do you:	Never	Sometimes	Often	Usually	Always
1. make your instructions clear when you give a task to your learners?	1	2	3	4	5
2. tell your learners why they are to do a particular activity?	1	2	3	4	5
3. explain to your learners how carrying out a learning activity will help them in the future?	1	2	3	4	5
4. help learners to develop a feeling of confidence in their ability to learn?	1	2	3	4	5

5. teach learners the strategies they need to learn effectively?	1	2	3	4	5
6. teach learners how to set their own goals in learning?	1	2	3	4	5
7. help your learners to set challenges for themselves and to meet those challenges?	1	2	3	4	5
8. help your learners to monitor changes in themselves?	1	2	3	4	5
9. help your learners to see that if they keep on trying to solve a problem, they will find a solution?	1	2	3	4	5
10. teach your learners to work co-operatively?	1	2	3	4	5
11. help your learners to develop as individuals?	1	2	3	4	5
12. foster in your learners a sense of belonging to a classroom community?	1	2	3	4	5

Question 4: Please complete the following demographic information as appropriate.

Name:___________ Gender:__________

Age: ____________ Year(s) of teaching EFL: ____________

Educational qualifications attained:

------Bachelor's Degree ------Two-Year Certificate

------Secondary School Certificate ------Others

The grade you are teaching in:

-------Junior Grade One ------Junior Grade Two

-------Junior Grade Three -------Senior Grade One

-------Senior Grade Two -------Senior Grade Three

The average number of the students in your class: __________

Your contact address and phone number (if applicable):

____

APPENDIX B CLASSROOM OBSERVATION WORKSHEET

Key: A = Not at all B = Little C = Partly D = Much E = Very much

Category	Tick & Comment
1. Significance	A B C D E Comment:
2. Purpose beyond the here and now	A B C D E Comment:
3. Shared intention	A B C D E Comment:
4. A sense of competence	A B C D E Comment:
5. Control of own behavior	A B C D E Comment:
6. Goal-setting	A B C D E Comment:
7. Challenge	A B C D E Comment:
8. Awareness of change	A B C D E Comment:
9. A belief in positive outcomes	A B C D E Comment:
10. Sharing	A B C D E Comment:
11. Individuality	A B C D E Comment:
12. A sense of belonging	A B C D E Comment:

APPENDIX C TEACHER INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

This interview is to help me better understand what happened and why that happened in your class that I observed. I am keen on why you taught in the way that you did and what obstacles you encountered in implementing the mediator role. You are welcome to make suggestions regarding the currently existing gap between theory and practice in mediation. The interview will take about 30 minutes. Your consent and co-operation will be greatly appreciated.

Interview Questions:

1. Please tell me of the observed lesson from the perspective of your own teaching role.

2. Have you received any particular training that supports you to plan in this way? Could you describe it more accurately?

3. Describe, if applicable, your teacher education program from the perspectives as follows:

a. Any central learning that you brought with you from the program into your classroom related to teaching roles.

b. How much of what you know, if any, concerning the mediation role that you learnt as a result of your teacher training, either pre-service or in-service.

4. If, beginning tomorrow, students in China were no longer expected to be confronted with the rigorous entrance exam competition, would you still mediate your EFL classroom, if any, or begin to do it? If so, why and how? If not, why?

5. Could you tell me any difficulties which you think prevent you from playing the mediation role in the classroom if you are not playing the mediator at present?

6. In what environment do you think EFL learners learn best? Could you offer me some suggestions on how to most effectively implement the role of mediation in China's settings?

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Xiongyong Cheng was born in Xinyang, China in 1966. He is an associate professor in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the Faculty of International Studies, Xinyang Agricultural College, China. His primary research interests are foreign language testing and assessment in relation to classroom instruction. He holds an MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) from Henan Normal University, China, and a PhD in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) from the University of Malaya, Malaysia.

His current research interests encompass EFL teaching, inter-cultural communication, teacher education, professional development, and the evaluation of curriculum implementation.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Cheng is awarded the title "National Excellent Education Gardener" by the Ministry of Education of China.

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Translating Metaphor and Simile from Persian to English: A Case Study of Khayyam's Quatrains

Morteza Zohdi
English Language Department, University of Applied Science & Technology, Center18, Tehran, Iran
Email: zohdilinguistics@yahoo.com

Ali Asghar Rostami Abou Saeedi
English Department, Faculty of Arts,University of Sistan & Baluchestan, Zahedan, Iran
Email: rostamiabu110@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—Metaphor and simile are two figures of speech which make comparison between two things. These two figures of speech are widely used by writers and poets in their literary works and Persian poets are no exception. Metaphor and simile often create problem for translators. These problems are even more complicated in poetry due to its compactness and its obligation to preserve the sound effects. This research intends to identify the most accurate translation made of the Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam in translating its metaphors and similes. Khayyam is a well-known poet in the west and certainly the most famous one. This fame is due to the translation of his Rubaiyat by the Victorian poet Edward FitzGerald. But FitzGerald has not rendered an accurate translation and has done a more or less a free translation. In his translation, many of the verses are paraphrased, and some of them cannot be confidently traced to any of Khayyam's quatrains at all. Other translators also have translated Rubaiyat. This study investigates two translations of Rubaiyat (i.e. FitzGerald and Arberry) with regard to similes and metaphors.**

***Index Terms*—Khayam, quaterian, rubaiyat, metaphor, simile**

I. Introduction

Translating figures of speech due to cultural and linguistic differences is a challenging task. This challenge multiplies when the translator has to deal with metaphors, and to a lesser degree, similes. It is even more difficult in poetry, because in poetry the translator has little options due to the sound devices and compactness of poetry. Above all, there is a great cultural gap between English and Persian, which makes it again more difficult. Even translation scholars admit the difficulty; Newmark (1981, p. 105) says "Whilst the central problem of translation is the overall choice of a translation method for a text, the most important particular problem is the translation of metaphor." Therefore, in this research the researcher intends to find out which strategies the translator has used in dealing with similes and metaphors in translating Khayyam's quatrain and also to see which translator has been more successful in transferring connotations and meanings of similes and metaphors.

The result of this study can be useful to the trainee translators and also to the researchers in the field of translation studies. The trainee translators can benefit from this research as it provides them with the aspects ignored by translators in dealing with simile and metaphor, especially simile and metaphor in poetry .Therefore the trainee translators can choose better options while translating simile and metaphor. Also researchers can benefit from the result of this research as it reveals the strategies adopted by translators in translating simile and metaphor and the aspects of the message which have not been adequately translated. Therefore researchers can use these results to devise a better strategy for translating simile and metaphor. Furthermore, one of the other goals of this research is to attract the attention of translators toward the issue of the problems on the way of accurate translation of Persian metaphor and simile into English as well as connecting linguistic findings of translation studies to the practice of translation.

A. Translation Process and the Act of Translating

Catford (1965, p. 20) defines translation as: "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)".

By translation here we mean the act or the process of translating. "Translation process" may be used to designate a variety of phenomena, from the cognitive processes activated during translating, both conscious and unconscious, to the more "physical" process which begins when a client contacts a translation bureau and ends when that person declares satisfaction with the product produced as the final result of the initial inquiry. In translation practice, of course, the cognitive aspects are activated under the influence of the physical aspects, and their interdependency for either research or educational purposes might be a bad idea. In his discussion of translation competence, Kiraly (1995, p. 139) presents his "doubly articulated view of translation processes: from the translator's perspective, looking outward toward the social situation in which professional translation occurs, and looking inward toward the mental processes going on in the individual translator's mind during the production of a translation". The two aspects are inseparable and, while particular studies will naturally tend to focus on one of these perspectives, it is important not to lose sight of the other.

Even when we decide to examine only the cognitive aspects, the problem of delineating the "translation process" is not over. House (2000, p. 150) points out that, in using the term "process of translation", "we must keep in mind that we are dealing here not with an isolable process but rather with a set of processes, a complex series of problem-solving and decision-making processes". She goes on to say that we can look upon the "process" as "any number of operations" performed by a translator while converting a source text into a translation text. Attempts have been made to isolate the different sub-processes that make up the process of translation.

According to House (2000), the selection and the sequencing of the various operations that make up the translation process is conditioned by "semantic, pragmatic, situation-specific and culture-specific constraints operating on two 'levels' – that of the source and that of the target language" and also by "the emergent translation text itself both in its physical realization and its on-line cognitive representation" (p.150–151).

Furthermore, Tirkkonen-Condit (2000, p. 123) claims that "no two processes are the same, even though the task is the same". Wilss (1996, p. 42) voices a similar opinion when he says that "translation is an activity that varies as we pass from one translator to the next, from one ST to the next, and from one TT readership to the next". Séguinot (1997, pp. 104–105) elaborates this point by saying that:

Different text types require different approaches; different people can translate the same text in different ways […]. Different levels of competence, familiarity with the material to be translated, as well as different interpretations of the nature of the assignment will lead to differences in processes and in the results. Even more specifically, there is potential for variation within the individual, that is, the possibility of there being different pathways to access language, interpret it, and produce it.

Séguinot explains the variability by describing translation as a "toolbox" rather than algorithmic skill. A toolbox skill implies that there is a variety of choices, which depend on a number of things, including "the nature of the assignment, the functions of the text, the translating ideology held by the individual or the institution initiating the request, as well as the pragmatics of the translating situation" (p.109).

B. Simile

Simile is much less investigated than metaphor therefore there is not much work about simile. Newmark (1981, p. 88) believes that similes "must normally be transferred in any type of text, but in sci-tech texts the simile should be culturally familiar to the TL reader". And he also believes since the whole point of a simile, like that of metaphor, is to produce an accurate description, it is pointless to tone it down with a smoother collocation. Larson (1984, p. 246-247) has discussed translating simile together with metaphor and believes that metaphor and simile are grammatical forms which represent two propositions in the semantic structure and she believes it can be very helpful to the translator to analyze it and find the two propositioned which are the semantic structure behind it. She believes that a metaphor or simile has four parts which are: topic, image, point of similarity and nonfigurative equivalent.

She believes in English simile is composed of two propositions and it has four parts which are:

1. Topic – the topic of the first proposition (nonfigurative), i.e. the thing really being talked about.
2. Image – the topic of the second proposition (figurative), i.e. what is being compared with.
3. Point of similarity – found in the comments of both the propositioned involved or the comment of the EVENT proposition which has the image as topic.
4. Nonfigurative equivalent – when the proposition containing the topic is an EVENT proposition, the COMMENT is the nonfigurative equivalent. (p. 247).

Larson also mentions that only when propositions and four parts of the simile have been identified, can an adequate translation be made into a second language.

She believes (p.254) a metaphor may be translated in five ways as follow (a simile would follow steps 3, 4, and 5):

1. The metaphor may be kept if the receptor language permits
2. A metaphor may be translated as a simile
3. A metaphor of the receptor language which has the same meaning may be substituted
4. The metaphor may be kept and the meaning explained (that is, the topic/or point of similarity be added)

The meaning of the metaphor may be translated without keeping the metaphorical imagery

C. Metaphor

According to Abrams (1999) in a metaphor, a word or expression that in literal usage denotes one kind of thing is applied to a distinctly different kind of thing, without asserting a comparison.

Metaphor brings forth the unique human ability to create and transmit ideas through the manipulation of language. metaphor is as old as the history of literature is. It is one of the main characters in the play of literature, indeed. For ages, it has been translated as a part of a literary or non-literary text and nobody had talked about its nature in translation, or proposed some procedures on how it can be translated before Newmark (1981).

D. Rubaiyat

Rubaiyat is the plural of Rubai. Rubai is a verse, a kind of quatrain rhymed *aaxa* .Rubai is known in west because of Rubaiyat *of Omar Khayyam* by FitzGerald. It is a free translation of Persian version of Rubaiyat. The historical Omar Khayyam (1048–1131), a Persian mathematician, is hardly one of the great poets of the Persian tradition. At the first when it was published, *Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam* didn't sell well. As Bloom (2004, p. 1) says.

FitzGerald's first *Rubáiyát* appeared in 1859, and would have vanished, unread and forgotten, except that a copy reached Dante Gabriel Rossetti, poet-painter and leader of the circle of Pre-Raphaelites. Rossetti indubitably must have recognized and enjoyed the Tennysonian coloring of the poem.

A decade before FitzGerald's death *Rubaiyat* became popular and brought him fame. And as Zare-Behtash (1994) remarks "Although Rubaiyat was unnoticed by the mid-Victorian English public, once it was noticed, it was never allowed to fall into neglect again" (p.205), and also Karlin (2009) says:

In the early twentieth century the poem was spoken of as one of the two or three best-known in the English-speaking world; ominously perhaps, it was also spoken of as the poem you would find on the shelves of people who knew no other poetry (p.xii).

FitzGerald has changed many of the poems into new poems and in some instances he has mixed two or three Rubai and created one. Some call this adaptation and not translation at all.

Though FitzGerald had other translations but only his translation of Rubaiyat made him famous. Critics have different views about the success of Rubaiyat. Some believe the reason for the popularity of Rubaiyat is due to its theme and the hedonistic philosophy behind it.

Other translators have also translated Rubaiyat of Khayyam like Arberry, Edward Heron-Allen, Omar Alishah and Robert Graves.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Material

The material for this research is the Persian text of Rubaiyat and two English translations, one by FitzGerald and the other by Arberry.

B. Procedures

First the metaphors and similes will be identified in the Persian text then the corresponding translations will be identified and at last based on Larson (1984) the strategy employed by the translators will be identified

According to Larson (1984, p. 254) a metaphor may be translated in five ways as follow (a simile would follow steps 3, 4, and 5):

1. The metaphor may be kept if the receptor language permits
2. A metaphor may be translated as a simile
3. A metaphor of the receptor language which has the same meaning may be substituted
4. The metaphor may be kept and the meaning explained (that is, the topic/or point of similarity be added)
5. The meaning of the metaphor may be translated without keeping the metaphorical imagery

There may be other strategies used by translators, which are not mention by Larson. Those strategies too will be identified.

C. Data Analysis

From the eighty three Rubais, thirty-five containing either simile or metaphor or both and translated by both Arberry and FitzGerald were found. Nine strategies employed by the translators in translating the metaphors were found.

Abbreviations:
FT = Fitzgerald's translation.
AT = Arberry's translation
Strategy for metaphor = strategy employed by the translator for translating metaphor
Strategy for simile = strategy employed by the translator for translating simile

khorshid kamande sobh bar bām fekand	خورشید کمند صبح بر بام فکند
keykhosrow rūze bādeh dar jām fekand	کیخسرو روز باده در جام فکند
mey khor ke monadi sahar khizān	می خور که منادی سحر خیزان
āvāze oshrebü dar ayyām fekand	آوازه اشربو در ایام فکند

Metaphor1: khorshid kamande sobh bār bām fekand
Literal translation: the sun cast the noose of morning on the roof
Meaning: sun came up and it became morning
Metaphor 2: monadie sahar khizān
Literal translation: harbinger of early risers
Meaning: the sun
(FT):
Awake! For Morning in the Bowl of Night
has flung the Stone that puts the Stars to Flight:

And Lo! The Hunter of the East has caught
The Sultan's Turret in a Noose of Light

Strategy for metaphor 1: translated with two metaphors in the last couplet which has also retained the meaning

Strategy for metaphor 2: a new metaphor which has changed the meaning

(AT):

The sun has cast the noose of morn
Athwart the roof-top of the world;
The emperor of the day has hurled
His bed, our goblet to adorn

Drink wine: for at the first dawn's rays
The proclamation of desire
Rang through the universe entire,
And bade men drink through all days.

Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation of the metaphor

Strategy for metaphor 2: the meaning of the metaphor has been conveyed without retaining the metaphor

ānān ke mohite fazl-o ādāb shodand	آنان که محیط فضل و آداب شدند
dar jam'e kamal sham'e ashāb shodand	در جمع کمال شمع اصحاب شدند
rah zin shabe tārik nabordand borūn	ره زین شب تاریک نبردند برون
goftand fesaneh'i-o dar khāb shodand	گفتند فسانه ای و در خواب شدند

Metaphor 1: sham'e ashāb shodand
Literal translation: became the candle of friends
Meaning: became the guide
Metaphor 2: shabe tārik
Literal translation: dark night
Meaning: mystery of creation and death
Metaphor 3: dar khab shodand
Literal translation: fell asleep
Meaning: died

(FT):

Then to the rolling Heav'n itself I cried,
Asking, "What Lamp had Destiny to guide
Her little Children stumbling in the Dark?"
And--"A blind understanding!" Heav'n replied.

Strategy for metaphor 1: a new metaphor which has changed the meaning

Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation

Strategy for metaphor 3: omission

(AT):

They who encompassed all high wit
And of fine words the mastery bore,
Who in discovery of deep lore
A lantern for their fellows lit:
Those never won to find a way
Out of the darkness of our night:
They had their legend to recite,
And in endless slumber lay

Strategy for metaphor 1: metaphor has been translated with a new metaphor with the same meaning

Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation

Strategy for metaphor 3: metaphor has been translated with a new metaphor with the same meaning

jāmist ke aghl āfarin mizanadash	جامیست که عقل آفرین میزندش
sad būseh ze mehr bar jabin mizanadash	صدبوسه زمهربرجبین میزندش
in kūzegar-e dahr chenin jāme latif	این کوزه گر دهر چنین جام لطیف
misāzado bāz zamin mizanadash	میسازد وباز برزمین میزندش

Metaphor 1: jāmist
Literal translation: a bowl
Meaning: human
Metaphor 2: kūzegar-e dahr
Literal translation: potter of age
Meaning: time

Metaphor 3: bar zamin mizanadash
Literal translation: throws it to the ground
Meaning: kills him
(FT):
That ev'n my buried Ashes such a Snare
Of Perfume shall fling up into the Air,
As not a True Believer passing by
But shall be overtaken unaware.
This Rubai is wholly a new poem and is not a translation
Strategy for metaphor 1: omission
Strategy for metaphor 2: omission
Strategy for metaphor 3: omission
(AT):
Riddle me this; a bowl I know
Which Reason doth high praise allow,
And in affection on its brow
A hundred kisses doth bestow.
Yet time, the fickle potter, who
So skillfully designed a cup
So fragile, loves to lift it up
And dash it to the earth anew.
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation with addition of meaning
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation

in kohne rebat ra ke ālam nām ast	این کهنه رباط را که عالم نام است
vārāmgahe ablaghe sobh-o shām ast	و آرامگه ابلق صبح و شام است
bazmist ke vāmāndeh sad Jamshid ast	بزمیست که وامانده صد جمشید است
qasrist ke tekye gāhe sad Bahrāmast	قصریست که تکیه گاه صد بهرامست

Metaphor 1: kohne rebat
Literal translation: old caravanserai
Meaning: the world
Metaphor 2: ārāmgahe ablagh e sobh o shām
Literal translation: pied resting place of morning and night
Meaning: place of day and night, place of sunrise and sunset
Metaphor 3: bazmi
Literal translation: a feast
Meaning : the world
Metaphor 4: sad Jamshid
Literal translation: a hundred Jamshid
Meaning: many powerful men, many kings
Metaphor 5: qasri
Literal translation: a palace
Meaning: the world
Metaphor 6: sad Bahrām
Literal translation: a hundred Bahrām
Meaning: many powerful men, many kings
(FT):
Think, in this batter'd Caravanserai
Whose Doorways are alternate Night and Day,
How Sultan after Sultan with his Pomp
Abode his Hour or two, and went his way.
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 2: the meaning of the metaphor has been translated without retaining the metaphor
Strategy for metaphor 3: omission
Strategy for metaphor 4: the meaning of the metaphor has been translated without retaining the metaphor
Strategy for metaphor 5: omission
Strategy for metaphor 6: the meaning of the metaphor has been translated without retaining the metaphor
(AT):
This ancient hostelry, which those
May call the World who have the knack,

A stable is where the poor hack
Of dawn and sunset takes repose

Here Jamshid once high revel kept
But know the feast is bare of him:
Bahram here hunted at his whim,
And here at last forever slept.
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 4: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 5: the meaning of the metaphor has been translated without retaining the metaphor
Strategy for metaphor 6: literal translation

ey dust biā tā ghame fardā nakhorim	ای دوست بیا تا غم فردا نخوریم
vin yek dame omr ghanimat shemorim	وین یک دم عمر غنیمت شمریم
fardā ke az in deyr kohan dar gozarim	فردا که از این دیر کهن درگذریم
bā haft hezār sālegan hamsafarim	با هفت هزار سالگان همسفریم

Metaphor 1: deire kohan
Literal translation: ancient monastery
Meaning: world
Metaphor 2: bā haft hezār sālegan hamsafarim
Literal translation: be companion with seven thousand years old people
Meaning: be with those who have died long ago
(FT):
Ah! my Beloved, fill the Cup that clears
To-day of past Regrets and future Fears
To-morrow?--Why, To-morrow I may be
Myself with Yesterday's Sev'n Thousand Years.
Strategy for metaphor 1: omission
Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation
(AT):
Come, let us not consume with care
For what to-morrow may portend,
But let us count for gain, my friend,
The ready moment that we share.
For in the morn when we are sped
From earth's most ancient hostelry,
We join the immortal company
Of those ten thousand ages dead.
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation with addition of meaning

afsūs ke nāmehe javāni tay shod	افسوس که نامه جوانی طی شد
vān tāze bahār zendegāni day shod	وان تازه بهار زندگانی دی شد
ān morghe tarab ke nāme oū būd shabāb	آن مرغ طرب که نام او بود شباب
faryād ke nadānam kay āmad kay shod	فریاد که ندانم کی آمد کی شد

Metaphor 1: nāmehe javāni
Literal translation: book of youth
Meaning: years of being youth
Metaphor 2: tāze bahār zendegāni
Literal translation: early spring of life
Meaning: youth
Metaphor 3: day shod
Literal translation became day(the first month of winter in Iranian calendar)
Meaning: became old
Metaphor 4: morghe tarab
Literal translation: bird of happiness
Meaning: youth
(FT):
Alas, that Spring should vanish with the Rose!
That Youth's sweet-scented Manuscript should close!

The Nightingale that in the Branches sang,
Ah, whence, and whither flown again, who knows!
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 2:literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 4: the meaning has been conveyed without retaining the metaphor
(AT):
Alas, that at the last must close
The tender tale of boyhood’s day,
And life’s delightful fragile May
Lie buried in December’s snows.
I can not tell, alas, in truth
How ever dwelt among us men
How ever fluttered from our ken
That sweet, elusive song bird, youth.
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation with addition of meaning
Strategy for metaphor 2: metaphor has been translated with a new metaphor with the same meaning
Strategy for metaphor 3: metaphor has been translated with a new metaphor with the same meaning
Strategy for metaphor 4: literal translation

zān pish ke bar shabikhūn ārand	زان پیش که بر سرت شبیخون ارند
farmāy ke ta bādeh golgūn ārand	فرمای که تا باده گلگون آرند
to zar nei ghāfel nādān ke to rā	تو زر نه ای غافل نادان که تو را
dar khāk nahand o bāz birūn ārand	در خاک نهند و باز بیرون آرند

Metaphor 1: shabikhūn ārand
Literal translation: raid you
Meaning: die
Metaphor 2: dar khāk nahand
Literal translation: put into earth
Meaning: bury after death
Metaphor 3: bāz birūn ārand
Literal translation: dig up
Meaning: resurrect
(FT):
And those who husbanded the Golden Grain,
And those who flung it to the Winds like Rain,
Alike to no such aureate Earth are turn'd
As, buried once, Men want dug up again.
Strategy for metaphor 1: omission
Strategy for metaphor 2: translation of the meaning without retaining the metaphor
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation
(AT):
Now, in this hour ere night descend
And griefs assail and slay the soul,
Bid them bring forth the crimson bowl
and pour the wine, beloved friend.
Think not, my foolish, silly swain,
Thou art as gold, that on a day
Men should commit thee to cold clay
Thereafter to bring out again
Strategy for metaphor 1: metaphor has been translated with a new metaphor with the same meaning
Strategy for metaphor 2: metaphor has been translated with a new metaphor with the same meaning
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation

gūyand kasān behesht bā hūr khosh ast	گویند کسان بهشت با حور خوشست
man migūyam ke āb angūr khosh ast	من میگویم که آب انگور خوشست
in naghd begiro dast az ān nesiy’e bedār	این نقد بگیر و دست از آن نسیه بدار
kāwāze dohol shenidan az dūr khoshast	کاواز دهل شنیدن از دور خوشست

Metaphor1: āb angūr
Literal translation: grape juice
Meaning: wine
Metaphor 2: naghd

Literal translation: cash
Meaning: worldly and available pleasures
Metaphor 3: nesiy’e
Literal translation: credit
Meaning: promised pleasures in heaven
(FT):
How sweet is <u>mortal Sovranty</u>!"--think some:
Others--"How blest the Paradise to come!"
Ah, take the <u>Cash in hand</u> and waive <u>the Rest</u>;
Oh, the brave Music of a distant Drum!
Strategy for metaphor 1: meaning has been translated without retaining the metaphor
Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 3: the meaning has been translated without retaining the metaphor
(AT):
Men say, that heav’n is perfect bliss
With dark-eyed maids to sport all day;
<u>The juice of grape</u>, I dare to say,
Is sweeter, and the cup to kiss.
Leave <u>credit-joys</u> to such as are
Thereby bemused, and as it comes
Seize thy <u>cash-happiness</u>; <u>for drums</u>
<u>Make fairest music played afar</u>.
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation
Strategy for metapghor 2: literal translation of the metaphor with meaning explained.
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation of the metaphor with meaning explained.

in qafele omr ajab migozarad!	این <u>قافله عمر</u> عجب میگذرد !
daryāb dami ke bā tarab migozarad!	دریاب دمی که با طرب میگذرد!
Sāqi ghame farādye harifān che khori?	ساقی غم فردای حریفان چه خوری؟
Pishār piāleh rā ke shab migozarad!	پیش آر پیاله را که شب میگذرد!

Metaphor: qafele omr
Literal translation: caravan of life
Meaning: passing of years and life
(FT):
One Moment in Annihilation's Waste,
One moment, of the Well of Life to taste—
The Stars are setting, and the <u>Caravan</u>
Starts for the <u>dawn of Nothing</u>--Oh, make haste!
Strategy for metaphor: literal translation plus addition of a new metaphor
(AT):
Alas, how wondrous suddenly
The <u>caravan of life</u> goes by:
’Tis well, this moment ere we die
To speed in happiness and glee.
Saki, why dreadest thou to-day
The resurrection’s morn of fear ?
Pass me the wine, while we are here;
The night is slipping fast away.
Strategy for metaphor: literal translation

ey del hame asbābe jahān hkāsteh gir	ای دل همه اسباب جهان خواسته گیر
bāghe tarabat be sabze ārāsteh gir	<u>باغ طربت</u> به سبزه آراسته گیر
vāngāh bar sare ān sabze shabi chon shabnam	وآنگاه بر سر آن سبزه شبی <u>چون شبنم</u>
benshaste va bāmdād bar khāste gir	بنشسته و بامداد برخواسته گیر

Metaphor: bāghe tarabat
Literal translation: your garden of happiness
Meaning: happy times of your life
Simile: bar sare ān sabze shabi chon shabnam benshaste
Meaning: sit on the meadow like dew
(FT):
The Worldly Hope men set their Hearts upon
Turns Ashes--or it prospers; and anon,

Like Snow upon the Desert's dusty Face,
Lighting a little hour or two--is gone.
Strategy for metaphor: omission
Strategy for simile: completely different simile
(AT):
Take it, my heart, all worldly ease
And longed-for joy is thine to hold;
Thy garden of delight untold,
Fringed round with meadows and green trees;
And take it, too, that one brief night
Like dew thou sittest on the mead,
But on the morrow, with all speed,
Shalt rise, and vanish out of sight.
Strategy for metaphor: literal translation
Strategy for simile: a new simile with change in meaning

har sabze ke bar kenār jūei raste ast	هر سبزه که بر کنار جویی رسته است
gūei ze labe fereshteh khūei raste ast	گویی ز لب فرشته خویی رسته است
pā bar sare sabze tā be khāri nanahi	پا بر سر سبزه تا به خواری ننهی
kān sabze ze khāk māhrūei raste ast	کان سبزه ز خاک ماهرویی رسته است

Simile: gūei ze labe fereshteh khūei raste ast
Meaning: it is like it has grown from the dust's of an angel mannered maid
(FT):
And this delightful Herb whose tender Green
Fledges the River's Lip on which we lean—
Ah, lean upon it lightly! for who knows
From what once lovely Lip it springs unseen!
Strategy for simile: translated literally with a metaphor
(AT):
O every grass so sweet and green
That springs beside the purling stream
Is the soft down, as it doth seem,
Of buried beauty, once serene.
Tread not with so indifferent care
Upon the meadow; for alas!
Where now thy foot is pressed on grass
Lie rosy cheeks of maidens fair.
Strategy for simile: literally translated with a metaphor

hengāme sabūh ay sanam farrokh pay	هنگام صبوح ای صنم فرخ پی
bar sāz tarāneh-o pish āvar may	برساز ترانه و پیش آور می
kafkand bekhāk sad hezārān jam –o kay	کافکند بخاک صد هزاران جم و کی
in āmadan Tir mah o raftan Day	این آمدن تیر مه و رفتن دی

Metaphor1: sanam
Literal translation: idol
Meaning: beloved
Metaphor 2: Jam o kay
Literal translation: Jamshid and keikhosro = two Persian kings
Meaning: powerful men, kings
Metaphor 3: amadane Tir mah o raftane Day
Literal translation: the bcoming of Tir month (first month of summer in Persian calendar) and passins of Dei month (first month of winter in persian calendar).
(FT):
For "IS" and "IS-NOT" though with Rule and Line,
And, "UP-AND-DOWN" without, I could define,
I yet in all I only cared to know,
Was never deep in anything but--Wine.
This translation is a completely different poem
Strategy for metaphor 1: omission
Strategy for metaphor 2: omission
Strategy for metaphor 3: omission
(AT):
'Tis time to quaff the morning cup:

My lucky-footed lad, arise !
Play music to the rosy skies
And bring the bowl, and fill it up.
A hundred thousand such as those
Famed tyrants who have swayed the earth
In burning June were brought to birth
And buried by December's snows

Strategy for metaphor 1: translation of wrong meaning
Strategy for metaphor 2: meaning has been translated without retaining the metaphor
Strategy for metaphor3: metaphor has been translated with a new metaphor with the same meaning

asrāre azal rā na to dāni va na man اسرار ازل را نه تو دانی و نه من
vin halle mo'ammā na to dāni va na man وین حل معما نه تو دانی و نه من
hast az pase parde goftogūye man-o- to هست از پس پرده گفتگوی من و تو
chon parde baroftad na to māni va na man چون پرده بر افتد نه تو مانی و نه من

Metaphor 1: asrāre azal
Literal translation: the mysteries of the time without a beginning
Meaning: the mystery of creation and birth and death
Metaphor 2: mo'ammā
Literal translation: riddle
Meaning; mystery of creation and birth and death
Metaphor 3: parde
Literal translation: curtain
Meaning: the unknown mystery of creation and birth and death

(FT):
There was a Door to which I found no Key:
There was a Veil past which I could not see:
Some little Talk awhile of ME and THEE
There seemed--and then no more of THEE and ME

Strategy for metaphor 1: metaphor has been translated with a new metaphor with the same meaning
Strategy for metaphor 2: omission
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation

(AT):
The secrets of Eternity
Are far beyond our finite ken:
We cannot riddle what the Pen
Of Fate has scribed for you and me.
In casual converse we engage
Behind the curtain of our day;
But when the curtain falls, the play
Is done, and desolate the stage.

Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation

emshab may jām yek mani khāham kard امشب می جام یک منی خواهم کرد
khod rā bedo jām may ghani khāham kard خود را بدو جام می غنی خواهم کر
avval se talāghe aghl o din khāham goft اول سه طلاق عقل و دین خواهم گفت
pas dokhtare raz rā be zani khāham kard پس دختر رز را به زنی خواهم کرد

Metaphor 1: se talāghe aghl o din khāham goft
Literal translation: I will divorce religion and reason thrice
Meaning: I will abandon faith and reason completely
Metaphor 2: dokhtare raz rā be zani khāham kard
Literal translation: I will marry the daughter of wine
Meaning: I will drink a lot of wine

(FT):
You know, my Friends, how long since in my House
For a new Marriage I did make Carouse:
Divorced old barren Reason from my Bed,
And took the Daughter of the Vine to Spouse.

Strategy for metaphor 1: partial literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation

(AT):

Now with a glass one measure high
Grief I will slay, old foe of mine
And, having quaffed two pints of wine,
Count no man half as rich as I.
First, in divorce thrice over cried,
Reason and Faith I'll put away,
Then take, to crown my happy day,
The daughter of the grape for bride
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation of metaphor with meaning explained
Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation of the metaphor with addition of another metaphor

ay kash ke jāye āramidan būdi	ای کاش که جای آرمیدن بودی
yā in rahe dūr rā residan būdi	یا این ره دور را رسیدن بودی
kāsh az pay sad hezār sāl az del khāk	کاش از پی صد هزار سال از دل خاک
chon sabze omide bar damidan būdi	چون سبزه امید بر دمیدن بودی

Simile: chon sabze omide bar damidan būdi
Literal translation: like grass there was a hope of spring again
Meaning: to be become alive again after death
(FT):
Would but the Desert of the Fountain yield
One glimpse—if dimly, yet indeed, reveal'd,
To which the fainting Traveler might spring,
As springs the trampled herbage of the field!
Strategy for simile: Literal translation with addition of some words
(AT):
Ah, would there were a little space
Where I might lay me down in peace,
That my far journeying should cease
At some sequestered resting-place:
And, as a thousand ages pass,
There might be hope from the dark earth
In a new miracle of birth
To spring again, like summer's grass
Strategy for simile: literal translation

gadrūn negari ze ghade farsūde māst	گردون نگری ز قد فرسوده ماست
Jeyhūn asari ze ashke palūdeye māst	جیحون اثری ز اشک پالوده ماست
dūzakh sharari ze ranje bihūdeye māst	دوزخ شرری ز رنج بیهوده ماست
ferdaws dami ze vaghte asūdeye māst	فردوس دمی ز وقت آسوده ماست

Metaphor 1: gadrūn negari ze ghade farsūde māst
Literal translation: the Heavens are a vision of our weary body
Meaning: what people call Heavens is in fact the passage of time and wearing of our body
Metaphor 2 Jeyhūn asari ze ashke palūdeye māst
Literal translation: Oxus is a mark of our fine tear
Meaning: what people call Oxus is in fact a mark of our tear
Metaphor 3: dūzakh sharari ze ranje bihūdeye māst
Literal translation: Hell is a spark of our useless agony
Meaning: what people call hell is in fact those moments which we suffer
Metaphor 4: ferdaws dami ze vaghte asūdeye māst
Literal translation: Paradise is a moment of our ease
Meaning: what people call paradise, is in fact those moments which we are at ease
(FT):
Heav'n but the Vision of fulfill'd Desire,
And Hell the Shadow from a Soul on fire,
Cast on the Darkness into which Ourselves,
So late emerged from, shall so soon expire.
Strategy for metaphor 1: omission
Strategy for metaphor 2: omission
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 4: literal translation
(AT):
The Heavens are girdle bound

About my shrunk and weary thighs;
A trickle from my tea-stained eyes
Great Oxus, surging o'er the ground
Hell is a spark that upward spires
Out of my unavailing sigh,
And Paradise, a moment I
Am easy with my heart's desires
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 2; literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 4: literal translation

dar kargah kūzegari raftam dūsh	در کارگه کوزه گری رفتم دوش
didam do hezār kūze gūyā va khamūsh	دیدم دوهزار کوزه گویا و خموش
nāgāh yeki kūze barāvard khorūsh	ناگاه یکی کوزه برآورد خروش
ku kūze gar-o kūze khar-o kūze forūsh?	کو کوزه گر و کوزه خر و کوزه فروش؟

Metaphor 1: kūze gar
Literal translation: potter
Meaning: the jug which has been made of the potter's body
Metaphor 2: kūze khar
Literal translation: jug buyer
Meaning: the jug which has been made of the jug buyer's body
Metaphor3: kūze forūsh
Literal translation: jug seller
Meaning: the jug which has been made of the jug seller's body
(FT):
Whereat some one of the loquacious Lot—
I think a Sufi pipkin—waxing hot—
"All this of Pot and Potter—Tell me then,
Who is the Potter, pray, and who the Pot?"
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation
(AT):
Last evening in the potter's store
Two thousand heads I counted, each
A pot, some gifted still with speech,
Some fallen silent evermore.
And suddenly one pot, more bold,
Lifted his voice upon the air:
"Where is the potter now, and where
Are they that bought, and they that sold?"
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 2: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation

afsūs ke sarmāye ze kaf birūn shod	افسوس که سرمایه ز کف بیرون شد
vaz dast ajal basi jegarhā khūn shod	وز دست اجل بسی جگر ها خون شد
kas nāmad az ān jahan ke porsam az vay	کس نامد از آن جهان که پرسم از وی
kahvāl mosāferān donyā chūn shod	کاحوال مسافران دنیا چون شد

Metaphor 1: sarmāye ze kaf birūn shod
Literal translation: asset went away from the hand
Meaning: the years of life passed
Metaphor 2: basi jegarhā khūn shod
Literal translations: many livers became blood
Meaning: many people were agonized
Metaphor 3: mosāferān donyā
Literal translation: passengers of the world
Meaning: the dead people
(FT):
Strange, is it not? that of the myriads who
Before us pass'd the door of Darkness through,

Not one returns to tell us of the Road,
Which to discover we must travel too.
Strategy for metaphor 1: omission
Strategy for metaphor 2: omission
Strategy for metaphor 3: meaning has been translated with addition of another metaphor
(AT):
Ah, life's precious capital
Was spilled so soon and drained away,
That Destiny in ambush lay
For many hearts, to slay them all:
And, for the world that after waits,
No man has ever come from there
To bring us tidings, how they fare
Whose journey lies beyond its gates.
Strategy for metaphor 1: literal translation
Strategy for metaphor 2: metaphor has been translated with a new metaphor with the same meaning
Strategy for metaphor 3: literal translation

bar kūze gari parir kardam gozari	بر کوزه گری پریر کردم گذری
az khāk hami nemūd har dam honari	از خاک همی نمود هر دم هنری
man didam agar nadid har basari	من دیدم اگر ندید هر بصری
khāke pedaram dar kafe har kūzegary	خاک پدرم در کف هر کوزه گری

Metaphor: khāke pedaram dar kafe har kūzegary
Literal translation: the clay of my father in the hand of every pottery
Meaning: our body becomes dust and will be used as dust by other generations
(FT):
Listen again. One Evening at the Close
Of Ramazan, ere the better Moon arose,
In that old Potter's Shop I stood alone
With the clay Population round in Rows.
Strategy for metaphor: omission
(AT):
As I was passing yesterday
Where potters play their skilful trade
I watched amazed, as each displayed
His cunning with the pliant clay
And I behold, as scarce I trust
They see who lack the gift of sight,
Those bowls they shaped for our delight
Where moulded from our father's dust.
Strategy for metaphor: meaning has been translated without retaining the metaphor

ay rafte be chogāne ghazā hamchon gū	ای رفته بچوگان قضا همچون گو
chap mikhorad o rāst miravad hich magū	چپ میخورد و راست می رود هیچ مگو
kānkas ke torā fekandeh andar tako pū	کانکس که ترا فکنده اندر تک و پو
oū danado oū danado oū danado oū	او داند و او داند و او داند و او

Simile: ay rafte be chogāne ghazā hamchon gū
Literal translation: o the one who is gone by force of polo-stick like a ball
Meaning: human is manipulated by fate like a ball who is manipulated by polo-stick
(FT):
The Ball no Question makes of Ayes and Noes,
But Right or Left as strikes the Player goes;
And He that toss'd Thee down into the Field,
He knows about it all--HE knows--HE knows!
Strategy for simile: simile has been translated by a metaphor
(AT):
Swirling and spinning like a ball
Before the polo-stick of Fate
Run right or left, yet run thou strait
And never speak a word at all:
Remembering that He Who throws
Into the field of mortal play

Thy ball and mine to spin to-day,
He knows the game, he knows, he knows!

Strategy for simile: literal translation

zenhār ze jāme may marā qūt konid	زنهار ز جام می مرا قوت کنید
vin chehre kahrobā cho yāghūt konid	وین چهره کهربا چو یاقوت کنید
chon mordeh shavam bebāde shū'id marā	چون مرده شوم بباده شویید مرا
vaz chūb razam takhteye tābūt konid	وز چوب رزم تخته ی تابوت کنی

Simile: vin chehre kahrobā cho yāghūt konid
Literal translation: and make this amber-colored face red like ruby
Meaning: change the color of my face to red
(FT):
Ah, with the Grape my fading Life provide,
And wash my Body whence the life has died,
And in a Windingsheet of Vine-leaf wrapt,
So bury me by some sweet Garden-side.

Strategy for simile: omission

(AT):
Oh let me with good wine be fed-
My dear companions, do not fail!-
Until my cheeks, now amber-pale,
Be changed to rubies, rich and red.
And when I die, as die I must,
Wash my cold body all with wine;
Carve me the timber of the vine
For coffin, to preserve my dust

Strategy for simile: simile has been translated by a metaphor

yārān cho be ettefāq mi'ād konid	یاران چو باتفاق میعاد کنید
khod rā bejamāl yekdegar shād konid	خود را بجمال یکدیگر شاد کنید
sāqi cho may moqāne dar kaf girad	ساقی چو می مغانه در کف گیرد
bichāre folān rā bedo'ā yād konid	بیچاره فلان را بدعا یاد کنید

Metaphor: bichāre folān
Literal translation: the poor fellow
Meaning: Khayyam
(FT):
And when Thyself with shining Foot shall pass
Among the Guests Star-scatter'd on The Grass,
And in Thy joyous Errand reach the Spot
Where I made one--turn down an empty Glass!

Strategy for metaphor: meaning has been translated without retaining the metaphor

(AT):
When ye are met in harmony,
Beloved friend, in after days,
And on each other's beauty gaze,
And are rejoiced by what ye see;
And when the saki, standing there,
Takes in his hand Magian wine,
Think on the anguish that is mine
And O, recall me in prayer.

Strategy for metaphor: meaning has been translated without retaining the metaphor

bā to bekharābāt agar gūyam rāz	با تو بخرابات اگر گویم راز
beh zānkeh bemehrāb konam rāzo niāz	به زانکه بمحراب کنم راز و نیاز
ay aval o ay ākhare khalghān hame to	ای اول و ای آخر خلقان همه تو
khāhi to marā besūz khāhi benavāz	خواهی تو مرا بسوز خواهی بنواز

Metaphor 1: ay aval o ay ākhare khalghān hame to
Literal translation: oh the One Who is the First and the Last of all people
Meaning: Oh God, Who create and make us all die
Metaphor 2: khāhi to marā besūz
Literal translation: burn me if you want
Meaning: put me in the Hell in Doomsday if you want
Metaphor 3: khāhi benavāz

Literal translation: caress me if you want
Meaning: put me in paradise in Doomsday if you want
(FT):
And this I know: whether the one True Light,
Kindle to Love, or Wrath consume me quite,
One Glimpse of It within the Tavern caught
Better than in the Temple lost outright.
Strategy for metaphor 1: omission
Strategy for metaphor 2: metaphor has been translated with a new metaphor with the same meaning
Strategy for metaphor 3: metaphor has been translated with a new metaphor with the same meaning
(AT):
Better tavern, and with wine
To lay Thee all my secrets bare,
Than to intone the parrot prayer
And thou not with me, in the shrine
Thy Name is last and first to tell;
Whatever is, save thee, is nil;
Then cherish me, if so Thy Will
Be done-or burn my soul in Hell!
Strategy for metaphor 1: meaning translated without retaining the metaphor (based on translator's interpretation of the meaning).
Strategy for metaphor 2: meaning has been translated without retaining the metaphor
Strategy for metaphor 3: meaning translated without retaining the metaphor

vaghte sahar ast khiz ay māyeye nāz	وقت سحر است خیز ای مایه ناز
narm narmak bādeh khoro chang navāz	نرم نرمک باده خور و چنگ نواز
kānha ke bejāyand napāyand basi	کانها که بجایند نپایند بسی
vānhā ke shodand kas nemiayad bāz	وآنها که شدند کس نمی آید باز

Metaphor: māyeye nāz
Literal translation: the cause of beauty and sweetness
Meaning: beloved
(FT):
And, as the Cock crew, those who stood before
The Tavern shouted—"Open then the Door.
You know how little while we have to stay,
And, once departed, may return no more."
Strategy for metaphor: omission
(AT):
It is the time of dawn: upspring,
Sweet beauty delicately fine,
And slowly, slowly sip the wine,
And sweep the lute's melodious string.
For all now sojourning on Earth
Noy long, not ever shall abide;
And of the others, who have died,
Not one shall come again to birth.
Strategy for metaphor: meaning has been translated without retaining the metaphor

TABLE 4.1
STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY EACH TRANSLATOR IN TRANSLATING METAPHORS

	Arberry's translation	Fitzgerald's translation	total	
Different metaphor with same meaning	11	8	19	
Literal translation (keeping the metaphor)	37	17	54	
Literal translation+ meaning explained	8	1	9	
Meaning translated without metaphor	10	11	21	
Tr. by a metaphor with different meaning	0	2	2	
Omission	0	27	27	
Wrong meaning translated	1	0	1	
Literal translation + addition of another metaphor	2	1	3	
Partial literal translation	0	2	2	
Total	69	69	138	

TABLE 4.2
STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY EACH TRANSLATOR IN TRANSLATING METAPHORS

	Arberry's translation	FitzGerald's translation	Total
Literal translation	3	0	3
Translated literally with metaphor	2	2	4
Tr. with different simile with different meaning	1	1	2
Omission	0	1	1
Meaning without Simile	0	1	1
Literal translation plus addition of some words	0	1	1
Total	6	6	12

III. CONCLUSION

This study was done in order to find the strategies employed by translators of Khayyam in translating the metaphors and similes. Thirty-five Rubais were found which contained either simile or metaphor or both and were translated by both Arberry and FitzGerald. It should be noted that some of the Fitzgerald's translation cannot be matched with their original texts because they are completely different. Nine strategies were found which had been used by the translators in translating the metaphors which are: literal translation, different metaphor with the same meaning, literal translation of the metaphor plus meaning explained, meaning translated without keeping the metaphor, translation by a metaphor with different meaning, translation of the wrong meaning, omission of the metaphor, literal translation plus addition of another metaphor and partial literal translation. Arberry has used seven strategies and Fitzgerald eight strategies. It cannot be said that the strategies used were all deliberate by the translator.

Khayyam has used few similes in his poems. In this analysis six were found which had both been translated and six strategies were employed by the translator. Those strategies are: literal translation, translation with a metaphor, translation with different simile with different meaning, omission, translation of meaning without retaining the simile, literal translation plus addition of some words

Since the translators have better translated metaphors we can conclude Arberry has translated metaphors better due to several reasons, an some of them are as follows:

1. Arberry has omitted none of the metaphors but FitzGerald has omitted 27 of the metaphors
2. Arberry has used 37 literal translation of the original metaphors but FitzGerald has used 17
3. Arberry has been more creative and has created 11 metaphors with same meaning but FitzGerald has only created 8

So Arberry has been more successful in his translation and transferred the metaphors and their meaning more successfully.

As for similes, though they are slightly similar but again we can say that Arberry has translated them better due to following reasons:

1. Arberry has translated 3 of them literally but FitzGerald has only translated one of the similes literally and he has added some other words to it.
2. Arberry has not omitted any of the similes in the translation but FitzGerald has omitted one.

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Morteza Zohdi is currently a lecturer of English language and linguistics at university of Applied Science and Technology, Center 18, Tehran, Iran. He has been engaged in teaching English language for more than five years. He holds M.A in Translation studies, B.A in Translation Studies. He has published a number research projects and articles in his area of interest in academic journals.

Ali Asghar Rostami Abu Saeedi is currently Associate Professor of English Language and Literature at University of Sistan and Baluchestan, Zahedan, Iran. He has been engaged in teaching English language and linguistics for more than twenty year. He holds Ph.D. in English Language and Literature from Liverpool University, M.A. in linguistics and B.A. in English language. He has published a number research project and articles in his area of interest in academic journals. He has editor of some scientific journals.

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Request Strategies in Contemporary Chinese Teledramas—A Corpus-based Study*

Shengli Wang
School of Foreign Studies, Henan Agricultural University, Zhengzhou, China
Email: victor@henau.edu.cn

***Abstract*—This study was designed to explore the issue of request strategies in the Chinese setting by establishing a corpus of vedio clips of contemporary Chinese teledramas on the basis of an overview of previous studies on Chinese request strategies. In the present study, we chose 3970 short sequences of video clips from 35 Chinese teledramas which vividly describe the Chinese people's life in the contemporary times. Taking the two variables of power and distance as reference points, nine situations were designed in this study. Elaborate request strategies were expected to be consecutively elicited in the nine situations of the 35 contemporary Chinese teledrama serials from the perspectives of social power and social distance in the section. It offered a new research method and idea for the future speech acts research.**

***Index Terms*—request strategies, corpus, contemporary Chinese, teledramas**

I. Introduction

A speech act is an utterance that serves a function in communication. We perform speech acts when we offer a request, apology, greeting, complaint, invitation, compliment, or refusal. Austin (2002, p.137) puts request, a kind of act for asking somebody to do something, into the category of executives which show the exercising of power, right, or influence. Lyons (1977, p.745) subsumes "commands" and "requests" under the general term "mands" which are a subclass of "directives". He notes that the crucial difference between a "request" and a "command" is that the former leaves to the hearer the option of refusing to comply, whereas the latter does not. Searle (2001, p.21) puts request together with command and order under directives whose illocutionary point is to get the hearer to do something. Leech (1983, p.219) places "command" and "request" into the same category of "directives", however, he does note that one of the crucial differences between the two is that a "command" has the feature "unconditional", viz., S assumes that H will comply, whereas a "request" has the feature "conditional", meaning S assumes that the "directive" will only take effect if H agrees. Searle & Vanderveken (1985, p.199) also suggest "A request ... allows for the possibility of refusal." This study was designed to explore the issue of request strategies in the Chinese setting by establishing a corpus of vedio clips of contemporary Chinese teledramas on the basis of an overview of previous studies on Chinese request strategies.

II. Literature Review

Requests impose upon the hearer to a larger or smaller extent (Brown & Levinson, 1978, p.57). The desired goal may not be reached, and the hearer may be embarrassed, or the interpersonal relationship may be damaged, if they are not made appropriately. Different strategies are employed in different situations to achieve goals: to make the request accepted and done. Here we will go further to explore the choice of requests from the perspective of semantic functions: directness and indirectness.

Requests may embody a kind of interpersonal relationship in discourse, so the corresponding studies from the perspective of directness degree seem more convincing and reasonable. A request can be more or less direct (Searle, 1976, p.1-24). By directness, we mean the degree to which the speaker's illocutionary intent is apparent from the locution. It is related to, but by no means coextensive with, politeness (Blum-Kulka, 1987, p.131-146). A request strategy is the obligatory choice of the level of directness by which the request is realized. Three general degrees can be distinguished to represent a universally valid scale of directness, where directness is defined as a measure of illocutionary transparency according to Blum-Kulka & House (as cited in Blum-Kulka & Kasper 1989, p.123-154). The more direct a given request strategy type is, the shorter the inferential path to the requestive interpretation. Such a request can then be said to be more illocutionarily transparent. These three levels are direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect (ibid, p.133). With the direct requests, the illocutionary force is indicated in the utterance by grammatical, lexical or semantic means; conventionally indirect requests express the illocution via fixed linguistic conventions established in the speech community; and non-conventionally indirect requests require the hearer to compute the illocution from the interaction of the locution with its contexts.

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We would like to give a brief introduction to Chinese scholars, who made studies on requests, such as Huang (1996), Zhang Shaojie & Wang Xiaotong (1997), Gao Hong (1999), Song Mei & Lee-Wong (2000), Liao Chao-chih (1997), Ding Feng (2002) and Lee (2004).

Huang (1996) analysed request speech acts between native speakers of Taiwanese Mandarin and American English, in relation to the universality of politeness described in Brown and Levinson (1987, p.36). The study employed the data collection method of DCT. She found that direct request strategies were preferred more by Taiwanese Mandarin speakers than by American English speakers. Her findings show that the claim of university of politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p.89) is not completely warranted, as the value it places on private face is incompatible with the Chinese emphasis on public face as the high value in everyday interactions (Gu, 1990, p.237-257).

Based on the questionnaire design of Kasper & Dahl (1991, p.215-247), Zhang Shaojie & Wang Xiaotong (1997) conducted an investigation of requests of the Chinese in sixteen different situations concerning all aspects of social interaction, by using five parameters such as social power, social distance, age, sex and ease of action, and they came to the conclusion that (a) there exists the same sequence of request speech acts in the Chinese language as that in others; (b) social factors, such as social power, social distance, age, sex and ease of action, do affect the choice of request strategies of the speaker; (c) the conventionally indirect strategy is the most widely employed strategy and the most polite form of requests in Chinese; and (d) the use of alerters and supportive moves in requests is characteristic of Chinese culture.

Gao Hong (1999, p.75) studied the features of request strategies in Chinese in terms of the strategy types classified in Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper's CCSARP (1989, p.147). Unlike the previous studies, hers is not based on a DCT. She focuses on identifying universal categories of conventionally indirect requests in terms of the linguistic features of Chinese. Gao states that compared with English, Chinese have more performative verbs, indicating explicit request intents, such as 请，求，求求，请求，命令，让, and 叫. In addition, Gao (1999, p.75) claimed that imperatives are the most effective and appropriate way to make a request in Chinese, a strategy considered the least efficient in English requests. Furthermore, she argues that while hedged performatives in English are used to mitigate the impositive force, this is not necessarily the case in Chinese where a hedged performative may indicate doubt. For instance, in "我想让你给我把那个拿回来", the speaker wants to take a look at that one but is unsure about the hearer's reaction. Obligation statements can also be perceived as belonging to the category of suggestory formulae in hearer-oriented requests, as in the sentence "你应该马上离开这里"。Query preparatory is the most explicit request strategy in English, but in Chinese an interrogative type like "你为什么不…？" may convey a complaint.

Song Mei & Lee-Wong (as cited in Hess-Luttich, & Richard Watts, 2000, p.128) conducted their studies of the requests of Chinese people by employing the DCT questionnaire from Blum-Kulka & House (as cited in Blum-Kulka & Kasper 1989, p.123-154) and interviews, three groups of their subjects are Melbourne group, Singapore group and the group from the People's Republic of China. They found that the use of direct bald on-record strategy is the preferred choice in most face-to-face interactions. This preference is in keeping with Chinese speakers' emphasis on clarity, explicitness and upfront sincerity in daily face-to-face requestives; most of the requests are issued from the perspective of the speaker, that is, speaker-dominated; and the rights and obligations of interlocutors are found to be valid and influential contextual factors in describing and explaining politeness.

Liao Chao-chih (1997, p.251) also employed the DCT questionnaire to make an investigation of directives in American English, Mandarin and Taiwanese English. In her studies, the findings are: (a) people from the two ethnic backgrounds do not employ the same strategies for the same item of requests; (b) for the obligatory request in the work domain, American bosses prefer threatening more than their Chinese counterparts; (c) to their roommates, Chinese females tend to use the conventionally indirect request more often than males; (d) as for the right-type request, Chinese women utter reasons for the request more frequently than Chinese men and Americans; (e) in asking a prospective customer to shop in a store, Chinese prefer the mood derivable while Americans like to use the conventionally indirect request "Can I help you. . . ?"; (f) in asking a roommate to go to the night market with them, more Americans prefer using "Do you want to...?" than the other three forms of conventionally indirect request, mood derivable or pre-request; (g) in uttering altruistic requests, Chinese like to use fixed sayings or proverbs to show that they are wise, learned or sincere; (h) Chinese are more verbose than their American counterparts in requesting, and more Chinese women than men offer reasons for the above three types of requests; (i) more Americans than Chinese choose to be verbose when uttering a refusal, and finally (j) Chinese people often repeatedly use the same strategy and words, for example, for the Chinese invitation, one has to repeat for several times until it is accepted.

Lee (2004, p.58-72) investigated request strategies used by Chinese learners of English (CLE) in emails written to their teachers. In analyzing the data, she employed the coding system developed in CCSARP. Lee found that CLE tend to manipulate direct request strategies and requestive hints in requests of their teachers. The study reveals that there is a strong cultural focus on asymmetrical and hierarchical relationships and respect by student towards teacher. Requests were realized through the maxim of generosity claimed in Gu (1990, p.237-257) and linguistic modifications including lexical and syntactic modifications.

Of all the previous studies on the speech act of request, one important focus was on strategic preferences in making requests in a certain setting. A number of researchers have devised classification systems for request strategies. Most research has been conducted in languages under the influence of western culture. Moreover, written questionnaires such as DCTs were used almost exclusively in the previous studies. The lack of validity has also been pointed out by researchers. The functional deficiency is that the data was not oral but written. Therefore, the findings from DCT studies should be examined and elaborated by comparing results from data elicited by different methods.

The research in the fields of requests needs near-authentic oral data in order to support or verify the results of previous studies. Conversational analysis should be encouraged since requests are realized through interactions in a conversation. The context in the conversation has to be considered to a great extent because it is the most important variable affecting requests. Speech acts cannot stand alone but are achieved in the sequential flow of conversation. In other words, speech acts should not be dealt with as an isolated segment from conversation but as a whole text. Thus the importance of analyzing speech acts and politeness models in contexts should be emphasized. Politeness should also be assessed not as a small segment but as speech act sequences or part of a whole discourse. The study of conversation as a whole text will also provide foreign language teachers and learners with the best sources for pragmatics in the target language.

Most studies are concerned with surface structure of requests, either to study requests in a particular language or to compare two languages. Researchers mainly aim to form semantic formulas for requests, to identify request strategies, and to find out how frequent different strategies are used, without exploring into the nature of requests, the underlying social and moral values, and the framework of the conversation pairs of request and refusal.

III. Research Method

In the present research, we produced a new method, a data-collecting method of building a corpus of video clips of Chinese teledramas. We chose 3970 short sequences of video clips from 35 Chinese teledramas which vividly describe the Chinese people's life in the contemporary times, and most of them were once broadcast on China Central Television (CCTV), after reading the Chinese teledrama books and watching the Chinese teledrama videos for at least three times. In terms of the politeness theory, we will take these three factors, power, social distance and size of imposition relative to the addressee, as the major variables of our research. The variable of power has three levels: ＋power(＋P, the refusee has a higher power status than the refuser), ＝power (＝P, the interlocutors have parallel status) and －power(－P, the refusee has a lower power status than the refuser). There are various types of determinants of power, such as physical strength, age, gender, and institutionalized roles (Brown and Gilman, 1960). In this study, the relative ranking of each interlocutor, such as inferior, superior or equal, are considered a variable of power. The variable of social distance also has three levels: ＋distance (＋D, the interlocutors do not know each other), ＝distance (＝D, the interlocutors know each other as acquaintances) and －distance (－D, the interlocutors know each other well). Finally, the variable of the size of imposition has two levels: ＋rank (＋R, a high rank or degree of imposition is involved in the request setting) and －rank (－R, the opposite of ＋R).

On the basis of the two variables of power and distance, this study focuses on ＋R because requests have a high degree of imposition, compared with invitations, offers, and suggestions, especially in the request refusal settings. Variables of high rank or degree of imposition and other factors are not taken as major reference points, because they are too complicated to measure in people's everyday life in the society and in the teledramas. Taking the two variables of power and distance as reference points, we designed nine situations: Situation 1: ＋P and ＋D; Situation 2: ＋P and ＝D; Situation 3: ＋P and －D; Situation 4:＝P and ＋D; Situation 5:＝P and ＝D; Situation 6:＝P and －D; Situation 7:－P and ＋D; Situation 8:－P and ＝D; Situation 9:－P and －D. We compare the impact of different combinations of social variables on the ways in which request strategies were used by the Chinese speakers in the teledramas. Elaborate request strategies were expected to be elicited in the nine situations in the teledramas in the study.

IV. Request Strategies in the Contemporary Chinese Teledramas

Gao Hong (1999) studies the features of request strategies in Chinese in terms of the strategy types classified in Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper's CCSARP (1989). Within the types of directness, the nine directness levels of request strategies are distinguished (Mood derivable; Performative; Hedged performatives; Obligation statements; Want statements; Suggestory formulae; Query preparatory; Strong hints and Mild hints). They are mutually exclusive, i.e. a Head Act can only be realized through one specific request strategy. The most distinctive feature of the linguistic realization of requests in Chinese is the application of basic action verbs that indicate the desired action directly. And imperatives are the most proper and efficient way to make a request.

A. Request Strategies Used in the Nine Situations of Contemporary Chinese

Taking the two variables of power and distance as reference points, nine situations were designed in this study: Situation 1: ＋P and ＋D; Situation 2: ＋P and ＝D; Situation 3: ＋P and －D; Situation 4:＝P and ＋D; Situation 5:＝P and ＝D; Situation 6:＝P and －D; Situation 7:－P and ＋D; Situation 8:－P and ＝D; Situation 9:－P and －D. We compared the impact of different combinations of social variables on the ways in which request strategies were used by the Chinese speakers. Elaborate request strategies were expected to be consecutively elicited in the nine situations of the 35 contemporary Chinese teledrama serials from the perspectives of social power and social distance in the section.

1. Situation 1: ＋P and ＋D

This is a situation where the addressee (that is, hearer or refuser) has the higher power position and the interlocutors do not know each other: +P and +D. For example, you are interviewed for a promotion by your manager. You do not know her/him, because s/he has been on leave for a long time and you have worked for the company for only about half a year. During the interview, the interviewer is not satisfied with your documentation, and asks you to provide more information together with an additional reference letter from one of your previous managers. The interviewer wants to make a decision tomorrow because he is leaving to attend a conference the day after tomorrow, so s/he asks you to submit the additional information by tomorrow. However, you feel that there is not enough time and would like to extend the due date. Now you ask him to give you more time. Or a freshman asks a university professor in the other college, whom s/he doesn't know, to take part in an activity.

Comparatively, such a situation doesn't happen often in the daily life. We collected only 57 video clips of this situation from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, which is only about 1.44% of the total corpora.

TABLE 1
THE CORPUS OF REQUEST STRATEGIES USED IN SITUATION 1

Request strategies		Number	Percentage
Direct strategies	Mood derivable	10	17.54%
	Performatives	0	0
	Hedged performatives	1	1.75%
	Obligation statements	1	1.75%
	Want statements	16	28.07%
Conventionally indirect strategies	Suggestory formulae	1	1.75%
	Query preparatory	25	43.86%
Non-conventionally indirect strategies	Strong hints	1	1.75%
	Mild hints	2	3.51%
Total		57	99.98%

The above table shows the types of request strategies and the frequencies with which they are used by Chinese speakers in the thirty five teledrama serials. Chinese speakers display a strong tendency to select conventionally indirect strategies. The Chinese speakers are prone to use the query preparatory as the most appropriate way to present requests with an occurrence of 43.86%. For example, "我就是替她们求个情。孩子不懂事，您大人大量，抬抬手放了算了。" The next preferred form of head act for Chinese speakers was the want statement using words such as "需要","想","希望" and "但愿" with an occurrence of 28.07%. For example, 王主任：麻烦你了，希望你们尽快过来。 And the mood derivable using "对不起" and "麻烦你" has an occurrence of 17.54%. For example, 钟杨：大娘，能不能给我们一点吃的？

2. Situation 2: ＋P and ＝D

This is a situation where the addressee has the higher power position than the addresser and the interlocutors know each other as acquaintances. For example, you are talking with a head of your department in the company, who has only been with the company for a few months, so you do not know each other very well at this stage. You ask her/him for leave because you have something urgent to do. Or a freshman asks a university professor in the other college, whom s/he knows as an acquaintance, to take part in an activity.

We collected only 76 video clips of this situation from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, which is only about 1.91% of the total corpora.

TABLE 2
THE CORPUS OF REQUEST STRATEGIES IN SITUATION 2

Request strategies		Number	Percentage
Direct strategies	Mood derivable	19	25%
	Performatives	1	1.32%
	Hedged performatives	2	2.63%
	Obligation statements	0	0
	Want statements	3	3.95%
Conventionally indirect strategies	Suggestory formulae	1	1.32%
	Query preparatory	46	60.53%
Non-conventionally indirect strategies	Strong hints	3	3.95%
	Mild hints	1	1.32%
Total		76	100.02%

The above table shows that the query preparatory of the conventionally indirect strategy is 60.53% of the corpus. For example, 肖童：郁教授，这个既然不行那就麻烦你帮忙再找一个吧？ Or 许涤新：我是许涤新！周副主席，我们准备发表的文章遭到他们的扣压，您看怎么办呢？ The next preferred strategy is the mood derivable (25%), as in sentences such as 雷雷：麻烦您找一下叶青儿，成吗？ And 向南：阿姨您真甭客气，我叠件儿衣服垫一下就行了，别麻烦了阿姨。 The mood derivable is the most direct request strategy in terms of head acts. For example, 潘小伟：不好意思，麻烦你帮忙把这东西存一下。

3. Situation 3: ＋P and －D

S3 is a situation where the hearer has the higher power status than the requester and the interlocutors know each other very well: +P and －D. For example, the leader of your unit is talking with you at work, who has only been with the company for quite a few years and you know each other very well at this stage. You want to change jobs at the same company, because you think that you can not cope with the responsibilities that your present position entails. However, if you change jobs, it would put her/him in a difficult situation, because several clerks are on leave and nobody is available to take over your current duties. Or you ask one of your professors whom you know her/him very well for a couple of years to give you a higher mark in an examination.

We collected only 22 video clips of this situation from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, which is only about 0.53% of the total corpora. This is the second smallest corpus in the total corpora.

The following table shows that the query preparatory is overwhelmingly used in the corpus (59.09%). For example, 陈寺福：哎！行。大哥，有什么好处没有？ and 海藻：老板，你下午能不能把钥匙送过来？ The use of want statement, a direct head act strategy, is also present in the corpus (18.18%). For example, 木鑫：爸，你和妈能不能上哪儿去旅游一趟，给我一个月的时间，我把你们这个家装修一下？ Among those with the closest relationship such as family members, performatives are used (9.09%). For example, 华子：妈，你出去吧，我们有话说，这些事儿我们自己解决，您就甭管了！ and 亮亮：您别去，王明叔叔，得从二楼那家进去修，他家老没人在。电闸又特高，好多人摔下来过。

TABLE 3
THE CORPUS OF REQUEST STRATEGIES IN SITUATION 3

Request strategies		Number	Percentage
Direct strategies	Mood derivable	2	9.09%
	Performatives	2	9.09%
	Hedged performatives	1	4.55%
	Obligation statements	0	0
	Want statements	4	18.18%
Conventionally indirect strategies	Suggestory formulae	0	0
	Query preparatory	13	59.09%
Non-conventionally indirect strategies	Strong hints	0	0
	Mild hints	0	0
Total		22	100.00%

4. Situation 4: ＝P and ＋D

This is a situation where the interlocutors have parallel status and the interlocutors do not know each other: ＝P and ＋D. For example, the addressee holds a similar rank to you. You do not know each other, because you have just joined the company. You come to the photocopier with many documents, and need them for a meeting which starts soon. However, s/he is photocopying a lot of documents for a meeting. Now, you ask the addressee whether or not you can interrupt and do your photocopying first.

Such a situation happens often in the daily life. We collected 257 video clips of this situation from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas. This corpus is the third biggest in the total corpora, which tells us that this situation is very popular in our daily life and it can reflect the real life of the Chinese people very well.

TABLE 4
THE CORPUS OF REQUEST STRATEGIES IN SITUATION 4

Request strategies		Number	Percentage
Direct strategies	Mood derivable	30	11.67%
	Performatives	12	4.67%
	Hedged performatives	4	1.56%
	Obligation statements	5	1.95%
	Want statements	6	2.34%
Conventionally indirect strategies	Suggestory formulae	41	15.95%
	Query preparatory	151	58.76%
Non-conventionally indirect strategies	Strong hints	6	2.34%
	Mild hints	2	0.78%
Total		257	100.02%

The above table shows that the query preparatory of the conventionally indirect strategy is 58.76% of the corpus, which is the most favored tactic in this situation. For example, 潘大伟：黄小姐，你为什么不喝？ and 雷母：叶青

儿勾引我儿子，你为什么不管？

Suggestory formulae are the second strategy in the Chinese teledrama serials (15.95%). For example, 年轻人：一百，怎么样？ Obviously, conventionally indirect strategies are an overwhelming majority employed in the Chinese teledramas. The mood derivable is the third most widely used request strategy in the corpus (11.67%). For example, 潘小伟：不好意思，麻烦你帮忙把这东西存一下。

5. Situation 5: ＝P and ＝D

This is a situation where the interlocutors have parallel status and the interlocutors know each other as acquaintances: ＝P and ＝D. For example, you have something urgent to use money, but you do not have any cash on you. Then you meet with one of your colleagues whom you barely know. You ask her/him to lend you 100 dollars. The relationship between most schoolmates in the same school or university, that between most outgroup colleagues in a big company and that between general business partners belong to this situation.

We collected 732 video clips of this situation from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, which is 18% of the total corpora. This corpus is the second biggest in the total corpora, which tells us that this situation is very popular in our daily life and it can reflect the real life of the Chinese people very well.

TABLE 5
THE CORPUS OF REQUEST STRATEGIES IN SITUATION 5

Request strategies		Number	Percentage
Direct strategies	Mood derivable	254	34.70%
	Performatives	161	22%
	Hedged performatives	89	12.16%
	Obligation statements	113	15.44%
	Want statements	30	4.10%
Conventionally indirect strategies	Suggestory formulae	27	3.69%
	Query preparatory	31	3.24%
Non-conventionally indirect strategies	Strong hints	17	2.32%
	Mild hints	10	1.37%
Total		732	100.02%

The above table reveals an overwhelming majority of the mood derivable of direct strategies (34.70%) which are used by Chinese speakers in the thirty five teledrama serials. For example, 乔乔：方言，你为什么不去当兵呢？ And 张大民：你现在是美国人，你心里最清楚，那儿美吗？是人呆的地方吗？ The next preferred form of head act for Chinese speakers was performatives with an occurrence of 22%. For example, 露露：一会儿我男朋友来了，麻烦你告儿他一声，你是冲我的美色才愿意付账的啊！ and 冯裤子：同志们安静一点儿！安静一点儿！ And obligation statements has an occurrence of 15.44%. For example, 史今：你必须提前交给他。

There is an almost absence of conventionally indirect strategies and non-conventionally indirect strategies in this corpus.

6. Situation 6: ＝P and －D

This is a situation where the interlocutors have parallel status and the interlocutors know each other well. The following case is a typical example in today's China. The addressee is your colleague of a similar rank and s/he has just got a promotion. Now you ask her/him to treat you to a meal.

We collected 2695 video clips of this situation from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, which is 68% of the total corpora. This situation takes overwhelmingly the majority of all the adjacency pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, whose corpus is the biggest in the total corpora. In other words, this situation is the most popular in our daily life, which reflects the real life of the Chinese people most in the contemporary China.

TABLE 6
THE CORPUS OF REQUEST STRATEGIES IN SITUATION 6

Request strategies		Number	Percentage
Direct strategies	Mood derivable	754	27.98%
	Performatives	208	7.72%
	Hedged performatives	504	18.70%
	Obligation statements	132	4.90%
	Want statements	127	4.71%
Conventionally indirect strategies	Suggestory formulae	350	12.99%
	Query preparatory	431	15.99%
Non-conventionally indirect strategies	Strong hints	136	5.05%
	Mild hints	53	1.97%
Total		2695	100.01%

An overwhelming majority of the mood derivable of direct strategies (27.98%) are used by Chinese speakers in the thirty five teledrama serials as revealed in the above table. For example, 鲜儿：别一口一个嫂子的，还没过门呢。 and 传杰：二哥，柜上的东西你不能昧了，交柜吧。 The next preferred form of head act for Chinese speakers was hedged performatives with an occurrence of 18.70%. For example, 小贝：你再好好想想？ Query preparatory has an occurrence of 15.99%. For example, 周茜：你为什么不说话？！为什么不解释？ And suggestory formulae has an occurrence of 12.99%. For example, 韩丁：你的意思呢？你肯定不想和他们一起住吧，那咱们结婚怎么样？

7. Situation 7: －P and ＋D

This is a situation where the refuser has a lower power status and the interlocutors do not know each other: －P and ＋D. For example, you are a manager in a company, and you want to ask a new clerk to work over time to finish a report. Such a situation doesn't happen often in the daily life. We collected only 18 suitable video clips of request refusal conversation pairs of this situation from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas.

TABLE 7
THE CORPUS OF REQUEST STRATEGIES IN SITUATION 7

Request strategies		Number	Percentage
Direct strategies	Mood derivable	4	22.22%
	Performatives	1	5.56%
	Hedged performatives	3	16.67%
	Obligation statements	1	5.56%
	Want statements	2	11.11%
Conventionally indirect strategies	Suggestory formulae	1	5.56%
	Query preparatory	6	33.33%
Non-conventionally indirect strategies	Strong hints	0	0
	Mild hints	0	0
Total		18	100.01%

The above table reveals an overwhelming majority of the Query preparatory (33.33%) of direct strategies which are used by Chinese speakers in the thirty five teledrama serials. For example, 宋思明：海藻？有什么事吗？

The next preferred form of head act for Chinese speakers was Mood derivable with an occurrence of 22.22%. For example, 宋思明：海藻，来，打一杆。 The strategy of hedged performative has an occurrence of 16.67%. For example, 修小眉：我想你就不要来了。

8. Situation 8: －P and ＝D

This is a situation where the addressee (that is, hearer or refuser) has the lower power position and the interlocutors know each other as acquaintances: +P and +D. For example, you are a manager in one company, and you ask one of your clerks to work overtime, who has only been with the company for a few months, so you do not know each other very well at this stage. Or a professor asks a freshman to rewrite his paper.

Comparatively, such a situation doesn't happen often in the daily life. We collected 91 video clips of this situation from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, which is only about 2.29% of the total corpora.

TABLE 8
THE CORPUS OF REQUEST STRATEGIES IN SITUATION 8

Request strategies		Number	Percentage
Direct strategies	Mood derivable	13	13.29%
	Performatives	15	16.48%
	Hedged performatives	11	12.09%
	Obligation statements	5	5.56%
	Want statements	18	19.78%
Conventionally indirect strategies	Suggestory formulae	6	6.91%
	Query preparatory	21	23.08%
Non-conventionally indirect strategies	Strong hints	2	2.20%
	Mild hints	0	0
Total		91	100.39%

The above table shows that there is a high level of frequency in the use of the query preparatory (23.08%) of direct strategies which are used by Chinese speakers in the thirty five teledrama serials. For example, 校长：程岭，这究竟是怎么一回事，能不能叫家长来商议一下？学校设有奖学金，你成绩上乘，不难申请。 and 宋思明：出什么事情了？

The want statements of the conventionally indirect strategies with an occurrence of 19.78%. For example, 鄢永年：我想你就不要来了。 And the next most used of head act for Chinese speakers is performatives of the direct strategies with an occurrence of 16.48%. For example, 郁文涣：正好，有件事你帮个忙，你来的正好我正着急呢。

9. Situation 9: －P and －D

This is a situation where the refuser has the lower power position and the interlocutors know each other well. For example, you are a manager in one company, and you ask one of your clerks to work overtime, who has been with the company for several years, so you know each other very well at this stage. Or this situation refers to the relationship between parents and children, superiors and intimate subordinates and so on. Comparatively, such a situation doesn't happen often in the request refusal conversation pairs of this situation in the contemporary Chinese teledramas. We collected only 23 video clips of this situation from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas.

TABLE 9
THE CORPUS OF REQUEST STRATEGIES IN SITUATION 9

Request strategies		Number	Percentage
Direct strategies	Mood derivable	10	43.48%
	Performatives	1	4.35%
	Hedged performatives	1	4.35%
	Obligation statements	2	8.70%
	Want statements	1	4.35%
Conventionally indirect strategies	Suggestory formulae	3	13.04%
	Query preparatory	5	21.74%
Non-conventionally indirect strategies	Strong hints	0	0
	Mild hints	0	0
Total		23	100.01%

The above table shows that the mood derivable is overwhelmingly used in the corpus (43.48%). For example, 郭小鹏：我想我说得够清楚了吧？ The next preferred form of head act for Chinese speakers is the query preparatory with an occurrence of 21.74%. For example, 郭小鹏：你为什么不问我来这儿干什么？ The use of suggestory formulae is also present in the corpus (13.04%). For example, 钟匡民：钟槐，正因为路途艰难，我才叫你们千万别来找我。这样吧，你先回你娘那儿去，有些话我们以后再说好吗？

B. Request Strategies from the Perspective of Social Variables

1. The ＋P Factor

This section examines the patterns shown for the combinations of the ＋P Factor (the addressee has a high power status) with three different familiarity levels (+D in S1, ＝D in S2 and －D in S3).

As shown in Table 1, Table 2 and Table 3, the query preparatory is employed as the most ideal request strategy in all the three situations (43.86%, 60.53% and 59%). The next request strategy is the want statement or the mood derivable in the three situations, the want statement is the second most head act in Situation 1 and 3 (28.07% and 18%) and the mood derivable the second most head act in Situation 2 (25%). The third most widely used request strategy is the mood derivable or the want statement in the three situations: the mood derivable is the third most head act in Situation 1 and 3 (17.54% and 9%) and the want statement in Situation 2 (3.95%).

From 155 video clips of the ＋P Factor from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, when making requests directed to superiors, people tend to prefer conventionally indirect strategies of head acts at all three familiarity levels with [＝D] topping the list.

2. The ＝P Factor

This section examines the patterns shown for the combinations of the ＝P Factor (the addressee has an equal power status) with three different familiarity levels (+D in S4, ＝D in S5 and －D in S6). Among 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, 3684 video clips of the ＋P Factor were collected when requests are made directed to equals, which is 92.80% of the total corpora. This factor takes overwhelmingly the majority of all the request refusal adjacency pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, which is the biggest in the total corpora. In other words, such situations are the most popular in our daily life, which reflects the real life of the Chinese people the most authentically in the contemporary China.

As shown in Table 4, Table 5 and Table 6, both situations ([＝D] and [－D]) employ the mood derivable as the most preferred request strategy in requests towards addresses who has equal power unless they are unfalimilar, although it occurs in [＝P, ＝D] more than in [＝P, －D] (34.7% versus 27.98%). The situation of [+D] uses the query preparatory as the most preferred request strategy (58.76%) when requests are made of unfamiliar equals. However the three situations differ in their second and third preference, where the suggestory formulae and mood derivable are the second and third preference in [+D], the performative and obligation statement in [＝D], and the hedged performative and query preparatory in [－D]. More conventionally indirect strategies are employed in [+D] and more direct strategies in [＝D] and [－D] because of different degree of familiarity.

In general, there is a strong tendency to employ direct request strategies by Chinese speakers in both situations when addressing close equals. And all the types of request strategies are collected in the three situations and is comparatively evenly distributed in [－D].

3. The －P Factor

This section examines the patterns shown for the combinations of the －P Factor (the addressee has a low power status) with three different familiarity levels ([+D] in S7, [＝D] in S8 and [－D] in S9). Among 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, only 132 video clips of the －P Factor were collected when requests are made directed to inferiors, which is 3.32% of the total corpora.

Table 7, Table 8 and Table 9 show that the most widely used request strategies are the query preparatory, mood derivable, want statement, performatives and hedged performatives, and non-conventionally indirect strategies including strong hints and mild hints are seldom found in the –P Factor when addressing inferiors. Table 7 reveals that the query preparatory is the most common request strategy collected in the contemporary Chinese teledramas when requests are made to unfamiliar inferiors (33.33%), followed by mood derivable-imperatives (22.22%) and hedged performatives (16.67%). A high use of the query preparatory is collected in Table 8 (23.08%) and Table 9 (21.74%) ([＝D] in S8 and [－D] in S9). Table 8 shows that there is a greater variety of strategies and the strategies are used comparatively evenly distributed in [＝D]. The mood derivable is overwhelmingly widely used in the corpus of Situation 9 shown in Table 9. The pattern emerging indicates that direct request strategies towards juniors are used as the most standard method at all three familiarity levels with [+D] topping the list, although sometimes superiors disguised as polite and considerate speakers by using conventionally indirect strategies at the very beginning.

4. The ＋D Factor

This section examines the patterns shown for the combinations of +D (the interlocutors do not know each other) with three different degrees of power (+P in S1, ＝P in S4 and –P in S7).

The results shown in Table 1, Table 4 and Table 7 reveal that the most widely used types of head acts are the query preparatory, the want statement and the mood derivable, and Chinese speakers' favorite formula of head acts is the query preparatory across all three situations +P, ＝P and –P, from 332 video clips of the ＋D Factor from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas, when making requests directed to strangers. When there is no familiarity between the interlocutors (+D), then regardless of the addressees' power rank, Chinese speakers tend to utilize the query preparatory (+P 43.86%, －P 58.76% and ＝P 33.33%) with [＝P] topping the list. The next preferred formulae are the adoption of the want statement when the addressees' power position is higher; the use of the mood derivable-imperatives (the most direct head acts) when the addressees' power position is lower. It is very obvious that the Chinese are more indirect in dealing with an unfamiliar acquaintance than with an unfamiliar superior. All in all, there is a great deal of variety in the choice of head acts in [+P, +D] and [＝P, +D]. And no non-conventionally indirect strategies, strong hints and mild hints, are collected in [－P, +D] in the contemporary Chinese teledramas.

5. The ＝D Factor

This section examines the patterns shown for the combinations of ＝D (the interlocutors are acquaintances) with three levels of power status (+P in S2, ＝P in S5 and –P in S8).

As displayed in Table 2, Table 5 and Table 8, there is a strong tendency to the query preparatory (60.53% in +P and 23.08% in –P) when requests are not made of acquaintances, and the mood derivable-imperatives (the most direct head acts) is the most widely used type (34.70%) in ＝P. The next preferred is the mood derivable (25%) in +P, the performative (22%) in ＝P and the want statement (19.78%) in –P. In the realization of requests towards juniors, there is a greater variety of request strategies in ＝P and –P than in +P. There is also comparability between ＝P and –P in the manipulation of direct head acts (88.4% in ＝P and 68.2% in –P) making requests of addressees in an identical power position. On the contrary, indirect strategies are the most ideal head acts when addressing superiors.

6. The －D Factor

This section examines the patterns shown for the combinations of –D (the interlocutors know each other very well) with three levels of power status (+P in S3, ＝P in S6 and –P in S9). 2740 video clips of the –D Factor were collected from 3970 minimal pairs in the 35 contemporary Chinese teledramas. Among the three situations, S6 (＝P) is the most representative which has a corpus of 2695 video clips (68% of the total corpora) with an occurrence of 98.36% in the corpus of the –D Factor.

As indicated in Table 3, Table 6 and Table 9, the most widely used types of head acts of the –D Factor are the query preparatory and the mood derivable. The most ideal request strategy in the contemporary Chinese teledramas is the query preparatory (59.09%) in +P, followed by the want statements (18.18%), when making requests directed to superiors. There is no correlation between this and ＝P and –P, which are a balance of direct strategies (the mood derivable (27.98% in ＝P and 43.48% in –P)). It is very obvious that the Chinese are more indirect in dealing with an equal or a junior than with a superior in –D. And there is a greatest variety in the choice of head acts between equals in [–D, ＝P], and no non-conventionally indirect strategies, strong hints and mild hints, are collected in [–D, +P] and [–D, –P] in the contemporary Chinese teledramas.

V. CONCLUSION

This study on the linguistic behaviour of making requests in the contemporary Chinese teledramas is one of the first attempts to add a new dimension to the study of request speech acts by moving beyond the patterns of foreign languages. This study explores the intricate relation between request strategies and social factors (such as power and distance). The findings raise questions about the influence of methodology on data, and the applicability of so-called universals to oriental languages.

For the convenience of comparison and contrast, we have all these data included in the following table without considering any influencing factors in the end.

TABLE 10
THE OVERALL DISTRIBUTION OF THE REQUEST STRATEGIES CORPORA

Request strategies		Number	Percentage
Direct strategies	Mood derivable	1096	27.61%
	Performatives	401	10.10%
	Hedged performatives	616	15.52%
	Obligation statements	259	6.52%
	Want statements	207	5.21%
Conventionally indirect strategies	Suggestory formulae	430	10.83%
	Query preparatory	729	18.36%
Non-conventionally indirect strategies	Strong hints	165	4.16%
	Mild hints	68	1.71%
Total		3971	100.02%

The above table shows that the most widely used types of request strategies (head acts) in the contemporary Chinese teledramas are the mood derivable, query preparatory, hedged performatives, suggestory formulae and performatives.

Mood derivable is the most used in the corpora, although the query preparatory is employed as the most ideal request strategy regardless of power status or familiarity in all the situations. The next most used request strategy is the query preparatory and then the hedged performatives. The Chinese people used more direct head acts in the corpus of the video clips of the contemporary Chinese teledramas. The extraordinarily greater use of indirect head acts in the Chinese teledramas suggests that the Chinese paid more attention to facework when observed by others.

On average, far more direct request strategies were collected in the contemporary Chinese teledramas than the previous research (Hong, 1996, p.127-138; Zhang, 1995, p.23-68). This indicates that Chinese people have a tendency towards more naturalness and straightforwardness in the real life, and the Chinese do not pay more attention to facework as expected from the previous studies (Hong, 1996, p.127-138; Zhang, 1995, p.23-68).

Social variables such as social power (power status) and social distance (familiarity) are very important influencing factors in choosing request strategies. Indirect request strategies were utilized most when dealing with familiar or unfamiliar equals. The highest number of direct request strategies occurred between equal acquaintances. In other words, Chinese could be more indirect with someone of equal position who is a close or distant colleague, and more direct with someone who has an equal position and is an acquaintance. As all these actions seem to occur around equals, it may be concluded that if Chinese speakers are of an equal position they can do whatever they are most appropriate, and be either most direct or most indirect. Hints, non-conventionally indirect request strategies, are seldom used. Strong hints are more frequently used than mild hints, for the mild hints may not efficiently convey the interlocutor's true speech intention.

The findings in the contemporary Chinese teledramas clearly show that a strong tendency was to employ request strategies based more on social distance than social power. Chinese manipulated much more sophisticated and longer initiating, negotiation and closing sessions. And greater efforts were made to realize a request act by giving sufficient reasons and explanations. All these, especially the strong insensitivity to social power and great emphasis on social distance, reflect the characteristics of the Chinese culture, such as the significance of human relationships, an aversion to bluntness, and the value placed on formality. The Chinese people pay much more attention to *guanxi* (relationships or connections) in their social life and building personal connections is pivotal. It is the right *guanxi* that makes all the difference in ensuring that request will be successful. By getting the right *guanxi*, the interlocutor minimizes the risks, frustrations, and disappointments when making request in the Chinese society. Thus, the variable of social distance plays a much greater role in the consideration of request strategies in the Chinese setting.

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Shengli Wang was born in Suiping County, Henan Province, China in 1970. He received his Ph.D. degree in applied linguistics from Shanghai International Studies University, China, in 2010.

He is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Studies, Henan Agricultural University, Zhengzhou, China. His research interests include applied linguistics, contrastive linguistics and second language acquisition.

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Why CALL Why Not MALL: An In-depth Review of Text-message Vocabulary Learning

Ali Derakhshan
Allameh Tabataba'i University, Tehran, Iran
Email: aderakhshanh@gmail.com

Hossein Khodabakhshzadeh
English Department, Islamic Azad University, Torbat-e-Heidarieh branch, Torbat-e-Heidarieh, Iran
Email: hkhodabakhshzade@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Vocabulary learning has gained a profound ground in language learning, and with the advent of text-messaging, researchers have shown great enthusiasm to investigate the interplay between the two. Therefore, the present paper seeks to firstly define MALL (Mobile Assisted Language Learning) in terms of language learning, to secondly compare and contrast E-learning and M-learning, to thirdly elaborate upon theories underlying MALL in general and text-message vocabulary learning in particular, to fourthly explicate the practical studies done on text-message vocabulary learning, and finally to enumerate the advantages and disadvantages of MALL and text-message vocabulary learning.**

***Index Terms*—vocabulary learning, mobile-assisted language learning, E-learning, incidental vocabulary learning, spacing effect, constructivism**

I. Introduction

Vocabulary is considered one of essential components of a language. Laufer (1998) and Nation (1990) believe that if students of English as a Foreign Language want to understand non-specialized English texts, they need to learn 5000 base words which are considered just a minimal requirement. This means that learners should purposefully practice or rehearse the words to facilitate long term retention (Genesee, 2000; Hulstijn, 2001). However, in many educational and academic milieus around the world, the amount of class time is limited. In Iranian universities, for example, a typical class meets once a week for 90 minutes. This problem urges teachers and researchers to make difficult choices about how to use that limited time to promote language learning. Since foreign language students usually have limited opportunities to speak and hear the target language only in the classroom, it makes sense to draw on other kinds of practice and exposure. Given the centrality of lexical knowledge to learning a language, research into the effectiveness of various types of vocabulary learning methods as well as instructional techniques has been of considerable value to second language research and pedagogy. One such way is through an interaction which allows students to use language and teachers to give feedback via text-message. Vocabulary learning via text-message is one of the emerging areas in communication (Andrews, 2003; Norbrook & Scot, 2003; Thornton & Houser, 2002; 2003; 2005; McNicol, 2005; Levy & Kennedy, 2005; 2008; Collins, 2005; Chinnery, 2006, Pecherzewska & Knot, 2007; Lu,2008; and Chen & Chung, 2008). Text-messaging can be applied in language teaching and learning as a complementary teaching aid since vocabulary gains can be fostered by its portability, immediacy, novelty, motivation, and the spacing effect it generates (Thornton & Houser, 2005). The text-messaging vocabulary learning is likely to provide several of the optimal psychological conditions for the effectiveness of any vocabulary activity described by Nation (2001). First, cumulative learning is the most effective way of learning vocabulary; learners are more capable of dealing with a limited amount of information at a time, so too much information may confuse them or de-motivate them. Second, motivation and interest are the important enabling conditions for noticing which is the first step in learning. Nation(2001) states that the third psychological condition for vocabulary learning is that text-message vocabulary learning offers a novel and portable learning experience as well as a relaxing condition; therefore, learners can study the words almost at anytime and anywhere. Also, student-initiated use of language supported by teachers can foster vocabulary learning by increasing the 'Cognitive Involvement Load' (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001, p. 542) through ‘Spacing Effect’ (Greene, 1989; Wozniak 1995; Dempster, 1996; Seabrook, Brown, & Solity, 2005). By using the word to make a sentence, sending it at spaced intervals to teachers via text-message, and receiving the feedback learners can build a net of well-connected and well-practiced paths and thus retrieve the target word more easily. Furthermore, constructivism, learner-centeredness, situated learning, immediacy, flexibility, portability, context sensitivity, social interactivity, connectivity, individuality and informal learning play key roles in learning words via text-messaging (Lu, 2008; Crowe & van't Hooft, 2006; Klopfer, Squire, & Jenkins, 2002; Kukulska-Hulme, 2007).

II. Vocabulary Learning

Vocabulary is one of the indispensable components of a language (Adolphs & Schmitt, 2003; Nation, 2001; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Laufer & Goldstein, 2004; Laufer *et al*. 2004; Gu, 2003; Huang, 2007). L2 learners are aware of the extent to which limitations in their vocabulary knowledge restrict their communication skills (Nation, 2001). Consequently, one of the main obstacles that L2 learners encounter in their endeavor of learning vocabulary is the number of words they need to acquire in order to become fluent in their L2. Teachers may well understand this need but may not know how to support their students in this endeavor. Therefore, from a pedagogical perspective, there is a need for research that helps to find out learning tasks that provide opportunities for L2 vocabulary learning. Limited amount of class time necessitates utilizing text-messaging vocabulary learning in our pedagogical milieu.

III. Mobile Learning

Mobile learning has been evolving rapidly. Pettit & Kukulska-Hulme (2007) postulate that early generations of mobile learning projects inclined to propose formally-designed activities, carefully crafted by educators and technologists, and using emerging technologies that were not yet widely accessible or well understood. Current widespread ownership of mobile devices mean that learners have strong tendency to take the lead and engage in activities which are motivated by their personal needs and circumstances of use, including those activities which arise from greater mobility and travel (Kukulska-Hulme, Traxler & Pettit,2007; Pettit & Kukulska-Hulme, 2007). Whereas in the past, mobile learning has often been defined in terms of its use of mobile technologies, more recent conceptions of MALL primarily focus on the mobility of the learner (Sharples, 2006). The informal aspects of m-learning are also emphasized (e.g. Fallakhair, Pemberton & Griffiths, 2007). Although Pettit & Kukulska-Hulme (2007) argue that m-learning involves the use of any portable learning materials including books, audio-cassettes, audio-CDs, and portable radios and DVD players, m-learning usually concentrates on the most recent technologies. Trifanova *et al*. (2004 p.3) define mobile devices as “any device that is small, autonomous and unobtrusive enough to accompany us in every moment”. Typically, m-learning is identified (Geddes, 2004) by the tools used. On par with others, Traxler (2005 propounds that mobile learning can perhaps be defined as any educational provision where the sole or dominant technologies are handheld or palmtop devices.

However, the latest definitions of mobile learning focus on the learner rather than on the technology (Winters, 2006; Naismith *et al*., 2004). An accepted definition of mobile learning is “any sort of learning that happens when the learner is not at a fixed, predetermined location, or learning that happens when the learner takes advantage of learning opportunities offered by mobile technologies” (O’Malley *et al*.,2003). Vavoula and Sharples (2002) (in Naismith *et al*., 2004) state that since learning takes place over time and space and in different areas of our lives, mobility is highly regarded as one essential part of learning. Winters (2006) believe that although there is a consensus that mobile technologies are just one of the means through which learning is mediated, they seem to offer unique affordances (Klopfer, Squire & Jenkins, 2002) which could be very useful to facilitate learning. There is no doubt that “mobile devices have opened up a vast range of possibilities for learning in ways that are convenient and suited to the needs of an individual within the context of their lifestyle” (Kukulska-Hulme, 2006, p. 128).

Chinnery (2006) believes that as in any other technology-enhanced language learning paradigms, mobile learning environments might be face-to-face, distance, or online. Colpaert (2004) emphasizes before deciding on the role of mobile technologies, we need to consider the importance of developing the language learning environment; he further emphasizes that learners should be well-prepared before the technologies open up their ways into our academic lives. Alternatively, Salaberry (2001) contends against technology-driven pedagogy proposing that despite their revolutionary status, it is not clear that any modern technology has offered the same pedagogical benefits as traditional second language instruction. Furthermore, teachers need to be concerned about investing time and money in unproven technology.

Chinnery (2006) explicates that regardless of these and other unstated stipulations, technologies, mobile or otherwise, can be instrumental in language instruction. These technologies are not in and of themselves instructors; rather, they are instructional tools which work as adjunct in the process of teaching and learning, and the effective use of any tool in language learning requires the thoughtful application of second language pedagogy.

Many of the studies addressing content-related MALL activities appear to subscribe to a model whereby materials are delivered to learners via text-messaging or a website. Very few activities, however, support learner collaboration or communication. While Dias (2002a; 2002b) promotes learner-learner interaction, of the work using more expensive mobile devices, only JISC (Joint Information Systems Committee) (2005) draws on MALL to reinforce collaboration and co-construction of knowledge; learners had to find information and share it with their peers so as to create an overall understanding of a real-world problem, namely, the layout of the campus and the location and purpose of various buildings. Kukulska-Hulme & Shield (2007) argue that although MALL activities are grounded on the assumptions of mobility and portability, they seem not to be fully exploited in the design of MALL activities, for example, while it could be argued that sending vocabulary items and quizzes to learners via text-messaging draws on the mobility of the device, it could equally well be argued that such messages could be sent to SMS-enabled landlines or to wireless-enabled computers. Many of the studies also ignored the ‘anytime, anywhere’ affordances supposedly offered by mobile devices; for example, text-messages were sent to learners at set times, on set days (Levy & Kennedy, 2005; 2008; Lu, 2008) rather than learners being able to obtain this information as and when they wanted it. The present researchers, however, postulate that in order to get over this shortcoming we need to send students text-messages not at fixed times.

Movement from E-learning to M-Learning: It is a long-time project that aims to create a learning environment for wireless technologies by developing course materials for range of mobile devices (Colazzo *et al*., 2003). Laouris & Eteokleous (2005) made some comparisons between e-learning and m-learning, and they try to foresee the future of m-learning and the methods and technologies that should be used for successful m-learning.

Similarly, Mostakhdemin-Hosseini & Tuimala, (2005) believe that mobile learning can be considered as a natural evolution of e-learning, completing a missing component of the solution (i.e. adding the wireless feature). The transition from the e-learning to m-learning can be argued and identified by a change of terminology. For example, the dominant terms in the e-learning era were: multimedia, interactive, hyperlinked, media-rich environment (Laouris & Eteokleous, 2005). In the m-learning milieu, Laouris & Eteokleous (2005) assert terms such as intimate, situated, informal, connected, lightweight, private, spontaneous, and personal to characterize the context. While Table 1 compares and contrasts the choice of terminology with underlying characteristics of the two types of learning environments, Table 2 demonstrates their differences in the context of pedagogy and environment.

Table 3 represents the differences between e- and m-learning environments with respect to modes of communication. While e-learning was compatible with the classroom paradigm, m-learning calls for environment- and time independent pedagogy (Laouris & Eteokleous, 2005).

TABLE 1
TERMINOLOGY COMPARISONS BETWEEN E-AND M-LEARNING

e-learning	m-learning
Computer	Mobile
Bandwidth	GPRS, Bluetooth
Multimedia	Objects
Interactive	Spontaneous
Hyperlinked	Connected
Collaborative	Networked
Media-rich	Lightweight
Distance learning	Situated learning
More formal	Informal
Simulated situation	Realistic situation
hyper learning	Constructivism, situationism, collaborative

Taken from Laouris & Eteokleous (2005)

TABLE 2
PEDAGOGICAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN E-AND M-LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

More text- and graphics based instructions	More voice, graphics and animation based Instructions
Lecture in classroom or in internet labs	Learning occurring in the field or while mobile

(Taken from Laouris & Eteokleous, 2005)

TABLE 3
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN E- AND M-LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS WITH RESPECT TO MODES OF COMMUNICATION
A) INSTRUCTOR TO STUDENT COMMUNICATION

Time-delayed	Instant delivery
Passive communication	Instant communication
Asynchronous	Synchronous
Scheduled	Spontaneous

B) STUDENT TO STUDENT COMMUNICATION

Face- to- face	Flexible
Audio-teleconference common	Audio- and video- teleconference possible
Private location	No geographic boundaries
Travel time to reach to internet site	No travel time

(Adopted from Laouris & Eteokleous, 2005)

IV. EXPECTATIONS FOR AND BARRIERS TO MOBILE PHONE LEARNING

Stockwell (2008) argues that research into mobile phone learning represents a paradox. On the one hand, there are teachers and researchers who are ardent about using mobile technologies, believing that providing means for learners to study "anytime, anywhere" boosts more frequent and integral use of learning technologies as opposed to the more occasional use generally associated with computer laboratories (Roschelle, 2003). Many teachers and researchers see mobile learning as a promising area of learning, one that is to be enthusiastically welcomed by the learners using technologies that most already possess. Others take a more mediocre approach, such as Levy and Kennedy (2005), who argue that the widespread acceptance of communication technologies in non-learning contexts does not necessarily mean that they will be effective or valued in educational contexts.

On the other hand, there are some other teachers and researchers who are in favor of a more pessimistic approach, pointing out many factors that impede their introduction into language learning environments (Stockwell, 2008). Wang and Higgins (2006), for example, give a comprehensive overview of the psychological, pedagogical, and technical barriers to using mobile phones in the classroom. They argue that it is time-consuming for the learners to embrace new technologies, and it is not logical to expect all learners to feel comfortable with using new technologies at the same rate. Dias (2002a) persuasively argues that some learners may just see mobile learning as an intrusion into their own personal space, and this in turn would constrain the degree of their acceptance. From a pedagogical pint of view, Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2007) argue that activities that capitalize on mobility and portability which are considered as the very rationale for using mobile technologies are not as commonplace as one might hope, and although the "anywhere" factor is often not an issue, the "anytime" part is, where learners are sent messages by email or text-messaging at either fixed times, or times that suit the teacher, a tendency which seems to defeat the purpose of using mobile technologies at all. Thornton & Houser (2002), however, experienced the technical limitations including the size of the screen and the difficulties of inputting text, particularly English.

V. Incidental vs. Intentional Vocabulary Learning

Vocabulary learning is prominent for English learning because vocabulary constitutes the basic building blocks of English sentences (Nation, 2001). Research into vocabulary learning for English as a foreign language (EFL) student has played a prominent role. Many research findings reveal that poor knowledge of vocabulary frequently leads to incorrect inferences or misunderstanding of the content when reading English materials (Laufer, 2001; 1998; Gu, 2003; Huang, 2007; Nation, 2001). Mobile devices have been increasingly developed, designed and utilized to 'ultimately support a lifetime of personal and social enrichment' that can support education in general (Roschelle, Sharples & Chan, 2005,p.161) and vocabulary learning in particular(Andrews, 2003; Thornton & Houser, 2002; 2003, and 2005; Levy & Kennedy, 2005; 2008; Lu,2008; Chen & Chung, 2008).

Vocabulary learning activities generally fall into two types: intentional and incidental learning of vocabulary (Hulstijn 2001; Nation, 2001). Incidental vocabulary acquisition is generally defined as the learning of vocabulary as the by-product of any activity not explicitly geared to vocabulary learning and is contrasted with intentional vocabulary learning, defined as any activity geared at committing lexical information to memory (Hulstijn, 2001). The intentional vocabulary learning refers to activities that aim at vocabulary development predominantly in which learners need to pay attention to the words they want to learn. When vocabulary is learned predominantly through extensive reading, with the student guessing at the meaning of unknown words, the activities are called incidental learning of vocabulary (Robinson, 2005; Huckin & Coady, 1999; Nakata, 2008). Huckin & Coady (1999) believe that incidental learning provides opportunities for inferring word meaning in context, which later enables vocabulary acquisition and reading at the same time and is more individualized and student-oriented because the vocabulary being acquired is dependent on the student's own selection of reading materials. Huang (2007), however, argued that incidental learning of vocabulary may lead to such problems as incorrect inferences, and lack of retention. Huckin & Coady (1999) cogently argue that the problem lies in the fact that correct inference of word meanings is dependent on the comprehension of 95 - 98% of the words in the text. According to Laufer's survey (1992), the reader's understanding of 95% of familiar words and 2% of unfamiliar words is necessary for text comprehension. In a similar line of inquiry, Shahrzad & Derakhshan (2011) investigate the effect of instruction in deriving word meaning on incidental vocabulary learning. They concluded that inferring word meaning based upon some strategies would lead to incidental vocabulary learning.

Therefore, any learning, whether intentional or incidental, can only take place with some degree of attention (Schmidt, 1994). By the same token, Hulstijn (2001) claims that intentional or incidental learning requires some attention and noticing. However, attention is deliberately directed at committing new information to memory in the case of the former whereas the involvement of attention is not deliberately geared to an articulated learning goal in the case of the latter. Most scholars agree that except for the first few thousand most common words, L2 vocabulary is predominantly acquired incidentally (Huckin & Coady 1999).

A general problem with the operational definition of incidental vocabulary acquisition is that it seems to suggest that incidental learning occur unconsciously. Gass (1999) notes that defining incidental vocabulary acquisition as the 'side-effect' of another activity neglects the active role of the learner in this process. The fact that incidental learning occurs as a by-product of reading does not automatically imply that it does not involve any conscious processes (Rieder, 2003).

Huckin & Coady (1999) point out that incidental vocabulary learning has certain advantages over intentional vocabulary learning, including the following: (a) It is contextualized, giving the learner a richer sense of a word's use and meaning than can be provided in traditional paired-associate exercises, (b) it is pedagogically efficient in that it enables two activities—vocabulary acquisition and reading—to occur at the same time, and (c) it is more individualized and learner-based because the vocabulary being acquired is dependent on the learner's own selection of reading materials.

MALL and Incidental Vocabulary Learning

In recent years, studies on mobile technology assisted vocabulary learning are increasing(Andrews, 2003; Norbrook & Scot, 2003; Thornton & Houser, 2002; 2003, and 2005; McNicol, 2005; Levy & Kennedy, 2005; 2008; Collins, 2005; Chinnery, 2006, Pecherzewska & Knot, 2007; Lu,2008; Chen & Chung, 2008). These studies tend to draw on unique characteristics of immediacy, flexibility, portability, context sensitivity, social interactivity, connectivity and individuality (Lu, 2008; Crowe & van't Hooft, 2006; Klopfer, Squire, & Jenkins, 2002; Kukulska-Hulme, 2007). These studies have mainly concentrated on strengthening students' vocabulary learning in an environment where students use mobile technologies for prescribed vocabulary learning tasks, or tested designed personalized learning systems to enhance students' vocabulary learning in the short term in language related courses (Chen & Chung, 2008;Song & Fox, 2008; Stockwell, 2007;2008; Thornton & Houser, 2005).

VI. SLA THEORIES & MALL

Unlike stagnant computer instruments and devices, mobile devices and mobile phones are portable, socially interactive, context sensitive, connective and individual to language learners (Klopfer *et al.*, 2002). It can be argued that learners are able to access learning materials and to communicate with their teacher and peers with fewer time and space constraints (Chinnery, 2006; Nah, 2008). Therefore, MALL activities contribute to the provision of comprehensible input, negotiation of meaning, and comprehensible output. These properties of mobile phones, for example, can provide language learners with comprehensible input through pre-programmed software, via Internet searching, and through dialogue with their teacher or peers (Nah, White, & Sussex, 2008). These characteristics provide opportunities for negotiation of meaning, by letting language learners interact and negotiate with language learning software containing pre-programmed responses, and with real persons such as language teachers, peers and language experts. Furthermore, these properties can boost the learners to produce comprehensible output by writing, selecting or oral reporting based on what they have learned. They are able to respond directly from their WAP site, send mobile email or text-message, or make a call at anytime, anywhere, especially in self-access and self-selected situations outside the normal classroom. Mobile learning environment can foster collaborative and student-centered learning (Savill-Smith & Kent, 2003; Wood, 2003; Comas-Quinn, Mardomingo, &Valentine, 2009) because of the advantages of mobile devices. Encouragement, support and guidance contribute to collaborative learning which is initiated by peers and teachers using synchronous and asynchronous communication tools including SMS, mobile email, mobile discussion boards, and mobile messengers (Nah, White, & Sussex, 2008). These communication tools have the potentiality to contribute to student-centered learning, and to obtain customized help and information on time and through personalized learning environments where language learners can control their learning time, pace and level (Nah, White, & Sussex, 2008).

Over the past few decades, a growing body of SLA theories and approaches have been hypothesized, formulated and utilized for second language learning (Ellis, 2008). Input, interaction, output and sociocultural theories, as well as the constructivist, learner-centered/activity-centered learning, situated leaning, and collaborative learning shed light on the rationale of the MALL studies since they have been widely used in computer-assisted language learning (CALL) research(Nah, 2008); hence, they have all found their ways to concentrate on MALL as an offspring of CALL.

A. Constructivism

John Dewey (1938) is an advocate of experiential learning which lends itself well to constructivism. Dewey maintains that learners need to experience, feel, sense the real world concepts and ideas and relate them to their own existing knowledge and schemata in order to construct meaning. Learners cannot simply memorize, absorb or copy pre-packaged ideas but must construct their own versions through actively engaging in personal experimentation. Two major schools of thought have appeared in constructivist thinking. Cognitive constructivism, which is based on the work of Jean Piaget (1970), emphasizes the mental processes involved in the individual's construction of knowledge. Social constructivism, on the other hand, according to the theories of Lev Vygotsky (1978), concentrates on the social and historical contexts that are responsible for the construction and creation of knowledge. Vygotsky highlights that individuals cannot detach themselves from the sociopolitical contexts in which they live, and that language and culture are extricably bound together and inevitably construct their interpretation of reality. This concept is particularly relevant in language learning as the native language and culture, used as "frameworks through which humans experience, communicate and understand reality" (Simina & Hamel, 2005), are used to make sense of the target language and culture. In a similar line of inquiry, Felix (2005) recommends that both the cognitive and the social aspects of constructivist should receive parallel and equal importance. Knowledge is constructed individually but mediated socially" (Felix, 2005, p. 86).

Comas-Quinn, Mardomingo, &Valentine (2009) strongly highlight that sharing, collaboration and interaction with other peers and experts from whom the learner can obtain different perspectives on the problem clearly reinforce the opportunities for learning. Since computer and mobile technologies broaden the possibilities for interaction with other learners, which is of prime importance in language learning, they are ideally suited to support a social constructivist approach to task and course design.

Constructivist paradigm in language learning attempts to inform course design. It also tries to broaden previous approaches such as behaviorist rote learning or the cognitive approach that underlies the widely used communicative system. It is now well appreciated that neither the sole acquisition of grammar and vocabulary nor their controlled use in communicative situations are adequate to achieve language proficiency (Comas-Quinn, Mardomingo, &Valentine, 2009). Levy & Kennedy (2005; 2008) maintain that if language learners want to be successful, they also need to be able to access information, process it and use it in real situations. Mobile devices in general and text-messaging in particular have the potentiality and flexibility to enable learners to carry out these processes in a personalized manner.

B. Spacing Effect

Spacing effect is believed to have a role in vocabulary learning via text-messaging. Based on research on memory and learning, for an item to be stored in long-term memory distributed practice is superior to massed practice (Wozniak, 1995; Dempster, 1996; Seabrook, Brown, & Solity, 2005; Serrano & Munoz, 2007). Study conditions in which repetitions of items to be acquired or learned appear in spaced or distributed sequences have been found to lend themselves better for subsequent retention than presentations in which repetitions occur quickly (Braun and Rubin, 1998; Cuddy and Jacoby, 1982; Dempster, 1987; Greene, 1989; Hintz-man, 1976; Melton, 1970; Russo *et al*., 2002; Seabrook, Brown & Solity, 2005; Toppino and Bloom, 2002; Serrano & Munoz 2007). This phenomenon has been known as the spacing effect which further argues that memory for items which are presented and then immediately repeated, i.e. , massed practice, is worse than for items which are repeated after some intervening items have appeared, i.e., distributed practice. In other words, cognitive psychologists have found that when two presentations of a stimulus are close together, that is, massed presentation, then the improvement in memory performance, compared with a single presentation, is limited. On the other hand, when two presentations of a stimulus are temporally farther apart, that is, spaced presentation, then performance on a memory test is significantly better than performance after a single presentation. The advantage in memory performance that occurs when two presentations are spaced instead of massed is referred to as the spacing effect (Greene, 1989).

To provide more evidence for the adequacy and impact of spacing effect, Challis (1993) maintains that spacing effect is also present in both intentional and incidental learning. This suggests that students of a foreign language should review words at spaced intervals and in a variety of contexts to facilitate long-term memory storage. However, it appears that little has been done about vocabulary learning via technology. So, the present researchers postulate that through sending and receiving text-messages at spaced interval, students would be able to retain words for a longer period of time. Distributed presentations of words result in better memory for those words than do clustered presentations. This conception, therefore, led to the expectation that in a classroom setting, many short teaching sessions would produce better learning than fewer, longer sessions.

To provide evidence for the practical and pedagogical aspects of spacing effect, Traxler (2007, p.8) puts a great emphasis on the fact that “mobile learning allows students to take advantage of small amounts of time and space for learning”. While Traxler referred to distance-learning and part-time students who need to make use of every available moment. For instance, in the Australian context, where virtually all university students have mobile phones and use them for text messaging every day ,text-messaging presents itself as a technology that can be exploited to support such practice free of any “usability issues” (Kukulska-Hulme, 2007).

VII. MALL IN ALL STAGES OF LEARNING PROCESS

Apart from these underlying theories which support using MALL devices and text-message vocabulary learning, Stead (2005) believes that m-learning seems to have a place at all stages of the accepted learning process.

a) Engage: The original m-learning project focused on the engagement of reluctant learners. The novelty and status of the devices, as well as the visual and auditory appeal of the materials seem to be key factors (Stead, 2005).

b) Assess: Using m-learning to assess skills has several advantages:

• You can use the devices privately and in your own time.

• M-learning assessment is less threatening than paper-based screeners and initial assessments for new learners.

• M-learning is not as frightening as computer-based assessment.

c) Teach: M-learning uses innovative and developing technologies. It is clear that m-learning has a role in assessment and in practice. There is some evidence that being able to look at learning as many times as possible might be the ideal way for some learners to understand a concept.

d) Practice: Since material is accessible on learner’s phone, he or she is in a better position to practice the material. Whenever learners have a spare five minutes, they can use it to practice some learning.

e) Assess: Formative assessment can be carried out using mobile technology, privately and independently.

VIII. STUDIES ON MALL

Once the theoretical aspects of vocabulary learning have been dealt with, the practical aspects of the issue will be chronicled. One of the first projects using mobile phones in language learning was developed by the Stanford learning lab, which explored their use in language learning (Brown, 2001). They developed Spanish study programs utilizing both voice and text-messages with mobile phones. After registration, the students were automatically separated in 5 different groups. One group received announcements via e-mail, other 3 groups via text-messaging (but different interaction was necessary in every group) and the last – via web. These programs included vocabulary practice, quizzes, and word phrase translations, and access to live talking tutors. The conclusions of the experiment were that the students in certain scenarios preferred SMS as a medium to e-mail or web-based announces. For example, mobile phones were effective for quiz delivery if delivered in small chunks; it was also found that automated voice vocabulary lessons and quizzes had great potential to enhance vocabulary learning. In this experiment, students' attitudes were also taken into account. While some of the participants were satisfied with this new mode of enhancing their command of English, others believed that vocabulary learning via SMS had some advantages and disadvantages; they believed that convenient small question chunks to test knowledge during opportunistic bit of time was a great advantage. However, they assumed that small screen was difficult to focus on while outdoors; also small bits of text do not provide enough experience for learning new content. In a nutshell, participants considered learning words via text-messaging as a beneficial extracurricular activity.

Kennedy and Levy (2008) were successful in their experiment conducted in (2005) with the third-year students who were a small group of highly motivated learners who had already invested considerable time and energy in their Italian study, so they decided to test the applicability of SMS also in first-year courses for complete beginners. They note that freshmen's motivation is always higher than that of third year. The pre-trial survey in their study showed that about one third of respondents had used their mobile phones for study-related purposes previously, but such use had been limited to exchanging SMSs with fellow students regarding assessment tasks or using diary functions. Overall, the post-trial survey showed that the vast majority of the students had found the experience a positive one. While 84% said they had enjoyed receiving the messages, most had also found them useful, as they agreed that the messages had helped consolidate their vocabulary (87.3%), extend their vocabulary (82.5%), and develop their interest in Italian vocabulary (80.7%), a smaller majority felt the messages had helped consolidate their knowledge of grammar (78.6%).

In a similar line of inquiry, Thornton and Houser (2002; 2003; 2005) developed several projects using mobile phones to explore the effectiveness of learning via mobile phone on Japanese college students' vocabulary gains. In their 2005 study, three times a day, they sent short mini-lessons to students (N=13), in discrete chunks so as to be easily readable on the tiny screens. Lessons defined five words per week, recycled previous vocabulary, and used the words in various contexts. Students were tested biweekly and compared to groups that received identical lessons via Web and on paper (N=13). The results indicated that the SMS students learned twice the number of vocabulary words as the Web students, and that SMS students proved their scores by nearly twice as much as students who had received their lessons on paper. The results of the second experiment showed that another mobile phone group (N = 25) gained significantly more vocabulary than the group using paper materials (N= 43). Thornton and Houser concluded that the regular messages sent by mobile phone could generate the spacing effect which facilitates vocabulary retrieval. To examine the extent of the spacing effect, a follow-up experiment using vocabulary lessons of different lengths was conducted. The long version contained a full context (two sentences paraphrasing the target word and three example sentences) whereas the short version listed only one paraphrasing sentence and one example sentence. No significant difference in vocabulary gains was found between learning from the longer and shorter lessons. Thornton and Houser mentioned that mobile phones enhanced regular study, which in turn, led to more exposure to the target words and more vocabulary gains than did the detailed presentation of the lessons. Their finding is in accordance with the empirical evidence in the cognitive psychological research that constant and distributed practice has a more beneficial effect on memory and learning than massed practice. Words are memorized significantly better when they are presented temporally apart than when they are presented together at one time (Dempster, 1987; Greene, 1989; Nation & Meara, 2002). Majority of the students preferred the SMS instruction and wished to continue such lessons, and believed that it would be a valuable teaching method. The authors theorized that their lessons had been effective due to being delivered as push media which promote frequent rehearsal and spaced study, and utilized recycled vocabulary.

IX. Conclusion

It is worth mentioning that MALL studies have gained prominence over the last few years. The present paper recapitulated the major concepts and theories underlying MALL. It also elaborated profoundly upon the differences between e-learning and m-learning. It then went on to illuminate the ways through which researches have integrated the text-message technology with vocabulary learning culminating in a complementary way of increasing their domain of vocabulary capitalizing upon "anywhere anytime" advantage of m-learning. It then summarized the practical studies done on text-message vocabulary learning. Finally, the paper ended up by enumerating the advantages and disadvantages of m-learning and text-messaging.

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Ali Derakhshan is currently a PhD candidate majoring in TEFL at Allameh Tabataba'i University (ATU), Tehran, Iran. He received his M.A. in TEFL from University of Tehran, Iran in 2009. He has been a visiting lecturer at Sharif University of Technology and Allameh Tabataba'i University (ATU). He was also awarded the best national teacher in two consecutive years. He has coauthored some books and published some articles in international journals. His research interests are Language Assessment, Interlanguage Pragmatics Development & Assessment, Syllabus Design, Teacher Education, Focus on Form/s, and MALL. Mr. Ali Derakhshan is the member of the Teaching English Language and Literature Society of Iran (TELLSI).

Hossein Khodabakhshzadeh was born in Torbat-e-Heidarieh in 1974 and revieved hie BA in TEFL from Islamic Azad University of Torbat-e-Heidarieh in 1997. He persued his education at Iran University of Science and Technology and obtained MA in TEFL. He s currently the PhD candidate in TEFL at Ferdowsi University of Mashad.

Serving as a faculty member of Islamic Azad University of Torbat-e-Heidarieh for over a decade, he has taught various courses in TEFL. He has been a Lecturer in Payam noor University of Mashad, Islamic Azad University of Mashad, and Tabaran University. He has been the Head of English department at Islamic Azad University for 3 years. He has also Supervised the Ayande sazan English Institute for more than 10 years and currently is the Supervisor of Hafez and Jahan Elm institutes. He has also had some other executive jobs at Islamic Azad University of Torbat-e-Heidarieh. His main areas of interest are mostly Language Assessment, Methodology in Language Teaching and Teacher Training.

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Does Extensive Reading Improve EFL learners' Processing Ability?

Abbas Ali Rezaee
Faculty of Foreign Languages and Literatures, University of Tehran (UT), Iran
Email: aarezaee@ut.ac.ir

Saeed Nourzadeh
Faculty of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, Allameh Tabataba'i University, Iran
Email: saeednourzadeh@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—Reading experts usually agree upon the fact that Extensive Reading (ER), meaning engaging learners in reading long passages, say stories, can improve students' various aspects of proficiency. The aim of the present study is to investigate whether ER can promote bottom-up and top-down processing capacities employed by advanced learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) when reading second language (L2) texts. In this study, bottom-up and top-down processing capacities have been operationalized as L2 learners' ability to answer local and global reading comprehension questions, respectively. To achieve this aim, two intact advanced classes, one as the experimental group (n = 26) and the other as the control group (n = 25), were selected to be included in the present study. The learners in the experimental group participated in an ER course in which each learner was required to read four story books during four weeks (i.e., one story book per week) at their homes. The findings of the study indicated that participation in ER courses promotes Iranian advanced EFL learners' bottom-up and top-down processing capacities. The overall findings have implications for L2 reading comprehension classes and assessment.**

***Index Terms*—extensive reading, bottom-up processing, top-down processing, local questions, global questions**

I. Introduction

Many second language (L2) reading researchers agree that one of the most effective ways for learners to improve different aspects of their proficiency in an L2 is to engage in what is called Extensive Reading (Cho & Krashen, 1994; Day & Bamford, 1998; Leung, 2002; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Rodrigo, Krashen & Gribbons, 2004). Extensive reading (ER) could simply be defined as reading a lot of materials for pleasure with no concern for accountability (Mason & Krashen, 1997). Further, it is also necessary that readers have control over what they want to read (Day & Bamford, 2002).

ER activities are believed to increase learners' motivation (Day & Bamford, 1998; Takase, 2002) self-confidence (Arnold, 2009) and positive attitudes towards L2 reading (Camiciottoli, 2001; Leung, 2002). They also expose learners to comprehensible input which is proposed by some L2 theorists to be the primary mover of the process of second language acquisition. Krashen is known to be the most famous of these theorists who claims in many places (e.g., 1989, and 2004) that the causal factor in the acquisition of an L2 is the input that the learner receives from his surrounding environment, whether classroom or natural setting, given that the input is comprehensible. Perhaps, the most economical way of providing this comprehensible input is ER, especially in a foreign language context where learners usually do not have enough access to authentic spoken input assumed necessary for the progression of L2 competence forward.

On the other hand, due to their levels of proficiency, language learners usually use either top-down processing or bottom-up processing or, in many cases, both to get meaning out of what they are reading. In top-down processing "contextual factors such as socio-cultural knowledge and task assessment" are employed for interpreting discourse. While, "bottom-up processing is the productive or interpretive choices one makes regarding words, phrases, and sentence structures comprising the discourse of the task" (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain 2005, p. 733). Top-down processing is activated when the reader tries to call for his world knowledge for comprehending what he is reading; whereas, bottom-up processing happens when the reader restricts himself solely to the text at hand. In many cases readers, particularly experienced ones utilize both processing models to get as much as they can from a text in the shortest time available. The question, however, is whether ER helps readers improve their top-down and bottom-up processing. The present study is geared towards investigating the improvement of top-down and bottom-up processing models through encouraging advanced readers to read a sizeable number of passages.

II. Background of the Study

A. ER and the Improvement in L2 Competence

In order to become competent in an L2, one needs to possess linguistic and pragmatic knowledge of that language. As to the linguistic aspect, he should know the sounds of the language, the writing system, grammatical structures, words, and discourse. Regarding the pragmatic aspects, language functions, variations, and interactional skills are necessary. With respect to reading successfully in an L2, good knowledge of vocabulary and grammar play the most important roles. ER, that is, encouraging language learners to read as much as possible, has been shown to enhance these two aspects whereby competence is improved. In this regard, a number of investigations have been conducted to show the influence of ER on the development of vocabulary and grammar.

Much attention has been paid to the positive influences of ER on the incidental acquisition of L2 vocabulary (e.g., Horst, 2005; Kweon & Kim, 2008; Leung 2002; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Pitts, White, & Krashen, 1989, to name just a few). This type of vocabulary learning is called 'incidental' because the learner's attention is focused on something other than the words to be learned, i.e., on getting meaning out of a text (Gass, 1999). For instance, Leung (2002) reports a case study of ER where L2 vocabulary knowledge of her subject, referred to as Wendy, "improved by 23.5%" in one month" (p. 70), as measured by a modified version of Paribakht and Wesche's (1997) scale of vocabulary knowledge. Wendy's total score, out of 200, rose from 28.5% to 35.2% from the pretest to the posttest, which had a maximum score of 196. This finding has been corroborated by classroom-based ER research (e.g., Horst, 2005; Kweon & Kim, 2008). Horst's (2005) participants, for example, succeeded to acquire over half of the unknown L2 words they encountered in the ER materials. On the other hand, as far as the long-term storage of incidentally acquired words is concerned, Kweon and Kim (2008) provided supporting evidence that vocabulary gains during ER were retained over a 4-week interval after the immediate posttest, with retention having an interaction with frequency with which an L2 word would be used in L2 texts.

One benefit of incidental vocabulary acquisition is that expanding lexical knowledge through reading will benefit reading itself because an expanded L2 lexicon makes the process of getting meaning out of the text easier and more enjoyable. As Eskey (2005) puts it:

It is now well understood that the best (some would argue the only) way to acquire the extensive vocabulary required for reading widely in a second language is reading itself, and it is equally well understood that a prerequisite for such reading is an extensive vocabulary - a classic chicken and egg situation. (p. 567)

Furthermore, words learned through L2 reading comprehension activities are more prone to be mentally activated during on-line, communicative language use situations. This may be attributed to the hypothesis that words learned incidentally through ER are restructured and accommodated into the L2 learner’s interlanguage system because they have been learned via a language learning activity, i.e., ER, which resembles real language uses. Then, an incidental approach to L2 vocabulary instruction and acquisition is preferred over more intentional techniques such as bilingual word lists and controlled vocabulary exercises because, even at an intuitional level, it seems to be clear that knowledge of a word includes more than simply a link between the word's form and its meaning.

In contrast to incidental vocabulary acquisition, not much research about the effects of L2 reading comprehension activities on the acquisition of L2 grammatical rules has been done. The reason for this is that the learning of grammatical structures is more complex than vocabulary learning and that this complexity in grammar learning necessitates the conscious noticing (Schmidt, 1990) to the target grammatical form to be learned. Thus, it is not surprising that, in the literature of SLA, more attention has been paid to the acquisition of L2 grammatical forms as a result of explicit instruction of them (e.g. Doughty, 1991; Norris & Ortega, 2000) than to their acquisition through more direct, communicative approaches, including ER.

However, two studies in the L2 reading literature have found evidence in support of the positive effects of ER on L2 grammatical acquisition. Stokes, Krashen, and Kartchner (as cited in Krashen, 2004) found that the extent of L2 Spanish learners' engagement in ER, or what they called Free Voluntary Reading, was a powerful predictor of their ability to use Spanish subjunctive verbs in real communicative situations, even if they did not know the metalinguistic rule governing the use of subjunctive verbs in Spanish. This finding showing the positive effects of ER on L2 grammatical development was interesting because the other variables included in the study such as “the amount of formal study of Spanish, the amount of formal study specifically aimed at the subjunctive, and how long subjects had lived in a Spanish-speaking country” (Krashen, 2004, p. 10) did not correlate with learners’ knowledge of subjunctive verbs.

Subjunctive verbs are not the only verb form that could be acquired subconsciously as a by-product of engaging in ER. L2 English relative clauses are, too, subject to such learning and evidence for this has been found in Lee, Krashen, and Gribbons (as cited in Krashen, 2004). However, to come up with firm conclusions about the influences ER exerts on L2 syntactic acquisition, more systematic studies have to be undertaken to determine whether the positive findings observed in the aforementioned studies might be generalized to other L2 syntactic structures or to other L2 learner populations as well.

Moreover, Krashen (1989) found evidence that reading activities can help L2 learners develop their spelling skills in the second language in a way that overrides more “skill-based” approaches to the instruction of L2 spelling such as words lists, spelling rules, and exercises. In addition to linguistic benefits, ER could be hypothetically thought to develop a reader’s ability to process a text. Supporting evidence on this hypothesis has been found in relation to L2 reading fluency (Bell, 2001; Iwahori, 2008; Tanaka & Stapleton, 2007) and strategies (Hayashi, 1999). In fact, it is the aim of the present investigation to find out whether and to what extent such a hypothesis is logical and correct. Specifically, two L2 reading comprehension processes are of significance for the purposes of this study, namely, bottom-up and top-down processing.

B. Bottom-up and Top-down Processing

A distinction is often made between top-down and bottom-up processes that are thought to contribute to the extraction of meaning from both spoken and written text. Top-down processing mainly refers to the use of "contextual factors such as socio-cultural knowledge and task assessment for producing or interpreting discourse, whereas bottom-up processing is the productive or interpretive choices one makes regarding words, phrases, and sentence structures comprising the discourse of the task" (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain 2005, p. 733). In other words, top-down processing happens when the reader, or the listener, activates whatever information he has about the world around him, the topic of the passage, and its discourse patterns to help him comprehend the text he is reading. Bottom-up processing, on the other hand, means using the linguistic repertoire of lexical items, structural patterns, and orthographic/phonological knowledge we have at our disposal to decode the text meaning.

Some psycholinguists draw out attention to the levels at which these two kinds of processing come about. For instance, Carroll (2008) defines bottom-up processing as a model "which proceeds from the lowest level to the highest level of processing in such a way that all of the lower levels operate without influence from the higher levels" and top-down as a model in which "information at the higher levels may influence processing at the lower levels" (p. 56). This means that reading comprehension is not a one-shot process, and the reader goes into different levels based on the text and extralinguistic needs that he encounters as he reads throughout the passage. Thus, it can be assumed that the distinction between bottom-up and top-down processing is not a dichotomy partly because of the nature of the comparative adjectives higher and lower used by Carroll (2008). They, instead, form a continuum which ranges from the lowest level to the highest level of top-down resources. Anyway, it is appropriate to maintain the distinction between the two kinds of processing since, at any moment of the reading task, the processing is assumed to lean towards one of the two end extremes of bottom-up top-down continuum.

As far as the operationalization of bottom-up and top-down processing for research purposes is concerned, Shohamy and Inbar (1991) make a distinction between *local* and *global* questions by which bottom-up and top-down processing could be assessed. This distinction is originally based on the distinction that Van Dijk and Kintsh (as cited in Shohamy & Inbar, 1991) made between two types of comprehension strategies, namely, local and global strategies. Shohamy and Inbar (1991) assert that local strategies are in need of attention to relations and links between facts while global ones require focus on the global coherence.

Local strategies are those which require attention to relations and links between the facts denoted by local clauses and sentences; and b) global/macro-strategies are those which require a focus on the overall coherence, gist, or topic of a text. The local comprehension units are subordinate to the macro-units. (p. 26)

It can be understood from this definition that the distinction between local and global questions is very much closely related to the one already made between bottom-up and top-down processing and the difference between the two distinctions is only a matter of terminology not content. This could be explicitly shown by referring to Tsui and Fullilove (1998) who used the same distinction of local and global questions in their study.

A gap is observed in the area of research on local and global comprehension questions since both aforementioned studies (i.e., Shohamy & Inbar, 1991; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998) used the distinction with respect to L2 listening comprehension tests. Therefore, it seems that L2 reading comprehension has not found its place in this area of research. Furthermore, these two studies investigated these two types of comprehension questions from a perspective different from the one intended in this study. Shohamy and Inbar (1991) used them for validation of L2 listening comprehension tests, while Tsui and Fullilove (1998) used them to find out whether or not they could operate as a discriminator of test takers' performance on an L2 listening comprehension test. What is under-researched is the question of how correct responses to these question types can be possibly enhanced. This study is an attempt to examine one of these possibilities; that is, whether engaging in an ER program can promote the amount of bottom-up and top-down processing and, as a result, L2 learners' correct responses to local and global reading comprehension questions.

The present study has been designed to investigate whether participation in ER programs can cause to improve advanced learners' bottom-up and top-down processing capacities. Therefore, the following two research questions have been formulated.

1. Do advanced EFL learners' bottom-up processing capabilities improve as a result of participation in ER programs?
2. Do advanced EFL learners' top-down processing capabilities improve as a result of participation in ER programs?

III. The Present Study

A. Design

The research design used in the present study is a quasi-experimental one with a pre-test to assure the equality of groups prior to the instructional treatment, i.e., the ER course, and a post-test to determine the results of the instructional treatment after its implementation. The differences between the pre- and post-test results are of importance to determine whether the ER course benefits those participants who attend it in contrast to those who do not. Two intact classes, one as the experimental group (*n* = 26) and the other as the control group (*n* = 25), were asked to take a measure of reading comprehension ability as the pre-test. After the treatment, the learners took the same measure of L2 reading comprehension ability once more as a post-test.

B. Participants

Fifty one students from two intact advanced classes acted as participants in the present study from a private language institute in Tehran, Iran. Both classes were held on even days, with one of the classes being held in the morning and the other class in the afternoon and both were taught by the same teacher who described her approach to language teaching as a mixture of different techniques she believed to be appropriate based on her previous experiences in language teaching. As there might have been the risk of learners' interaction with each other after each session, there was a fidelity check to make sure that the learners would not meet each other. This was the reason behind choosing the two classes, one of which was held in the morning and the other one in the afternoon. Moreover, the learners came from different parts of the city with no or very little chance of knowing each other. As to the teacher, it should be stated that she was a very experienced one who could easily take care of her variety in teaching the two classes. This, in turn, eliminated the risk of using the same or even similar procedure in the two classes.

The participants could be described as pre-TOEFL learners as the semester following the one in which they participated in the present study was designed to prepare the participants for taking the TOEFL. All participants were female, and had been learning English as a Foreign Language between two to five years. All were native speakers of Persian, and aged between 17 to 38 years old. One of the classes was randomly selected as the experimental group (*n* = 26) and the other as the control group (*n* = 25).

C. Materials and Instrumentation

Simplified story books and fictions. Twenty nine books were selected as the ER materials to be read by the experimental group as homework. Each participant from the experimental group was required to read four books during four weeks, i.e., one book per week, based on their own choice from among the ER collection. The collection consisted of simplified story books and also of fiction books. Simplified story books included a range of books that have been adapted to learners from different L2 proficiency levels, with the adaptation / simplification usually occurring in the areas of vocabulary and syntax. Those included in the present study were chosen from Levels 5 and 6 of the *Readers Series* which has simplified story books at six levels, extending from Beginner (Level 1) to Advanced (Levels 6). Fiction books, on the other hand, included those story books that have not been written for educational purposes and, therefore, are genuine as far as their linguistic forms and structures are concerned.

The books were chosen from these three different levels of difficulty in vocabulary and structures to allow the learners to select those books that they could read efficiently based on their conception of their own proficiency in the English language. Further, attempts were made to include those books that were interesting in their topics and content. In fact, the assumption that the selected books had interesting topics and content was frequently confirmed, informally, by the participants of the experimental group during the study. The above measures were consistent with the assumption in the ER literature that L2 readers should, to some extent, have control over what they read in the L2 (Day & Bamford, 2002) and were a breakthrough to the limitation of the previous studies of ER which required the participants to read a prescribed set of ER materials (e.g., Brown, Waring, & Donkaewbua, 2008; Kweon & Kim, 2008; Pitts, White, & Krashen, 1989).

The measure of L2 reading comprehension. Four major steps were taken to construct a measure of L2 reading ability that could reliably and validly assess the participants' ability to answer local and global reading comprehension four-option multiple-choice questions:

Step one. The readability of each text in the reading section that would come at the end of the last six chapters of the classroom textbook was estimated using Fog Index of Reliability. The last six chapters of the textbook were chosen for this purpose because they were to be covered during the term. The passages had readability indices ranging from 18.92 to 23.13 (Mean = 21.35 and Standard Deviation = 1.48). This readability range was set as the criterion for the selection of texts that would comprise the measure of L2 reading ability utilized in the present study.

Step two. At this stage, seven passages were selected for inclusion in the test. The passages were chosen from available books in the market that had been written specifically for the purpose of preparing prospective TOEFL test takers. Only those passages were included in the measure that had a reliability index falling within the readability range criterion set at step one above, with two of the passages of the test exceeding this range criterion with minor deviations of .39 and .25 of a readability unit. The passages had readability indices ranging from 19.03 to 23.52, with the indices having a mean of 21.88 and a standard deviation of 1.88. The final format of the measure consisted of 52 multiple-choice items that were to be answered by participants in 60 minutes.

Step three. The constructed measure of L2 reading ability, then, was submitted to two assessors to code each item in the measure either as local or global. Both assessors were PhD students of TEFL at the University of Tehran with native-like English language proficiency and were asked to make judgments either because of their expertise in L2 reading research or language testing issues. Coding reliability coefficient between the two assessors was .94, a high reliability indicating the appropriateness of the theoretical distinction between local and global reading comprehension questions. The three questions on which the assessors did not have agreement were judged again by the present researchers themselves.

Step four. Although the validity of the constructed measure of L2 reading ability for the research purpose was, to some extent, guaranteed by adapting the readability index of each passage in the test to the participants' L2 reading proficiency, it was also necessary to demonstrate that the test was a reliable measure of L2 reading ability as well. Therefore, fourteen students who were at the same proficiency level as the participants in the present study were asked to take the test in a pilot study. The resulting reliability coefficient using KR-21 was estimated to be .74, which could be said to be an acceptable reliability coefficient for further analyses to be carried out based on the measure of L2 reading ability.

As far as the scoring of the measure was concerned, the participants' correct answer to each item was given one credit. Therefore, the total score for the whole test was 52, with the total score of 24 for the set of local questions and 28 for the set of global questions. To counterbalance the guessing effect that could emerge from a participant finding the correct answer by chance, it was decided to use a 'correction for guessing' procedure. Therefore, one-third of a credit was deduced from the participant's final score for any wrong answer.

D. Procedure

The whole research project took four weeks, out of the six weeks (three sessions per week) during which the learners of both classes attended the language course they had enrolled in. The students in the experimental group were asked if they were ready to volunteer for participation in the study. The researchers explained to them the purpose of the study to be carried out. They were informed of the potential benefits that participation in such a study could have for the development of their English language proficiency.

Both groups took the measure of L2 reading ability as the pre-test in the same day. At the end of the same session, the students from the experimental group were asked to choose, from among the collection of simplified story books and fictions, one book that appealed to their interests. They were told that they were required to read the book in the week ahead of them before bringing it back to the classroom on the first session of the next week.

The above treatment procedure took four weeks during which each participant from the experimental group read four books, i.e., one book per week. The students of the control group, on the other hand, were not exposed to the ER course, and were only required to participate in the pre-test and post-test sessions. Those participants from the experimental group who did not succeed to cover the self-selected book completely at the assigned time period were required to attend make-up sessions on which they read the rest of the book in the institute. To make sure that the participants in the experimental group had read their self-selected books, each of them was asked some questions, by the researchers or the teacher, about the content of the book they had just taken back to the classroom. This procedure took about several minutes in the case of any single participant from the experimental group. This questioning procedure, however, did not seem to breach the unaccountability criterion of ER (Mason & Krashen, 1997) because it did not have high-stakes consequences (e.g., final scores). After the finish of the instructional treatment, both the experimental and the control groups took the measure of L2 reading ability once more as the post-test.

IV. RESULTS

All the participants took the 24 local reading comprehension test items. As shown in Table 1, the students in the experimental group had a mean of 9.00, with a standard deviation of 2.83, while those in the control group could obtain a mean of 8.59, with the scores having a standard deviation of 3.13. The results of an independent-samples *t*-test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in the pre-test performance of the two groups' participants with respect to local questions; $t\ (49) = .495$, $p < .05$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .623.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE CONTROL GROUPS' PERFORMANCES ON THE PRE-TEST

Group Variable	N	Min	Max	M	SD
Experimental Group	26	4.67	15.67	9.00	2.83
Control Group	25	3.67	14.33	8.59	3.13

The post-test mean scores of the two groups with respect to local questions were analyzed to trace the potential benefits ER had for the promotion of L2 learners' ability to answer local reading comprehension questions correctly. Table 2 demonstrates the mean scores and standard deviations of the experimental group (M = 10.80, SD = 2.95) and the control group (M = 9.08, SD = 2.36). Independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups as a result of the experimental group participating in the ER treatment. The results confirmed the hypothesis that the EFL learners' ability to answer local reading comprehension questions had enhanced by engaging them in ER programs; $t\ (49) = 2.287$, $p < .05$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .027. The effect size of the difference was .096 which was an indication that effect of ER on L2 learners' correct responses to local items was a moderate one.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE CONTROL GROUPS' PERFORMANCES ON THE POST-TEST

Group Variable	N	Min	Max	M	SD
Experimental Group	26	6.33	17.00	10.80	2.95
Control Group	25	5.00	12.33	9.08	2.36

As to the 28 items asking global question, analyses on the scores obtained by the students were done. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of the pre-test scores with respect to these questions. The experimental group had a mean score of 9.39 with a standard deviation of 2.39 whereas the control group had a mean of 10.05 with a standard deviation of 2.72. Independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to see whether the difference between the means of the two groups in the pre-test was significant or not. The results of the *t*-test showed that the experimental and the control groups had been on a par, with respect to their correct responses to global questions, prior to the implementation of the ER program as there is no statistically significant difference between their mean scores; t (49) = -. 935, $p < .05$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .354.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE CONTROL GROUPS' PERFORMANCES ON THE PRE-TEST

Group Variable	N	Min	Max	M	SD
Experimental Group	26	5.67	15.00	9.39	2.39
Control Group	25	6.33	16.33	10.05	2.72

The results of the statistical analyses of the experimental and control groups' post-test performances on the global questions as a set of the measure of L2 reading ability are shown in table 4 below. The experimental group gained a mean of 11.95 with a standard deviation of 2.89. The control group, on the other hand, obtained a mean score of 10.03 and a standard deviation of 2.62. The results of independent-samples *t*-test indicated that the difference between the mean values of the two groups' was statistically significant; t (49) = 2.484, $p < .05$, Sig. (2-tailed) = .016. The magnitude of the difference was calculated to be moderate (eta squared = .112). The preceding statistics indicates that the effects of the ER course on top-down processing capacities were larger than its effects on bottom-up processing capacities even though in both cases the effects were statistically significant.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE CONTROL GROUPS' PERFORMANCES ON THE POST-TEST

Group Variable	N	Min	Max	M	SD
Experimental Group	26	6.67	17.00	11.95	2.89
Control Group	25	6.33	15.33	10.03	2.62

V. DISCUSSION

As correct responses to local reading comprehension questions depend mostly upon the processing of lower-order linguistic forms and structures, positive evidence that ER increases L2 readers' correct responses to such questions implies that learners' L2 knowledge will develop as a result of engagement in ER courses. This finding is consistent with those findings, in the field of L2 reading research, that are interpreted as evidence on the positive role of ER in the expansion of L2 vocabulary, grammar, and spelling knowledge. For example, Robb and Susser's (1989) study demonstrated that their ER group members who were required to read 500 pages as a minimum were more able at guessing the meanings of unknown words, a strategy that seems to be necessary for answering text-based reading comprehension questions including local items. Furthermore, besides the development of the ability to guess the meanings of unknown L2 words, a host of researchers have found that L2 reading comprehension in general and ER in particular can expand learners' L2 vocabulary knowledge (Krashen, 1989; Kweon & Kim, 2008) beyond the temporary recognition of word meanings.

On the other hand, as far as the acquisition of L2 grammatical structures is concerned, Lee, Krashen, and Gribbons (1996) as well as Stokes, Krashen, and Kartchner (1998) found evidence in support of the relationship between engagement in ER programs and the use/acquisition of particular L2 grammatical structures. Lee, et al (as cited in Krashen 2004) found that those learners participating in ER activities had a better opportunity to acquire L2 English relative clauses. Consistent with this evidence is Stokes, et al's (as cited in Krashen, 2004) finding that there is a correlation between L2 Spanish learners' use of Spanish subjunctive verbs for communicative purposes and the extent to which they are engaged in ER programs.

Moreover, Krashen (1989) found evidence that reading activities can help L2 learners develop their spelling skills in the second language in a way that overrides more "skill-based" approaches to the instruction of L2 spelling such as words lists, spelling rules, and exercises. This last finding, however, does not seem to be able to explain for so much variance in the development of bottom-up processing capacities in the case of the participants of the present study as it can be argued that the L2 spelling complexities that advanced L2 learners confront do not usually pose a problem to their comprehension of an L2 text. It is logical to claim that advanced L2 learners do not explicitly focus their attention on sound-grapheme correspondences when comprehending an L2 text, a strategy that seems insufficient and unnecessary when the purpose is to understand an L2 text rather than to analyze it linguistically.

All of these findings provide evidence that ER contributes to the acquisition of different aspects of a second language. Therefore, the increase in the experimental group's correct responses to local questions can be explained by gains in theses aspects, save spelling, that result from participation in ER courses and that, in turn, contribute to the bottom-up processing of L2 texts. The benefits of ER for the development of reading comprehension processes was not, of course, limited to bottom-up processing as the findings of the study demonstrated that the experimental group's responses to global questions increased by participating in the ER program. Further, the size of this increase was larger than that occurring with respect to local questions even though in both cases the increase could reach statistical significance.

The question is how ER activities improve these higher-order top-down processes in L2 readers' minds. Possible justifications for this improvement are the development of working memory for L2 reading comprehension, the development of the ability to recognize discourse features of L2 texts, and the expansion of the learners' knowledge of the second language. First, Palladino, Cornoldi, De Beni and Pazzaglia (2001) contend that, in L1 reading comprehension, the optimal comprehension of a text requires an updating working memory system hold the relevant information for processing while discarding the irrelevant reading stimuli. The role of this updating working memory system in L2 reading can hypothetically be claimed to be more prominent in the case of top-down processing than bottom-up processing since the former is usually involved in the comprehension of supra-sentential meanings; that is, those meanings that traverse the boundaries of single sentences. This traversing across sentences to understand those meanings that have not been stated linguistically in the text requires the assignment of more working memory resources. Therefore, some variance in the increase in the number of experimental group's correct responses to global items in the present study can hypothetically be attributed to the development of the L2 reading working memory capacity that has resulted from participation in the ER treatment.

Second, related to the reading comprehension working memory capacity is an awareness of the discourse features of texts to be read. In fact, as Perfetti and Goldman (1976) empirically demonstrate, linguistic knowledge and the efficient distribution of working memory capacities are two main variables that contribute to the processing of text organization and text discourse features. On the other hand, it is documented in L2 reading research that L2 readers' familiarity with how texts in the second language are organized discursively contributes to the comprehension processes of those texts (Jiang & Grabe, 2007). Therefore, some variance in the development of Iranian EFL learners' top-down processing capacities in this study is hypothetically attributable to the familiarization of the participants with the discourse features of L2 English texts as a result of participation in the ER course.

Finally, expansion of the knowledge of English as a second language may partially explain the increase in the advanced EFL learners' correct responses to global questions. This hypothesis seems justifiable since, as documented in the literature of L2 reading and listening research, bottom-up and top-down processing are but two extremes of the same processing continuum (Grabe, 1991; Lesgold & Perfetti, 1978). That is, at any moment of comprehension processing, bottom-up and top-down processing are employed synchronously, with one extreme of the continuum being dominant. Therefore, lower-order linguistic forms and structures that are the single major factor in bottom-up processing operations during reading comprehension have also a contributory role in top-down processing, indicating that the development of top-down processing capacities has, to some extent, been influenced by the development of different aspects of the English language as a result of participation in the ER treatment.

There exists a unanimous agreement among ER researchers that the longer an ER course is implemented, the more conspicuous its effects are on the development of different aspects of an L2 (Green, 2005; Krashen, 2004; Renandya, 2007). Therefore, the pedagogical implications of ER can be said to be more far-reaching than what the present study would be able to demonstrate if more classroom time is to be devoted to ER programs. However, even within a short period of time (i.e., four weeks) and with a limited number of books assigned to each participant in the experimental group (i.e., four books), the results of the present study seems astonishing and therefore, supportable implications can be derived from them for pedagogical purposes.

ER can be used for the development of L2 reading processes that usually defy direct instruction because of their complexity or being so inseparable that any pedagogical attempt to isolate them for teaching may lead to undesirable results. ER, however, provides a natural context for the development of these processes in L2 readers. Further, it is suggested that learners' motivation to read in the L2 be enhanced by means of different instructional techniques so that the time they devote to reading extensively in the L2 would be increased. This, in turn, will lead to the development of different components of an L2 which can be used for language skills beyond L2 reading.

From an assessment perspective, involving prospective test-takers in ER programs can help them perform better in local and global reading comprehension items of measures of L2 proficiency. Further, the resulting development of different aspects of the L2 as a consequence of participation in ER activities can help prospective test-takers perform better in other subtests of measures of L2 proficiency such as those of L2 lexical and grammatical knowledge as well. Thus, it is suggested that ER activities be included in those educational programs which intend to prepare L2 learners for taking measures of L2 proficiency.

It is important to pay attention to Green's (2005) warning that "it is a fundamental misconception to see it [i.e., ER] as a 'stand-alone' component" (p. 308). On the other hand, focus on strategies-based approaches to L2 reading instruction is valued because many researchers have found that the instruction on L2 reading strategies help learners become better readers of an L2 (e.g., Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989; Macaro & Erler 2008; Raymond, 1993). Then, ER programs and strategies-based approaches to L2 reading instruction can be used in a complementary fashion in L2 reading classes so that the ultimate results of these classes for the development of L2 reading processing capacities can be optimized.

VI. Conclusion

At the end, it is necessary to mention that most studies suffer from certain shortcomings and limitations. The present study is not an exception. Some of the limitations can provide the necessary grounds for further investigation. First, the present study did not include a measure of general L2 proficiency even though the two groups were of equal pre-treatment status with respect to local and global reading comprehension questions. Studies should be carried out to see whether the observed effects of ER on the development of L2 reading processing capacities is a function of L2 reading comprehension or a function of general proficiency in the L2. Second, it is not possible, in the present study, to determine whether the factors listed as likely explanations of the development of top-down processing capacities play the role attributed to them since no operationalization of them was included in the study. They have been suggested here only as tentative, not conclusive, explanations as to the development of top-down processing capacities. Further investigation is required to determine whether or not they have such a function and, if so, to determine their exact contributions to the development of L2 reading processing capacities. Finally, long-term measures should be incorporated in studies of this kind to see whether the observed effects of ER are retained over time and beyond the immediate posttest.

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Abbas Ali Rezaee was born in Tehran, IR Iran, in 1956. He finished his MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in Tabiat Modarres University, Tehran, in 1989 and obtained his PhD in Applied Linguistics from the University of Exeter, England, in 2001.

He is currently a member of academic staff at the Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Foreign Languages and Literatures, University of Tehran. He has published many articles in national and international journals. He has taught specialized courses at BA, MA and PhD levels and has also supervised a large number of MA theses and PhD dissertation in language teaching and testing. His main research interests are Language Teaching, Language Testing, Discourse Analysis, ESP, and CALL.

Dr Rezaee is a member of the Teachers of English Language and Literature Society in Iran (TELLSI). He acts the reviewer of a number of domestic and international journals.

Saeed Nourzadeh was born in 1985 in Tehran. IR Iran. He holds an MA in TEFL from University of Tehran. At present, he is doing his PhD in TEFL at Allameh Tabataba'i University. He has been teaching English as a foreign language for several years, both at universities and language Institutes.

Mr. Nourzadeh’s main areas of interest include ‘second language reading comprehension processing’, ‘interlanguage pragmatics’, ‘identity in second language acquisition’, and ‘discourse analysis’.

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The Poetics of Foregrounding: The Lexical Deviation in *Ulysses*

Xianyou Wu
Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China
Email: wuxyou@yahoo.com.cn

***Abstract*—In *Ulysses*, there is a whole repertoire of linguistic inventiveness, creativity and play in the form of new words and odd constructions, which calls for our close reading. Lexical Inventiveness, as I argue, best characterizes Joyce's lexical revolution in which both creativity and playfulness of language are fully stressed. To have a better understanding of them, this chapter is to investigate special conversions, unusual compounds and comic word-play by means of classification and comparison. Our studies show: (1) Joyce's defamiliarized lexis is more motivated than arbitrary as he made the best use of the accepted lexical resources; (2) As for various word formations, we find that Joyce's verb conversion follows fairly well the word-formation rules, his compounds deviate a lot from the rules and his jumbled compounds are, in its true sense, what Bakhtin calls "linguistic carnivalization"; (3) Semantically, neologisms, though fleeting, are terse, lively, exciting, expressive, and above all true to life. (4) Perfect truth was perfect language." (French, 1982). The point with his linguistic inventiveness is to make full use of the visual and auditory textures of words, including their musical nature, and to increase the expressive power of literary language, and thus to achieve the special artistic effects of "defamiliarization" by increasing the difficulty of reading and lengthening their time of perception, and it is in grappling with linguistic deviation, creativity and indeterminateness that lies much of the pleasure of reading *Ulysses*. So Joyce's linguistic inventiveness is part of his artistic ingenuity in fiction and calls for further studies.**

Index Terms*—foregrounding, lexical deviation, stylistic effects, *Ulysses

I. Introduction

In *Ulysses*, there is a whole repertoire of linguistic inventiveness, creativity and play in the form of new words and odd constructions, which calls for our close reading. Lexical inventiveness, as I argue, best characterizes Joyce's lexical revolution in which both creativity and playfulness of language are fully stressed. To have a better understanding of them, this paper is to investigate special conversions and unusual compounds by means of classification and comparison. By employing the theory of "defamiliarization", this article aims at a relatively systematic study on two kinds of word formation -- verb conversion and compounds, so as to demonstrate Joyce's rules of lexical inventiveness and their special stylistic values, and thus to help readers with a better understanding of Joyce's artistic use of the literary language.

"Defamiliarization", a key term for the Russian formalists in the 1920s, has greatly shaped the linguistic and literary ideas of the Russian Formalism, the New Critics and the French Structuralism, and it also plays an important role in narratology and stylistics. According to Shklovsky(1965), the function of art is to make people aware of the world in a fresh way and the device is "defamiliarization" or "making strange", "the technique of art is to make objects 'unfamiliar', to make forms difficult, to increase the difficulty and length of perception because the process of perception is an aesthetic end in itself and must be prolonged." He even believes that literariness resides in the defamiliarized language. In fact, some other scholars, such as Mukarosvsky(1964), Fowler(1996), van Peer(1986), Leech(2001), and others, strongly support this idea. So far, Shklovsky's theory of "defamiliarization" is by no means outmoded, and moreover, it is often lauded as a guiding principle and an effective literary approach both in literary criticism and stylistics.

II. Special Conversion

Conversion is generally defined as a word-formation process whereby a word of a certain word class is shifted into another class without the addition of an affix, or more scientifically termed as "derivation by zero suffix". Converted words do not technically add new words to the lexicon of English, but they can extend the semantic range of existing words by changing their grammatical functions. Conversions can be grouped into various kinds, such as Noun → Verb, Verb → Noun, Adjective → Verb, Adjective → Noun, and so on. Since almost all kinds of conversion can be found in *Ulysses*, the corpus would be too large for us to control. For convenience, I shall restrict my scope of research to two types of conversion: verb and non-verb conversions. The former refers to all those converted verbs (including verb-ing and verb-ed) from other word classes while the latter is a miscellaneous group consisting of all the converted words but verbs. Please look at the following examples from *Ulysses*:

A. *Verb Conversion*

Verb conversion, or "dynamic" transfer, is typical of Joyce's lexical inventiveness. By his sleight of hand, not only nouns, but also some other word classes, such as adjectives "blue", "wet" and "happy", adverb "almost", and even archaic English like "thou" and "thee", can be turned into verbs. These verbs standing out from the background are effective in expressing the experiential function of language and helpful in giving a faithful presentation of persons, things and events in Dublin.

In Episode 3 "Proteus", Joyce embraces what his biographer R. Ellmann calls "the most famous of the literary devices in *Ulysses*," namely the "internal monologue". (p. 358) Stephen, a potential poet, is walking on the beach. Whatever he sees can trigger off his active associations. As Stephen's thoughts roll about and deconstruct themselves in quick succession in his mind, every single thing is recorded for the reader. It is very much a stream-of-consciousness technique that writers such as Virginia Woolf and Joyce himself helped refine. This following dream dialect is just one example of the internal monologue employed frequently in the novel.

Wait. Open hallway. Street of harlots. Remember. Haroun al Raschid. I am *almosting* it. That man led me, spoke. I was not afraid. The melon he had he held against my face. Smiled: creamfruit smell. That was the rule, said. In. Come. Red carpet spread. You will see who. (Joyce, 1996, p. 58-59)

"Almost" is so simple an adverb that an English beginner would know it, but here it could puzzle a linguist if devoid of the context. What does "*almosting*" mean? What does "it" refer to? At the first glance, "*almosting*" seems to mean "almost having sex with the prostitute" and "it" is likely to mean "the sexual affair". To solve the problem, the best way is to return to the context, to the different tenses there. Stephen's monologue here consists of two parts: the first part is from the beginning to "*almosting* it", written in the first-person singular and present tense; the second part is from "That man" to the end. In the second part, there is the calling voice of the pandering man before the brothel: "In. Come. Red carpet spread. You will see who." Clearly, "I am *almosting* it" is Stephen's present thought, which has nothing to do with the last night's dream, hence with the brothel affair. Thus, "*almosting* it" refers to "almost remember/recall the name of the street of harlots". Perhaps "*almosting*" is most typical of Joyce's idiolect. Such a lexical deviation is no less than Hopkin's famous line "the widow-making unchilding unfathering deeps", the cognitive meaning of which could be rendered as "the deeps which deprive (wives) of husbands, (children) of fathers, and (parents) of children". When you come across such a deviation, a careful reading is absolutely needed. By the way, according to Ellmann (1975, p. 49), Joyce himself had his first experience of visiting the brothel at the age of fourteen.

[Virag] is *sausaged* into several overcoats. (Joyce, 1996, p. 628)

Here, "*sausaged*", is a typical example of dynamic transfer. Virag is Bloom's dead father. One verb conversion equals several words put together: "stuffed like a sausage". With just one word, Virag's deformed appearance appears vividly in readers' mind and what's more, in a sense, such a description of the dead is necessary as a result of the whole technic of the episode: hallucination. Such wonderful examples can be found everywhere. For Joyce, words are gold. In "Sirens", some musical instruments are frequently transformed to verbs and they are both economical and impressive:

Brightly the keys, all twinkling, linked, all *harpsichording*…. (Joyce, 1996, p. 340)

"Harpsichord" is a musical instrument, like a piano except that the strings are plucked rather than struck. Usually we say "X plays the harpsichord", but we seldom say "all (the keys) *harpsichording*". As we know, in a sentence which contains an object, the subject typically refers to the agent, or cause of the event, and the object refers to the person or thing which suffers the consequences of the event. Here it is obvious that Joyce's descriptive focus is not on the agent but on the object. For Joyce, it is the keys rather than the agent that produce music: those foregrounded instruments could have their own lives and could speak for themselves. It fits well with the musical theme of the episode. One more example from the same episode: "Bob Cowley's outstretched talons gripped the black deepsounding chords." (Joyce, 1996, p. 365) The strangeness of the utterance is in the way Joyce causes the action to be perceived. The pianist's hand poised above the keys becomes the talon of a bird of prey, and it grips not the keys but the chords, which are thereby turned into physical objects. A synaesthesia arises through the attribution of color, blackness, to the chords. The sentence thus produces a merger, in one impression, of three senses: touch, vision and sound.

Other examples are equally impressive, such as *sirring* (Joyce, 1996, p. 47), *blued* (p. 59), *bloodying* (p. 60), *southing* (p. 61), *bagged* (p. 86), to *physic* (p. 104), *waltzing* (p. 109), to *out* (p. 126, p. 227, dialect), to *mazurka* (p. 165), *muttoning* (p. 287), *aproned* (p. 155), *wolfing* (p. 215), *wetted* (p. 215), *happied* (p. 274), *mustachioed* (p. 293), *tambpourined* (p. 360), to *up* (p. 433), *bassooned* (p. 347), *girling* (p. 659), *arabesquing* (p. 679), *Sherlockholmesing* (p. 735), *crookeding* (p. 908), and so on. From these examples, we can see clearly that almost all the nonverb word classes can be made verbs in particular contexts. They are vivid, economical and context-bound. Of all the verb conversions, "N→V" conversion is most productive and impressive, and it is especially to Joyce's liking. These "dynamic" transfers are short in form, but compact in meaning.

B. *Non-verb Conversion*

This type of conversion, though covering far more word classes, is less productive than the previous one. But in specific contexts, they are helpful in portraying the characters or foregrounding the theme.

Perched on high stools by the bar, hats shoved back, at the tables calling for more bread no charge, swilling, *wolfing gobfuls* of sloppy food, their eyes bulging, wiping *wetted* moustaches. (Joyce, 1996, p. 215)

In Episode 8 “Lestrygonians”, Bloom is getting hungry at 1 p.m. and looks for somewhere to lunch. He moves south and across the Liffey first to the Burton’s, disgusted; then to the Byrne’s pub. The eating motif is indicated in Joyce’s term for the episode’s technic: peristaltic—that is, peristaltic movement, the movement of food down the esophagus—and, by further extension, the entire digestive process which seems to mean that Bloom’s thoughts are like the “rhythmic involuntary constrictions of the intestinal canal, whereby the contents are mixed with the digestive juices, and forced along the canal”, as a dictionary defines. Joyce spends nearly two pages to describe the eating scene there, which is a microcosmic picture of Dublin and even the whole western world after the First World War as well. The above scene is what Bloom sees when he first enters Burton’s. To have a better view of the restaurant, let us look at some more diners:

He gazed round the *stooled* and *tabled* eaters, tightening the wings of his nose.

That fellow ramming a *knifeful* of cabbage down as if his life depended on it. (Joyce, 1996, p. 215)

What a sight! All those diners are more a hungry wolf than a man! In relation to the above description, we really have much to say about so many things: those disgusting diners, Dublin’s social and economic conditions, Joyce’s creative technique and so on. To cut the long talk short, let us have a brief discussion of the marked conversions above, particularly the two unit nouns: *gobful* and *knifeful*. Suffix “-ful” is a grammatical marker for unit noun to stress the volume of a vessel, such as a handful of soil, a roomful of smoke, a mouthful of snow. “Gob” in plural form means “plenty of”, and here “*gobful*” is used to suggest “an extreme amount of” or “an enormously large quantity of”. “Knife” is not a unit noun itself, but here it is creatively used as a unit noun “*knifeful*”. It is likely that Joyce coined the word following the accepted word “forkful” which means “an amount that is or can be picked up on a fork”, for example, “a *forkful* of mutton”. As is known, knife and fork are daily eating tools at the table, and it is natural that Joyce would think of using “the *knifeful* of cabbage” to express the great quantity. Similarly, we Chinese might have every reason to say “a *chopstickful* of cabbage”. When having a toast meat, we do see a *chopstickful* of mutton of a Xin Jiang flavor, why not accept it with a smile? But here, Joyce prefers “a knifeful” to a “forkful” with an obvious ironical tone: a knife may hold less than a fork, but ill-bred men would eat from their knives. Some other conversions are easy to understand: “*wolfing*” is metaphorically used to mean “swallowing down food like a wolf”. The whole scene is reminiscent of animals triggered by “wolfing”; both “stooled” and “tabled” refer to placement on stools and at/by the table for feeding. Farm animals are “penned”, “stalled” and “stabled” for their meals. These diners are eating their food or licking the feed trough like pigs—sawdust on floor and smell of beery piss, so a bitter irony is fully conveyed. Such non-verb conversions are as vivid and descriptive as verb ones.

More examples are *biscuitfully* (Joyce, 1996, p. 156), *cityful* (p. 208), *knifeful* (p. 216), *dongiovannism* (p. 251), *warningfully* (p. 256), *best* (p. 261), *eglintine* (p. 267), *muchly* (p. 339) and so on. On the whole, conversions are laconic, vivid and expressive, which appear more in narrative sentences than in internal monologues. The possible reason is that narrators are able to control their own consciousness and allowed more free time to make good diction, but in characters’ monologues, it seems that words are recorded as what they are: incorrect spellings, ungrammatical sentences, even no punctuation marks, and above all, not many conversions. But I have to point out that the so-called free flowing thought is practically not “free”, it is still controlled by the conscious mind of the implicit author outside the story. So the “power of discourse” in a character’s monologue is in firm control of the writer.

These conversions, though deviant, can still be accepted by common readers as the denotation and connotation of both parts of conversions are known, and combining them produces a clear hybrid: wolf + -ing (eating like a wolf); horse + ness (showing character or nature); all (every) + horse (maybe total idea of horse), etc. But this is not the end of Joyce’s linguistic inventiveness. In the following section, I will see some more deviant or even “irrational” examples of word-formation.

III. Unusual Compounds

Since compounds are vivid, descriptive and transparent, they are particularly popular with poets and writers. Joyce is one of those who feast on new compounds, and he is likely to be the only writer who carries it so far, even to the extreme. For Joyce, almost every word, whether a noun, an adjective, a verb or an adverb, can be put together to become compounds; for Joyce, compounding is more like playing a word game than doing a piece of serious scholastic work.

Ulysses presents a diversified and dazzling sight of compounds to its eager readers. According to their different syntactical roles, compounds fall into four kinds: noun compounds, verb compounds, adjective compounds and jumbled compounds. For Joyce, almost every word, whether a noun, an adjective, a verb or an adverb, can be put together to become compounds; for Joyce, compounding is more like playing a word game than doing a piece of serious scholastic work.

A. Noun Compounds

Noun compounds usually follow a N + N pattern, with nouns usually being a common noun, but occasionally being a pronoun or even a name, such as *babemaries*, *Hesouls*, *shesouls*, *littlejohn*, *Besteglinton*, *Bronzelydia*, *Minagold*, *Kennygiggles*, *Shebronze*, *bensoulbenjamin*, and even *shebeenkeeper*. The very unusual kind with this type is a grammatical one: Antecedent + Relative Pron., such as *Bloowho*, *Bloowhose* and *Bloohimwhom*. These compounds are typical of a Joyce's style, although other writers may also use some portmanteau words in their works, e. g. Lewis Carroll's two well-read books: *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* (1865) and *Through the Looking Glass* (1871). Additionally, these words are not only compact in meanings, but also rich in cultural connotations, and they are worthy of our close attention. Let us start with the grammatically unusual kind.

Filled with his god he thrones, Buddh under plantain. Gulfer of souls, engulfer. *Hesouls, shesouls,* shoals of souls. Engulfed with wailing creecries, whirled, whirling, they bewail. (Joyce, 1996, p. 245)

The ninth episode "Scylla and Charybdis" opens up at 2:00 p.m. in the National Library. Stephen is participating in a heated discussion mainly about Shakespeare. Stephen's erudition finds full expression in his frequent allusions to Shakespeare's biological details and Dante's *The Divine Comedy* and *Paradise Lost,* and to diverse Greek myths. Like the seas between "Scylla and Charybdis", this episode is difficult to navigate.

This short passage is full of Stephen's intertextual allusions to cultural or literary sources, such as "Yogibogeybox" (classic work of theology), "Aztec logos", "mahamahatma", "Lotus ladies", "Buddh under plantain", and above all Dante's *Inferno*. "*Hesouls, shesouls*, shoals of souls" reminds people of Dante's description of the carnal sinners in Canto 5 of the *Inferno*. "Hesouls" refers to those whirling men's souls and "shesouls" to those bewailing women's souls. All these lonely souls are whirled about by a "hellish storm which never rests" (Joyce, 1996, p. 35). These words are also reminiscent of the tongue twister: "She sells sea shells by the seashore."

By the Nilebank the *babemaries* kneel, cradle of bulrushes: a man supple in combat: stonehorned, stonebearded, heart of stone. (Joyce, 1996, p. 180)

"*Babemaries*" is composed of two words: babe + mary. Here the compound means "wet nurse", which is closely related to Moses' birth. The first two chapters of Exodus tell of Moses' birth. At that time, the Egyptian king gave order that all the Hebrew male babes should be drowned in the Nile. Moses was put by his own parents into a cradle of bulrushe flowing along the Nile. By chance, the princess discovered the cradle and saved him and named him "Moses". Just when the babe was found, a girl who was the babe's sister and was hidden around came along and offered a helping hand to the princess and asked the princess if she could look around and find a Hebrew babemary for the babe. The princess agreed and entrusted the babe to the care of a Hebrew woman who turned out to be his own mother. When the boy grew up, the princess adopted him as her own son. Later, the young man grew into "a man supple in combat: stonehorned, stonebearded, heart of stone." What's more, this passage is a typical example of Bakhtin's intertextuality. According to Bakhtin, our text or discourse "is filled with others' words, varying degrees of otherness and varying degrees of 'our-own-ness'". (1986, p. 89) In other words, texts or utterances are intersected with others' words or texts, and they are inherently intertextual, constituted by elements of other texts.

Some compounds of the second type are really defamilarized and are able to lengthen readers' time of perception, for example:

Practice dwindling. A *mighthavebeen*. Losing heart. Gambling. (Joyce, 1996, p. 159) (V + Have + V-ed)

The above fragments are Bloom's internal monologue under the news headline "Sad" in Episode 7. In this Episode, Bloom is first seen in an office of the *Freeman's Journal* and *National Press*, and now he is in the printing works, talking about an advertisement. Inside a group of hangers-on are "professor" MacHugh, Simon Dedalus (Stephen's father), Ned Lambert, and J. J. O'Molloy. In this whole passage, Bloom does not reveal anything about the person he is worried about. Then in Bloom's monologue, whose practice is dwindling in the group? What does "A *mighthavebeen*" mean? From the context, we know that Bloom shows much sympathy for J. J. O'Molloy as the latter, a former lawyer, always despised by others, suffers from lung disease, goes down from bad to worse. "Practice dwindling" could be understood as "O'Molloy's business as a lawyer is wasted." For us, the bizarre compound "*mighthavebeen*", made up of "might + have + been", suggests an unreal condition, which can be rendered as "he might have been a successful person". This short stream reveals part of Bloom's personality: his kindness and sympathy. Bloom is always worried about other's sufferings: a quality often deprived of most people in a hypocritical self-centered society. Incidentally, "might-have-beens" is also found to mean "unrealized possibilities" in Leech and Short's vocabulary. (1981, p. 133)

Kinds of unusual words often represent the spontaneity and originality typical of mental soliloquy where Joyce's vivid linguistic imagination is working.

B. Verb Compounds

Most of the verb compounds in *Ulysses* function as predicates, and only a few as adverbials or subject complements. These compounds may fall into 6 kinds: V + V; Adj. + V-ed; N + V-ing; Num. + N-ed; Adj. + N-ed and Adv. + V-ing. As is known, verb group is closely related to the experiential function of language, i.e. a person's outer and inner experiences. In *Ulysses*, verb compounds, though small in number, are particularly important in describing the characters' "goings-on"—happening, doing, sensing, meaning, and being and becoming. Let us look at some typical examples:

The boys *sixeyed* father Conmee and laughed. (Joyce, 1996, p. 282) (Num. + N-ed)

As mentioned in 1.1, Episode 10 "Wandering Rocks" is a transitional episode made up of 19 separate scenes. In the first scene, Father Conmee is following a complex route: traveling by tram and on foot to the suburbs, first to the east and then to the north-east, and he meets with the Viceroy, who travels by carriage from his Lodge in Phoenix Park roughly east to open a charity bazaar. At the corner of Mountjoy square, Father Conmee stopped three little schoolboys from Belvedere where Joyce himself once attended: Jack Sohan, Gallaher and Brunny Lynam. "Father Conmee gave a letter from his breast to master Brunny Lynam and pointed to the red pillarbox at the corner of Fizgibbon street" and he joked: "—But mind you don't post yourself into the box, little man, he said." Having heard these amusing words, "The boys *sixeyed* father Conmee and laughed." (Joyce, 1996, p. 282) Obviously, "*sixeyed*" can be rendered as "the six eyes stared wide at". Here, just one verb compound equals six words without loss of its meaning. Moreover, the compound is packed with more than its cognitive meaning: a stylistic coloring in the context. A vivid picture of those three lovely boys is instantly aroused in the reader's mind, and meanwhile, Father Conmee's kindness and charity are strongly felt. To the reader, "*sixeyed*" is as funny and humorous as Father Conmee's joke.

He *seehears lipspeech*. (Joyce, 1996, p. 365)

This is a typical SVO sentence. But what's unusual in this short statement is its two compounds: a verb one and a noun one. To fully understand the sentence, we need to have a look at its context. As we know, Bloom had a miserable time at the Ormond bar. He tried every means to kill the time, but he failed. When the barreltone Ben Dollard was requested of singing *The Croppy Boy* in "F sharp major", Bloom hesitated a lot about the question of staying or not.

Must go prince Bloom told Richie prince. No, Richie said. Yes, must. Got money somewhere. He's on for a razzle backache spree. Much? He *seehears lipspeech*. One and nine. Penny for yourself. Here. Give him twopence tip. Deaf, bothered. But perhaps he has wife and family waiting, waiting Patty come home. Hee hee hee hee. Deaf wait while they wait. (Joyce, 1996, p. 365)

From the dialogue, we know that "he" refers to Richie. What's Richie's talking style? While listening to the waiter, Richie always watches the other's lips.

This is the cleverest use of verb collocation. Our common sense tells us that we "see lips", but "hear speech". But it is often the case that we may use our different senses at the same time. For example, when we walk in the street, we see people and things with our eyes, and meanwhile we hear voices with our ears. Usually we need to describe them with different sentences, but possibly for Joyce, this is too chatty and troublesome. His verb compound "*seehears*" speaks for itself. "*seehears*" is laconic and impressive, suggesting well the immediacy and simultaneity of the two actions. More examples:

He *smellsipped* the cordial juice and, bidding his throat strongly to speed it, set his wineglass delicately down. (Joyce, 1996, p. 220)

Davy Byrne *smiledyawnednodded* all in one:

—Iiiiichaaaaaaach! (Joyce, 1996, p. 226)

At Davy Byrne's, Bloom sees "Moral people. He doesn't chat." Bloom greets Nosey Flynn at the corner of the bar, then orders a cheese sandwich and a glass of burgundy which proves to be the cause of Bloom's farting at the end of Episode 11. Nosey Flynn upsets Bloom a lot when the other is picking up the embarrassing topic of Boylan's coming tour. After drinking the wine, Bloom's midriff "yearned then upward, sank within him, yearned more longly, longingly". (p. 220). Bloom sees Flynn first smelling his juice and then sipping a bit, so Flynn "*smellsipped* the cordial juice and, bidding his throat strongly to speed it, set his wineglass delicately down." Later, the bar holder Davy Byrne comes along and has a very long chat with Nosey Flynn. Still later, Nosey Flynn does most of the talking and occasionally Davy Byrne puts in a few words or asks a simple question. At this moment, Davy Byrne "*smiledyawnednodded*". This compound is made of three verbs: smiled + yawned + nodded, suggesting the immediacy and simultaneity of the three actions. In addition, in this specific context, it may serve as a hint to the talkative Nosey Flynn that "I'm tired or drowsy. Let's wind up the gossip." At another time, Joyce used three "ands" to express those simultaneous actions: "Father Conmee smiled and nodded and smiled and walked along Mountjoy square east." (p. 282)

So much for Joyce's creative use of verb compounds. Joyce's creative use of language is well displayed in other kinds of compounds.

C. Adjective Compounds

Compounds of this type are largely derived from present or past participles. The main difference between adjective and verb compounds lies not in their formations but their syntactical functions. The former perform the role of an adjective and the latter that of a predicate. Adjective compounds are well used in the novel for brevity and vividness. Here are some typical examples:

…*welshcombed* his hair with raking fingers. (Joyce, 1996, p. 160)

"*welshcombed*" is formed by a noun plus -ed. The sentence describes Mr Dedalus's way of combing his hair: he combed his hair with raking fingers like Welsh people. In addition to the lexical meaning, this compound also carries some cultural implication. A "welsh comb" is the thumb and four fingers because the Welsh were popularly regarded as a wild and unkempt people. (Gifford and Seidman, 1988, p. 135) An ironical tone is conveyed here, and meanwhile, the minute description of a minor character allows Joyce a faithful representation of everything in Dublin.

Paris: the *wellpleased* pleaser (Joyce, 1996, p. 245)

Similarly, besides the well-used lexical meaning of "feeling or showing great satisfaction or happiness", the compound is loaded with cultural implications. "Paris" here is a pun. As we know, Paris is the capital of France and one of the most attractive cities in the world; meanwhile, Paris is the son of King Puliomos with whom Hera eloped in Greek mythology. The pun turns on the Greek myth of Paris, who pleased Aphrodite, the goddess of love, by awarding her the prize in a beauty contest with Athena and Hera. Aphrodite in turn pleased Paris by awarding him Helen of Troy. "Paris" here refers to Shakespeare. (Gifford and Seidman, 1988, p. 210) Then one more example:

Both then were silent?

Silent, each contemplating the other in both mirrors of the reciprocal flesh of *theirhisnothis* fellow faces. (Joyce, 1996, p. 824)

Episode 17 is the most beautiful episode of the book, though at first sight it is the most forbidding. It was said to be Joyce's favorite episode and Joyce called it the "ugly duckling of the book". (Budgen, 1972) The story happens at about 2 a.m. the following morning. Stephen accepts Bloom's invitation to his home for a cup of "cocoa". (Joyce, 1996, p. 790) On arrival, Bloom finds that he has forgotten his key, so jumps down into the basement well and comes up to the front door to let Stephen in. He lights a fire and boils a kettle, and they drink cocoa. They discuss the Hebrew and the Irish languages. Later Bloom invites his guest to stay for the night, but Stephen amicably declines. They go out into the yard and urinate, looking up at the stars and at Molly's lighted bedroom window. Stephen walks off into the night and Bloom goes upstairs to bed. The unusual compound "*theirhisnothis*" implies one major theme of the novel—the symbolic meeting of the spiritual father (Bloom) and the son (Stephen). "*Theirhisnothis*" can be broken into four words: *their* + *his* + *not* + *his*. From the compound itself and its specific context, we may infer some important implication. After a painstaking quest for paternity, both Bloom and Stephen have finally satisfied their needs of meeting each other, each discovering spiritual comfort from the other, which is sure to mark a turning point in their own lives and which is absolutely necessary and important in a spiritual "wasteland" of Dublin. After their meeting, Stephen declines to stay the night and probably will not see Bloom again. Yet the narrative manages to convey their union as symbolically meaningful. In some other places, there are sufficient linguistic features to suggest their union in terms of their mutual interest, sensation, knowledge, viewpoint, and so on. "Most of the points on which the two men make contact are comically trivial; some, like the relation between their ages or educations, are ludicrous. Nevertheless, twice when each sees in the other glimmerings of meaning, and once when each feels a communion with the other's flesh—they are able to transcend the difference between their intellects, experiences, and ages, and the similarity of their gender…. However, these moments of communion between such different people, when seen in the context of all we know of Dublin, and the thick texture of correspondence and analogy that surrounds the events of this day, have a significance that transcends the personal." (French, 1982, p. 231) "The communion, incomplete as all human contact is doomed to be, and only obscurely perceived, symbolizes the fellow feeling of all mankind, a recognition, however tenuous, of the vulnerability and similarity of all people who suffer from the indifference of the stars and impulses of the flesh, all caught in one universal pattern of experience, the human condition, made up of necessity, on the one hand, and incertitude[1], on the other." (ibid, p. 232)

Episode 15 "Circe" is full of compounds. In my reading, I find some 810 compounds of various kinds. Time permitting, a more careful study would be significant.

D. Jumbled Compounds

Tentatively, I shall classify them into two kinds: lexical and non-lexical. The former refers to those jumbled compounds whose meanings can be recognized according to their separate elements, such as *contransmaginificandjewbangtantiality*, *greatgrandfather*, *awfullygladaseeragain*, *Junejulyaugseptember*, *stickumbrelladustcoat*, *Rutlandbaconsouthamptonshakespeare*, *Dunducketymud-coloured* and even *handsomemarriedwomanrubbedagainstwide- behindinClonskeatram*; the latter refers to the non-lexical (or super-lexical) compounds which carry more emotional meanings than lexical ones, whose meanings cannot be arrived at according to their separate elements, such as *wayawayawayawayawayawayaway*, *doggy-bowwowsywowsy*, *greaseaseabloom*, *endlessnessnessness*, *wavyavyeavyheavyeavyevyevy*, *Helterskelterpelterwelter*, *Weeshwashtkiss- imapooisthnapoohuck*, etc. The difficulty with both types is their stylistic values or rich cultural connotations. Let us start with the lexical compounds. Please look at the following example from Episode 3:

When *Rutlandbaconsouthamptonshakespeare* or another poet of the same name in the comedy of errors wrote Hamlet he was not the father of his own son…. (Joyce, 1996, p. 267)

This 34-letter compound consists of two persons' names: Bacon and Shakespeare, and two places' names: Rutland and Southampton. What's the mystery of these names? For long, as we know, there have been countless rumors about the authorship of Shakespeare's plays. Here is one of the sayings that there are three leading candidates for the role of Shakespeare's ghostwriter and they are Roger Manners (1576-1612), fifth earl of Rutland, Sir Francis Bacon (1561-1626) and Henry Wriothesly (1573-1624), third earl of Southampton. Some scholars, such as Delia Bacon (1811-1859) and Appleton Morgan (1846-1928), have remained unconvinced that Shakespeare had ever authored the plays. Delia Bacon suspected that in addition to Bacon, Raleigh and others were in on the deception, and Appleton Morgan, the New York City lawyer, believed a consortium of noblemen, including Southampton, Raleigh, Essex, Rutland, and Montgomery wrote the plays and used that prompt-book "copyist" Shakespeare as front man. There is much argument about the authorship of Shakespeare's plays. Positive argument in favor of the theory that Bacon wrote Shakespeare, hinges on juxtaposing "passages of similar import" from the two writers, while negative argument in favor of the theory maintains that Shakespeare's plays must have been written by a man more knowledgeable than

[1] French (1982) argues that Joyce clearly intended to show incertitude as operating in the cosmos as well as the world. In "Ithaca" episode, such expressions as "No fixed stars / variable suns", "parallax aberration of light", "deal logically with unknown", etc. are good examples to reveal the idea of incertitude. See more in Herring's *Notesheets*, 1972: 454-455.

Shakespeare, with his background, could have been. Possibly, similar arguments will never disappear and the authorship of Shakespeare's plays will remain an eternal mystery, but what's more important for us to do, is try to recognize the cultural and literary importance of Shakespeare's works as much as possible (see especially Gifford and Seidman, 1988, p. 219-220, p. 241-242).

…John Wyse Nolan, *handsomemarriedwomanrubbedagainstwidebehind-inClonskeatram*, the bookseller of Sweets of Sin, Miss *Dubedatandshedidbedad*…. (Joyce, 1996, p. 686)

These two odd compounds appear in the long stage direction of Episode 15 "Circe" where both Bloom and Stephen's hallucinations are dramatized. At a brothel in the red-light district of Dublin, the reader is presented with horrible scenes of street urchin and deformed children, rowdy British soldiers and depraved prostitutes. All the time Bloom seeks to protect the young man from being swindled and Stephen continues his own descent into drunken madness. The farce continues when Bloom's bar of lemon soap begins to speak and Mrs. Breen, the wife of the lunatic Denis, appears in the road and flirts with Bloom before mocking him for getting caught in the red-light district. Bloom is suddenly in a courtroom, charged with accusations of lechery. Several young girls recount sordid stories of Bloom, the conspicuous voyeur, and the courtroom's roll includes various characters from earlier in the day including Paddy Dignam and Father Coffey, who presided over Dignam's funeral. The narrative abruptly shifts when Bloom finally arrives at Bella Cohen's brothel. The masochist tint of Cohen's brothel emphasizes female domination, lust, gluttony and the bestial nature of man. Bella's enchantress-like function is reaffirmed in the copious pig and bondage imagery of the "Circe" episode. While the ancient Ulysses overpowered Circe, Bloom immediately succumbs to hallucinations. In his major sexual hallucination, Bloom enjoys the transformation of "Bella" to "Bello" as he is "transformed" into a feminized beast. The brothel functions as a sty and both the prostitutes and their patrons are chained to sordidness of Nighttown at the same time that they each suffer under the burdens of memory.

The first example consists of 10 words and 57 letters. In fact, this coinage is really not a woman's name but a brief description of the woman's characteristics. Then how about this woman? She is *handsome + married + woman + rubbed + against + wide + behind + in + Clonskea + tram*. Let us start with *Clonskea*. At the opening lines of Episode 7 "Aeolus", under the headline of "In The Heart Of The Hibernian Metropolis", it reads "Before Belson's pillar trams slowed, shunted, changed trolley, started for Blackrock, Kingstown and Dalkey, Clonskea, Rathgar and Terenure .…" (Joyce, 1996, p. 147) Obviously, *Clonskea* is a name of a place or a tram stop and there is a tram going there. By chance, at Episode 10 "the Wandering Rocks", we see Father Conmee get on a tram: "At Newcomen Bridge Father Conmee stepped into an outward bound for he disliked to traverse on foot the dingy way past Mud Island." (10: 284). At the tram, "Father Conmee perceived her perfume in the car. He perceived also that the awkward man at the other side of her was sitting on the edge of the seat." (ibid, p. 285) All these things are in the control of the ubiquitous narrator. It is funny to realize the fact that the so-called powerful narrator is somewhat forgetful and now he cannot remember the rich woman's name! In Episode 15, the narrator also forgets quite a lot of names including that of the woman with "perfume". So the narrator is only a restricted one who knows not the whole facts but just a bit more than the reader. With this information in mind, we may interpret the eccentric compound as "that perfumed woman who had been on the same tram for Clonskea with Father Conmee was handsomely married, and her huge body and sexual hips rubbed against the man's and made the man passenger rather awkward." With a funny anecdote, the nonce word is contributive not only to the internal cohesion and coherence of the whole text, but also to achieving the comic effect of the work.

"*Dubedatandshedidbedad*" is another imaginative nonce word. It can be broken into two meaningful parts: "*Dubedat*", a girl's name and a sentence "*and + she + did + bedad*". There is also a funny story behind it. In Episode 8 "Lestrygonians", Bloom is dining at Davy Byrne's pub. He tries to "eat" his sorrows while listening to the tedious chat between Nosey Flynn and Davy Byrne, the pub keeper. Rushing into his "screen of consciousness" is a flowing of his past events: his dead son Rudy 10 years ago, his suicide father, those flirtatious women, and above all his past sweet memories with Molly.

A typical feature of the vocabulary in the interior monologue, and also of Joyce's language in general, is the use of onomatopoeic words mentioned in 2.2, which characterizes a spontaneous, primitive linguistic invention in the soliloquist's mind. In our familiar Episode 11, there are two interesting super-lexical oddities:

It soared, a bird, it held its flight, a swift pure cry… all soaring all around about the all, the *endlessnessnessness*…. (Joyce, 1996, p. 355)

Her *wavyavyeavyheavyeavyevyevy* hair un com: 'd. (Joyce, 1996, p. 358)

At the middle of Episode 11, when Simon Dedalus finishes "Martha", everyone in the bar is almost struck dumb as it is "soaring high, high resplendent, aflame, crowned, high in the effulgence symbolistic, high, of the ethereal bosom, high, of the high vast irradiation everywhere". "*Endlessnessnessness*" seems that every sound has its special individual value and every syllable its particular significance. Reinforced by the three repetitions of the suffix "-ness" in the compound is the special effect of the music lingering around the beams. In this specific context, the lingering sound has aroused Bloom's close emotional communion.

The compound "*wavyavyeavyheavyeavyevyevy*" is ripplingly "wavy" (and perhaps heavy and weavy) like Molly's hair, which carries some special contextual implications: (1) A rhythmic patterning is made by the combination of the mimic adjective "wavy" with a series of units which resemble it. The particularly aural appeal of Joyce's language has often been emphasized but in this example the visual effect is predominant; (2) The short passage reveals how much

Bloom cares about Molly. At the moment, Molly once again steals into Bloom's stream: "They sing. Forgotten. I too. And one day she with. Leave her: get tired. Suffer then. Snivel. Big Spanishy eyes goggling at nothing." (Joyce, 1996, p. 358) Bloom even imagines the miserable sight of Molly being betrayed and deserted by Boylan one day when she becomes no longer sexy and attractive with age. He is caught in a conflicting emotional predicament: on the one hand, Bloom feels distressed for Molly's possible suffering future; on the other, he feels enraged both at Molly's ignorance and at Boylan's frivolous deeds. To give vent to his anger, Bloom uses this bizarre compound. This transference of characteristics from the object to the word is similar to onomatopoeia, but in this case the quality so transferred is a physical one (waviness, endlessness) rather than an acoustic one.

MARION'S VOICE：(Hoarsely, sweetly rising to her throat) O!

Weeshwashtkissimapooisthnapoohuck! (Joyce, 1996, p. 671)

THE HUE AND CRY: (*Helterskelterpelterwelter*) He's Bloom! (Joyce, 1996, p. 686)

In Episode 15, Bloom seems to be in an inferno, crisscrossed by hundreds of characters, objects and ghosts. In the hallucinations, dozens of persons, things or animals, living or dead, could rise against Bloom and punish him in a way, such as the calls, the answers, the urchins, the bells, the gong, a voice, bridge, the wreaths, first watch, the gulls, longhand and short hand, Dlugacz, the sluts and ragamuffins, the timepiece, the quoits, the nameless one, the recorder, the kisses, the chimes, a dead hand, Brother Buzz, the fan, the yews, Alexander Keyes, the waterfall, the dummymummy, hours, the pianola, the hue and cry, the bracelets, the horse, the hound, and even Bloom's late father Virag, his dead son Rudy, Paddy Dignam (dead), Mesias, the Nymph, the Croppy Boy, Edward VII as well as Shakespeare. The personifications of both "the hue and cry", "Marion's voice" and many absurd voices were the focuses of the "surreal play", and preyed on Bloom by interrogating him in turn, fully demonstrating the chaotic and preposterous nature of Dublin's society. The stage direction "*Helterskelterpelterwelter*" may be broken into three parts: helter-skelter + pelter + welter. Helter-skelter: every which way; pelt/pelter: v. to throw at; welt: n. a bruise. The last two may just be added, but in the context may be meaningful. The compound is to describe the noisy, chaotic and panicky state of "the hue and cry". If we can make some sense of the compound above, we can feel quite helpless about "*weeshwashtkissimapooisthnapoohuck*". It is more a string of sounds than a meaningful compound, and it is really like Shakespeare's "ventriloquy" (Joyce, 1996, p. 671) which is supposed to be known by no one else but Joyce himself. When doing the translation, we seem to have no way out but to adopt a technique of transliteration. There is a superfluous use of such nonlexical compounds.

By rendering those sounds of animals and things, Joyce is keen on adopting the skill of "ventriloquy" to present a lifelike imitation of those sounds. The following is the longest and most eccentric example in the novel and possibly in the English language:

…*Nationalgymnasiummuseumsanatoriumandsuspensoriumsordinaryprivatdocentgeneralhistoryspecialprofessordoctor* Kriegfried Ueberallgemein. (Joyce, 1996, p. 397-398)

Kriegfried Ueberallgemein is one of "the picturesque foreign delegation known as the Friends of the Emerald Isle" I mentioned at the beginning of this section. The first sight of this monster-like word would send shudders to our backbones. We would be all keyed up about the butt of Joyce's attacks. Used to describe the distinguished professor is a grotesque compound, composed of 105 letters and 13 words. Obviously, satirical effects are supercharged by pilings up of so many titles. This compound is typical of Joyce's linguistic inventiveness or originality which truly achieves its special artistic effect of "defamilarization" by shocking its readers into new awareness of both the nonce word and the man being modified.

But on the other hand, some of Joyce's compounds here and in other places break the rules of the language so markedly that they seem to go to the extremes. Suspicions may easily arise: is it necessary for Joyce to complicate an easy matter? For us, it is true that sometimes Joyce goes beyond those possibilities of the linguistic creativity, so while reading *Ulysses*, we need to take those nonce words critically, that is, we cannot accept them blindly as a few neologisms like "muchly" and "crookeding" (18: 908), are not so cleverly made.

IV. Perfect Language was Perfect Truth

The above examples fully illustrate Joyce's unsurpassed power of lexical creativity. But this is by no means the goal of Joyce's linguistic experimentation. It is no exaggeration to say that *FW* is notorious for its bizarre word-blends and neologisms. In fact, Joyce's blends are not words of English language at all, but grotesque and often amusing formations created by the distortion and mingling of English or foreign words. Scattered in the novel, these various kinds of conversion, compound, and word-play seem to be made of Joyce's free will and are likely to be neglected by careless readers or beginners; brought together by classification and contrast, they will speak for themselves: they are made by Joyce's careful design and most of them are even rule-governed. "Joyce's style is distinguished not only by the rise and fall of its rhythms, but by its feeling for the texture of the particular word. Words assert a magical power over things. Treasured phrases enable Stephen to transform 'the dull phenomenon of Dublin' to transcend 'the decayed city' by communing with a rapturous seascape." (Levin, 1941) By sleight of Joyce's hand, words do "assert a magical power over things" and carry lives of their own both in narrative sentences and internal monologues. By constantly employing unusual neologisms in interior monologues, Joyce meant to recreate or record series of associations in the word order in which they developed at the moment when those words came to mind. For Joyce, it seems that to reproduce a rapid flow of associations at the prespeech level of consciousness, the traditional resources of the English language as such are not sufficient, so it is natural for him to make the best use of "poetic license" of the literary language and to make as many neologisms as he hoped. By so doing, Joyce succeeded not only in recording those series of association and thought, but also in increasing the expressive power of English, the literary language in particular. Perfect truth seems to be Joyce's first policy in his lexical inventiveness. Whether Joyce's standard utterances, nuances of language or defamiliarized lexis, they seem to point at the same way: "language and reality are one. Perfect truth was perfect language." (French, 1982).

V. Conclusion

The lexical defamiliarization or inventiveness in *Ulysses* is explored in the following two kinds: verb conversion and compounds. Verb conversion, also called dynamic transfer, is classified into verb conversion and non-verb conversion. By Joyce's sleight of hand, not only nouns, but also some other word classes, such adjectives as "blue", "wet" and "happy", adverb "almost", and even archaic English words like "thou" and "thee", can be equally turned into verbs. Non-verb conversion, though covering far more word classes, is less productive, but equally fresh, vivid and expressive. These conversions, short in form but compact in meaning, are lively, economical and impressive, and in some specific contexts they are effective in expressing the experiential function of language and helpful in giving a faithful presentation of persons, things and events in Dublin.

To sum up, we may come to the following four conclusions. (1) Joyce's defamiliarized lexis is more motivated than arbitrary as he made the best use of the accepted lexical resources; (2) As for various word formations, we find that Joyce's verb conversion follows fairly well the word-formation rules, his compounds deviate a lot from the rules and his jumbled compounds are, in its true sense, what Bakhtin calls "linguistic carnivalization"; (3) Semantically, neologisms, though fleeting, are terse, lively, exciting, expressive, and above all true to life. (4) Perfect truth was perfect language." (French, 1982). The point with his linguistic inventiveness is to make full use of the visual and auditory textures of words, including their musical nature, and to increase the expressive power of literary language, and thus to achieve the special artistic effects of "defamiliarization" by increasing the difficulty of reading and lengthening their time of perception, and it is in grappling with linguistic deviation, creativity and indeterminateness that lies much of the pleasure of reading *Ulysses*. So Joyce's linguistic inventiveness is part of his artistic ingenuity in fiction and calls for further studies.

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Xianyou Wu, born in 1965, Sichuan province, China, is currently a professor of English at School of Foreign Languages and Literature, Chongqing Normal University, China, and also Head of the School. He earned his Ph. D in English Language and Literature from Henan University, China, in 2005. His research interests cover such areas as literary stylistics, systemic-functional linguistics and Joyce studies. He published his monograph *Foregrounded Linguistic Features in Ulysses: A Stylistic Way of Reading* (Peking, China Central Documents Press, 2006) and some 40 articles in Chinese academic journals.

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Classroom Translation: The Case of Iranian University Students

Karim Sadeghi
Islamic Azad University, Salmas Branch, Iran
Email: k.sadeghi@urmia.ac.ir

***Abstract*—Translation research has been of interest to both practitioners and theoreticians in the field. As far as the practical side of the coin is concerned, translation problems have been studied with an eye to the role of inter-lingual and intra-lingual transfer. The research reported here was an attempt to understand the nature of translation problems of Iranian EFL learners. For this purpose, three cohorts of EFL learners taking introductory and advanced translation courses (from English to Persian and vice versa) participated in the study in order to identify the sources of their translation problems and offer solutions for the betterment of the situation. The content analysis of the samples of translation activities of the participants reveals that translation is a more sophisticated skill than expected and that an inappropriate linguistic competence in English is responsible for the bulk of translations blunders made by learner translators.**

***Index Terms*—translation, interpretation, Iranian context, EFL learner**

I. Introduction

One of the skills EFL learners are expected to master by the end of their university education is the ability to communicate in English to the desired level. One aspect of this communicative ability is the mastery learners gain in translating either from English to Persian or vice versa. While there are so many courses offered for EFL majors in translation (including The Principles of Translation, Translating Simple Texts, and Advanced Translation), the output of such translation courses is usually less than satisfactory. My experience as a translation instructor in Salmas Azad University for the last 4 years has shown me that even after getting pass marks in translation courses, the majority of the students fail to transfer this skill to their future real-life practices. Different students face different sorts of translation problems which could be attributed to a variety of reasons including the lack of sufficient language base in terms of vocabulary and grammar, problems in comprehension which is I suppose a pre-requisite for translation and the like.

As such, it was the aim of this research to look at the translation practices of a cohort of EFL majors studying ELT and English Translation in Salmas Azad University in an attempt to discover first of all the patterns of problems most frequently encountered by such learners, secondly to discover the underlying causes of such problems, and finally to suggest solutions for the betterment of the condition.

II. Review of Related Literature

It can be claimed that translation has existed since human beings came into the world. People with different languages had to make contacts with each other out of necessity, and while some messages could be communicated via sign language and using onomatopoeic words common to all languages, for the success of proper communication, translation was inevitable. Indeed translation became known as a science on its own in mid-20th century when structural linguists promoted the place of contrastive analysis in studying foreign languages and the term was highlighted by the choice of the words for the title of Nida' (1964) book: Toward a science of translation.

Much has been said and written about the meaning and importance of translation. There are hundreds of books and more so research papers on different aspects of translation across the world. The term 'translation' has been defined slightly differently by different scholars. Translation is defined by Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 563) as 'the process of rendering written language that was produced in one language (the SOURCE LANGUAGE) into another language (the TARGET LANGUAGE), or the target language version that results from the process.'

Most other definitions of translation, although a bit different in wording, have kept more or less the same concept. For example, Munday (2001, p. 5) has the following to say about translation process (cited in Mousavei Mianagh and Mohammadi Dehcheshmeh, 2009, p. 13):

The process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (the source language or SL) into a written text (target text or TT) in a different verbal language (the target language or TL).

Different theories of translation have also emerged (such as product-oriented descriptive translation theory, function-oriented descriptive translation, process-oriented descriptive translation, medium restricted translation theory, area-restricted theory and so on) in which translation have been looked at and defined from a bit different perspectives.

However, as our focus is more practical rather than theoretical, we do not deem it relevant to delve into such theories and we limit ourselves to issues of a more practical nature and those immediately usable by classroom teachers and learners of translation.

There are many commonalities, of course, between the definitions provided for the term. For example, if we compare the two most-commonly cited definitions by Nida (1964) and Catford (1965), we can easily understand that in both definitions, translation is viewed as an activity of changing a piece of text from one language into another. Nida (1964) defines translation as the exercise of producing a text in the target language as closely equivalent as possible to the original text in the source language in the form, the style and the meaning. In a much similar vein, Catford (1965) equates translation with the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language. The striking feature of these two views on the meaning of translation is that the reproduced text (as the evidence of translation) should be equivalent to the original one. In order to arrive at this equivalence, therefore, the translator should first be able to comprehend the original passage in the intended line (taking into consideration the particular contextual circumstances under which it was produced) and make a conscious attempt to transfer all this to another language such that the translated text will have the same locutionary meaning, illocutionary force and perlocutionary effect on its reader (in translated form) as the original text will have on its reader (in its intact form).

Research on translation has a relatively long tradition. Formal research on translation began when translation started to be known as a science in mid 20^{th} century. Research on translation has focused on both theoretical and practical issues. Since our concern is with classroom applications of translation, we will limit ourselves to a sample of these latter types of research publications.

Liao (2006) claims that language learners use translation as a strategy to comprehend, remember and produce a foreign language. Liao's research focused on the use of translation among 351 Taiwanese college students and their views on using the strategy. The data gathered through questionnaires and an interview revealed that participants felt that translating helped them acquire English language skills such as reading, writing, speaking, vocabulary, idioms, and phrases.

The role of translation in L2 vocabulary learning was investigated by Mummel (2010). Her study focused on 191 French speakers who were enrolled in an introductory linguistics course in English as a second language who received treatment under three conditions: L1 to L2 active translation (n=71), L2 to L1 active translation (n=71), and exposure and copy exercise (n=49). The findings suggested that active translation from both L1 into L2 and vice versa benefitted the learners, while as far as short-term recall of L2 vocabulary was concerned, the students were 'likely to benefit more from exposure to new vocabulary accompanied by translation equivalents in a copy exercise' (p. 71).

As far as translation problems of language learners in the Iranian context are concerned, the following recent studies are worth mentioning. Anani Sarab and Eshraq (2010) studied the problems of Iranian translators in the translation of proper nouns in young adults' imaginative literature focusing on two book series (Trilogy of Inheritance and Deltora Quest). They found that Persian translators usually adopt the easiest procedure for translating proper nouns from English into Persian by using the strategy of transcription rather than a semantically-loaded translation where the focus could be on connotative meaning. The translators were also reported to have used other translating techniques such as substitution in which they invented a name for foreign sources and used a neologism. They also used couplet strategy for translating proper names in which they selected a Persian name which bore some of the referent's characteristics.

Investigating gender differences in translating metaphors and trying to find an answer to the question of whether there is any relationship between translator's gender and strategies employed in translating metaphors, Farahzad and Faridzadeh (2009) administered a test of translation made of 24 contextualized metaphors to 32 female and 23 male MA students of Translation studying at Allameh Tabatabie University, Azad University (Science and Research, and Arak Branches) after homogenizing them using an adapted version of TOEFL IBT. They came out with the following results: the most frequent strategy used by both groups was reducing metaphor to its sense and the least frequently used strategy was keeping the metaphor and providing the sense at the same time; the second frequent strategy used by both groups was to keep metaphor, with the third being the omission of the metaphor. Both males and females followed exactly the same order of frequency of strategy use; male translators retained the metaphors more than females; female translators showed more tendencies toward explaining the meaning of metaphors and used more similes.

Interested in identifying general strategies that learner translators use while doing translation activities, Shirvani and Ranjbar (2009) conducted a qualitative study with eight female undergraduate students doing Translation at Azad University (Gha'emshahr Branch). The researchers used a think-aloud procedure for data collection purposes after training the participants during four preparatory sessions before the final experiment began. The analysis of the think-aloud protocols revealed several types of strategies used by trainee translators: Cognitive strategies (including inferencing, search strategies, equivalent retrieval, and reduction); Meta-cognitive strategies (including evaluation decision-making and self-monitoring); social strategies (such as brainstorming and correction); and finally affective strategies.

III. Method

A. Participants

The participants of this research project were 25 sophomore (in groups of 12 and 15) and 17 junior students majoring in ELT and English Translation at Salmas Azad University. They were taking translation courses 1 and 2 respectively during the Spring semester of 2010. The sample was an opportunistic one for the reasons of logistics (Mackey and Gass, 2005). The age range of the participants ranged from 19 to 31 years and three quarters of the participants were female learners. All the participants spoke Farsi (as L2) and English as L3. Azeri was the first language of 80 per cent of them with the rest having Kurdish as L1.

B. Instruments

The major materials used in the study were excerpts of passages used in the classrooms every session for practice purposes. Various passages at appropriate levels were chosen from newspapers and magazines (both English and Persian) and were given to learners to be translated every classroom session. Each session, usually one English and one Farsi passage was allocated for translation.

C. Procedure

The classroom translations of at least one English text into Farsi and vice versa were regular classroom practices during translation classes the researcher had taught. Every learner was required to have a note book for this purpose from the beginning of the semester. They were asked to select two texts at their desired level and interest area from any source (and preferably from newspapers and magazines) and cut and paste them into their notebooks and write their own translations on the opposite page. So different students selected texts of different types, of different disciplines and at more or less similar difficulty levels as the texts tended to correspond to their pre-intermediate and intermediate proficiency level.

Every session, at the start of the class, the researcher checked the assignments of all students and selected two short texts based on the level of the class or certain translation issues which needed focusing on and further discussion. The texts were written on the board and depending on the difficulty level of the text and its length, a certain amount of time was allocated for each student to work independently on its translation. Then one of the translations done by the students (usually one from which some teaching and learning can benefit the students) was written on the board. Each student produced his own version of translation for the text on the board and these translations were collected at the end of each session or the semester for later analysis by the researcher.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The study included translation samples from 3 groups of EFL learners taking Translation 1 and Translation 2 courses at Islamic Azad University of Salmas as mentioned above. In the following analysis, a sample original sentence offered for translation (both Persian and English) will be provided with examples of translations produced by learners in Groups A, B, and C respectively. The quantity of the wrong translations will be indicated and the possible sources of errors will be identified following the model provided by Sadeghi (2009). To make the analysis and discussion more meaningful and more appropriate for English readership, the Farsi texts (whether source texts or translated versions of English texts) have been back-translated into English and indicated as such.

Group A was made of 12 sophomores taking Translation 1 course (Translating Simple Texts). Except for 2 students, all the rest were female. The age range of the participants in neither group was checked as it was not felt to be an important variable, since this study was mainly qualitative in which age or gender had to play little role as moderators. However, the participants here were more or less homogeneous in their early 20's. The group members were requested to translate 7 English mini-texts into Persian and 7 Persian texts into English. The following is an account of a translation of the group for a sample English and a sample Persian mini-text.

English source text: Russia has hailed the new US administration's intention to start talks soon on a successor deal to the 1991 Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty, which expires in December.

The text produced substantial problems for translators. One reason behind learners' problematic translations in this and other similar cases below may be that the texts were political in nature about which students probably did not have much background and schemata, as the students has been asked to cut texts from newspapers (although they were free to choose any text related to any filed). As such, although the major excuse behind most translation problems remains to be the translator's linguistics competence or systemic knowledge (Widdowson, 2007), the role of conceptual information or schematic knowledge (Widdowson, 2007) cannot be neglected. The above text was translated by only 10 students none of whom produced an acceptable version which was equivalent to the source in the loosest sense of the word.

Amongst the most noticeable blunders observed in the translation of the above text are the following. The use of 'attempts' instead of 'intention' by a majority of translators; the use of 'new intentions' and 'new administration procedure' instead of 'new US administration'; the use of 'pre-mature talks' instead of 'start talks soon'; the use of 'the Treaty that expired in 1991' instead of 'the 1991 strategic Arms Reduction Treaty'; the omission of 'in December' in most translations; the use of 'new US administration's speech' instead of 'new US administration's intention to start talks'; the use of 'facilities' instead of 'Arms' (the spelling of words being very close in Farsi: 'tashilat' vs. 'taslihat'); and the use of 'talks with a successor' instead of 'talks on a successor deal'. Apart from these problems the sources of which can be traced to both linguistics and non-linguistics issues as discussed above, there were incomplete translations and those following English sentence patterns.

Persian source text (back-translated into English): According to Arya, in interview with CBS TV Channel, Obama claimed that Iran's international isolation is increasing and that America seeks to get help from a united international community to confront the country's nuclear program.

Except for one student, the rest tried their hand in producing a translation for the above sentence in Persian. Neglecting minor grammar and style problems in one translation which made it more or less acceptable, none of the other translations could really be called translations, with two of them left incomplete. The biggest shock is found at the beginning of most translations: much to the researcher's surprise and disappointment, 'Obama' had been taken literally by many translators and translated as 'he to we', 'he with us', and 'Obama with us'. One wonders whether this mistake can at all be tolerated. Certainly, the candidates at this age and social status are expected to have known who Obama was, however little their political and geographical world knowledge is expected to be. If such mistakes can be made by a good number of university students, the rest of story can easily be understood. A similar scenario was also seen in the performance of one student: Instead of 'According to Arya' which is the back-translated version of 'Arya nevesht' in Persian, the student has taken the phrase at face value, regarding it as a proper noun and has used the same in English as translation equivalent; that is, instead of 'According to Arya', she had produced 'Aryanevesht'.

In addition to these obvious goofs which are like jokes rather than actually produced data, examples of more serious problems were as follows: the use of 'claimant' instead of 'claimed', the use of 'global seclusion' instead of 'international isolation', the use of 'for comparison', 'opposite with', 'for contrast with' and 'for confront with' instead of 'to confront' which was the back-translated form of 'baraye mogabekle ba'; the use of 'by pursuing to help', 'after get help', 'pursuing given help', 'looking for get help', 'pursuing given helped' and 'try to give help' instead of 'seeking for help' which is the back-translated form of 'dar paye komak gereftane az'; and finally, the use of 'internal society united', 'international community united' and 'international society united' instead of 'united international community'. Although the trace of L1/L2 interference is evident in the cases where a preposition is involved such as in 'for confront with', the major source of the problem as always seems to be the translators' linguistics competence in the target language since with enough command of the language, those L1/L2-related episodes could easily be prevented. Such negative interference is a characteristic of beginner learners, but the candidates in question can no longer be viewed as beginners, although their performance does not allow them to be labeled intermediate either.

Group B was made of 15 sophomores taking Translation 1 course (Translating Simple Texts). Except for 2 students, all the rest were females. The group members were requested to translate 6 English mini-texts into Persian and 7 Persian texts into English.

English source text: Ankara (PPA): Thousands of people gathered in Ankara yesterday in support of a number of academics who were charged on Friday of being members of the so-called Ergenekon Conspiracy to overthrow Turkey's moderate Islamic government.

Apart from 3 candidates who did not produce a translation and 2 whose translations were left incomplete, the rest produced a more or less acceptable translations semantically speaking. Except for one student, no others seemed to have seen the beginning part of the text (i.e. Ankara (PPA)) or neglected it on the assumption that it did not need to surface in the translation. Although most translations were acceptable in content, word-order and minor style problems were detected in a good number of them. The word 'academics' was for exampled translated into 'university students', 'university professors' and 'student unions' in a few cases. One candidate had also misunderstood the meaning of 'were charged' equating it with a similar expression 'were in charge of', which can be indicative of both a lack of attention or even a linguistic deficiency in distinguishing two meanings of charge. One student also seemed to have a problem with the final part of the sentence, translating it to '… whose aim was to destroy the Islamic government's tranquility'. The problem seems to have arisen from the inability of the candidate to assign the intended meaning to the word 'moderate' which means 'middle-of-the-road' in the above text rather than 'tranquility' as wrongly assumed by the trainee translator.

Persian source text (back-translated into English): Vegetable juice is among the drinks the daily use of which not only transfers the nutrients in the vegetables to the body but also causes a weight loss.

Almost every candidate attempted a translation, but almost all were faulty in a way or another. Among the most noticeable problems were the use of 'vegetable water' or 'water of vegetables' instead of 'vegetable juice', indicating a word for word translation activity by many novice translators. The construction 'the daily use of which' or 'whose daily use' was translated in a structurally inappropriate way by almost all candidates to such constructions as 'whose daily use it', 'that daily use of them', 'the daily use of that', 'that its daily use', 'whose the daily use of that', 'that its daily use', 'which daily using', 'that it's daily using', 'that it is daily used', 'which daily using them' and so on, representing a clear and big gap in the learners' knowledge of English relative clauses beginning with 'whose' or including 'of which'.

The candidates' weak English proficiency also tempted them to use circumlocution and explain the meaning in a few cases rather than trying to stick to the pertinent and succinct English structure. For example, instead of using 'causes weight loss', they used constructions, ungrammatical at times, such as 'become cause of reduce of weight', 'cause lose of weight', 'cause loss of weight', 'cause weight of body to decrease', 'reduce the weight of body', 'cause loosing weight', 'make low the weight' and the like. There were also instances of improper choice of vocabulary equivalents such us using 'food materials' and 'articles of food' instead of 'nutrients', 'reach' instead of 'transfer', 'but only' instead of 'but also', all of which except for the final replacement which may be the result of a fatigue or a performance issue are justified by the fact that the learners' L2 competence was not well developed at the time to make fine distinctions between vocabulary items.

Group C consisted of 17 juniors taking Translation 2 course (Advanced Translation). All the class members were females except for 2 of them. The group members were requested to translate 5 English mini-texts into Persian and 6 Persian texts into English.

English source text: Significant progress in realizing women's rights is crucial to achieving sustainable development and the globally agreed targets to slash poverty, hunger, illiteracy and a host of other socio-economic illnesses, the Deputy Security General said on Thursday.

Except for one candidate with no translation and two with partial translations, the rest of the students provided a sort of more or less acceptable translation, generally speaking. The two most noticeable areas of problem were in omitting 'a host of' from translations and inappropriate translations of 'the globally agreed targets' into back-translated structures like 'global agreement in targets', 'agreeing with global targets' and 'agreed global targets', all of which indicate a weakness in appropriate mastery of the complex target structure in English when an adverb precedes a adjective. Less important obstacles were also observed similar to the cases reported above, for example in using less appropriate vocabulary equivalents at times, sentence structure order, punctuations and so on, but these common problems are not taken care of any further as they do not add new categories to the sorts of issues we came across.

Persian source text (back-translated into English): It should be said with great sorrow that there are many examples of this kind in our administrative society; for example, in Cultural Department, whose unique position and sensitivity are continuously highlighted, a manager is appointed who neither enjoys any work experience in the field, nor does his education have any relationship with his job; and it is clear what will happen to the culture of such a country.

Apart from a no-translation case and a few incomplete cases, most translations enjoyed a good level of acceptability. They were legible but with numerous minor structural and vocabulary problems, with the overall structure making sense. As the initial structure of the sentence does not have any subject in Persian, that problem did show itself in a good number of cases: 'should said sorrowfully that', 'With great sorrow should tell that', and 'unfortunately we should be said that'. Although a zero structure in the source language may be argued to blame for the mistake, lower L2 proficiency is the ultimate cause as with a greater mastery of L2 structure, the candidates could have avoided such funny subject-less structures. Incorrect word choices were as usual highlighted such as the use of 'culture part' and 'culture section' instead of 'Cultural Department' or the use of 'many patterns' and 'many samples' instead of 'many examples' for the Persian phrase 'nomuneh-haye ziadi'. The use of 'job background' and 'working background' instead of 'work experiences' was another similar scenario.

V. Conclusion

This research study was set up with the intent of analyzing the translations problems Iranian EFL learners faced in doing simple translations. Cohorts of sophomore and junior EFL majors at Islamic Azad University of Salmas received translation training and practice for the period of a university semester. Excerpts of their homework were selected for further focus and analysis. Both English-Persian and Persian-English texts were considered. The ultimate finding after a lengthy content and discourse analysis a sample of which was reported above indicated that most learner translators face serious translations problems as soon as their immediate linguistics repertoire is challenged. The candidates faced the most problems in Persian-English translations since it was much easier to comprehend than to compose English. Generally speaking, most of the problems dealt with word-order and structural points as well as inappropriate vocabulary choice, which in most cases distorted the message completely, rendering something much different from what was already meant. The biggest share of the problems documented in this study is connected to a low L2 proficiency, although the role of L1 transfer was evident especially in the cases where a collocational or prepositional structure was involved.

Although this study was based on small sample of EFL candidates learning translation in a small university and may thus be regarded as a case, the findings of which are not generalizable, it is our belief that since the major variable affecting translation success is the candidates' proficiency in the target language (English here), similar findings are expected in other similar contexts where the participants have similar language proficiency backgrounds. That is why despite the fact that we fail from extending our findings to larger populations, we remain confident that with samples taken from other contexts, not very dissimilar patterns of problems are expected to be reported. We are also aware that certain other variables such as the translators' L1, the time available for the translation activity, the amount of help provided during the activity, the existence of an exam as opposed to a non-exam setting, the text topic, the familiarity of the candidates with the content as well as many other issues will play their role in the final outcome. That is why the best conclusion and generalization we can offer for the time being is that our findings are tentative and open to replication by fellow researchers.

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Karim Sadeghi is an assistant professor of TESOL and Head of English Language Department at Urmia University. His contributions have appeared in The Modern Language Journal, Canadian Journal of Linguistics, TESL Canada Journal, Asian EFL Journal, The Asia Pacific Education Researcher among others.

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Probability, Scale of Delicacy and Proximity

Jianqing Wu
School of Philosophy and Sociology, Shandong University, Ji'nan, China;
School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China
Email: wjq58@hotmail.com

***Abstract*—This paper discusses the semantic constraints of English News probability, scale of delicacy and relationship between proximity and semantic proximity and its measurement method as well as the semantic constraints of the three factors on lexical information. Article introduces "semantic proximity" concept from the mandarin information processing and computer applications. By combing the algorithm of semantic proximity and semantic distance, the summary is obtained: the proposal algorithm of scale of delicacy in second language testing; semantic distance value and the measurement methods of the "semantic proximity".**

***Index Terms*—probability, scale of delicacy, proximity, semantic constraints, news English**

I. Probability

A. About Probability

Halliday has introduced the thought of probability from information theory. People tend to have a certain probability in the choice of words, probability is one of the inherent characteristics of the language, which is most evident regular feature when people make the word choice, for example, the word " Dian ti " (Elevator in Chinese) meaning "lift" or "elevator "embodies a specific word, phrase, or phrases in different languages using different register (Halliday, 1994: F48).

People in the language system in the context of the choice can be restricted by many factors, such as the selection process will inevitably show different language system which determines that the probability can be described. This has already been confirmed by discourse analysis.

The frequency of discourse is actually a probability of the realization in the syntax (HU, 2000, p.17). This can be used for the statistics of probability, the higher the using frequency is, the higher the probability rate is, the higher the probability is.

The chosen semantic news genre of English News Headlines is rather special, different from the conventional semantics. The word choice is to follow the rules of news vocabulary "probability ". Among these rules there are two most important characteristics "shortness" and "concision ", the common purpose of these two features is to save space.

Journalists write "dapper" news stories, Associated Press (AP) specialized in "shortness" as guidelines in the article, states: "Those who can not write articles with simple and powerful words, can not write for the Associated Press" (Wu, 2005, p. 116).

The word with the two "Probability Rules can be called "small words." This article mainly mentions the high probability of "small words". The following are two examples of "small words" in the headline.

Example 1: Mid-East peace Deal Hope

Example 2: All livestock banned across Europe

Example 1 deal to replace agreement, Example 2 ban in place of prohibit, restrain, are all using of high probability rules "small words". Similarly, with the foe instead of enemy or opponent; envoy instead of ambassador; eye instead of witness; air instead of broadcast; cut instead of reduction and so on.

B. The Digital Description of Probability

Probability is one of the core theories of Halliday, he thinks the semantic choice and its reflecting form can not be absolutely rigid description, because the natural language despite its logical side, after all, is "conventional" and influenced the complex Context.

In the description of semantics, he distinguishes four degrees of probability: Either will do, probably, almost certainly, and certainly, marked respectively, 1 / 2, 1 / 2 +, 1 - and 1, marked as 1/2-, 0 + and 0 on the contrary the situation. Later, when discussing the relationship between categories and description of the relationship between them he said: This is "not so much like an 'either-or' relationship, but rather a gradual increase of the 'more or less' relationship "(Halliday, 1955:78; Halliday, 1961:259, cited in Hu, 2000, p. 46).

News Stylistic likes using small words. The probability of using the small word in the Context of general Information is close to 0, but in the news language the probability is close to 1.

II. The Scale of Delicacy

The concept of choosing a word or word meanings is the problem of the "scale" of the "delicacy", referred to as "scale of delicacy". Halliday's "System Grammar" marks the advent of the birth of a language system theory, and introduces "scale" and "delicacy". Christian M. I. M. Matthiessen and Halliday in their book "Systemic Functional Grammar: A First Step into the Theory" states that in order to expand the Words of the spatial dimensions , you can go through delicacy: from the more general to more specific (Matthiessen, Halliday author, Huang Guowen, Hongyang translation, 2009). His new book, "Complementarities in Language" further elaborated on this idea (Li Li, 2010). "Scale of delicacy" is used to describe the detailed description of the semantic delicacy, it is [0,1] continuum, from 0 to 1, becoming the high-order delicacy. One end is the basic level of the concept base category, its scale of delicacy is close to 0, and the other end is the level that can not further distinguish between the syntax, is set to 1, i.e., from the selection of the most common system into the most specific system. "Scale of delicacy" is fit for "scale" of all units, and can be measured. Different languages will be different on the order of the bands. A Sense of the order from general to specific, the more points the more detailed. For example, the general Anglo-American people adopt the concept of probability and the scale of delicacy when describing "weapons" which can be defined as: "guns, pistols, revolvers, machine guns, rifles, knife, knives, daggers, hunting rifles, swords, bombs , grenades, bomb and bayonet "(Wang Su, 1992: 268). The number of scales of delicacy depends on the number of order of words in different meanings of the concept of group-level. Likewise in several scales, the distribution of meanings is related to the delicacy of its corresponding "scale".

Four levels means four scales, based on the various meanings of corresponding scales of four levels of delicacy, it is divided into four scales, low, low, high, high-delicacy. In the scale of delicacy [0,1] interval values, the scale of delicacy of the "non-end scale" of values changes from low to high with the increase in the number of scale. If there are four "scales", then the highest scale is 1, the lowest is 0, the four-scale semantic distance between each other are equal, the other two "non-end scale" value is 0.666, 0.333. If there are five scales, then five are equal portions, ie, 1, 0.75, 0.5. 0.25 and 0, and so on. The higher the scale of delicacy is, the higher the value becomes, it is increasingly close to 1, whereas the lower, close to 0. Items of the same scale of delicacy have the same value. Conventional semantic scale of delicacy is low, special-purpose stylistic has higher semantic scale of delicacy. This paper discusses the Semantic News English and semantic relationships among the three as well as proximity measurement.

III. The Proximity and Its Measurement Methods

The calculation of semantic proximity has a wide range of applications in information retrieval, information extraction, text classification, word sense disambiguation, machine translation based on examples and in many areas alike. The calculation methods of semantic proximity is mainly focused on foreign information technology (Sheth & Kashyap, 1993; Chugur, et al, 2002; Kandola, et al, 2002; Voulgaris, et al, 2004; Ziegler, et al , 2006) and domestic computer applications and information processing (Liu & Song, 2001; Liu Qun, Li Su-Jian, 2002; Li Su-Jian, 2002; Li Bin, Cai DF, 2003; Li Bin, Liu Ting et al, 2003; Guan Yi, Wang Xiaolong, 2003; Yu Chao, Dongfeng Cai, 2006; the summer of 2007; Li Feng, Li Fang, 2007; Wangjia Qin, LI Ren-fa, etc., 2007; He Tingting, Wen Bin, etc., 2008; Wu Kui, ZHOU Xian-secondary, 2010). Calculation of the semantic proximity is to compare proximity between the estimated or calculated words and the selected standard words. Based on the characteristics of English news, this paper combs different calculation methods and screens proximity algorithms in second language tests. In this paper, there is no distinction between the concept of similarity and proximity, the similarity between two words is a word with respect to proximity to another word.

A. The Semantic Proximity

Semantic proximity is a stronger notion of subjectivity. A single definition of semantic proximity can only be obtained in specific applications. The relationship between the words is very complex, and thus the proximity or difference between the values is difficult to carry out with a simple measure. There will be very large differences from different angles. From the perspective of News English, the news genre has very different meanings in the other angles in the conventional meanings of words in the body of proximity. Specifically, the greater the likelihood of syntactic and semantic structure of a meaning in different contexts can be replaced without changing the original text is, the higher the proximity between the two is, otherwise, lower. Proximity is a number, usually in the range [0,1]. The semantic proximity of a word with its own is 1. If the two words in a specific genre, i.e., news genre, can not be replaced, their proximity is 0.

B. Two Important Indicators in the Measurement of the Semantic Proximity

1. Semantic distance

In general, the semantic distance is the real number between $[0, \infty)$. The distance between a word with itself is 0. Semantic distance and semantic proximity has a close relationship. The greater the semantic distance between the estimated words and the standard words provided by testees is, the lower its proximity is; the other hand, the smaller the distance between the two terms, the greater its proximity. A simple correspondence can be established between the two. The correspondence need to meet the following conditions (Liu Qun, Li Su-Jian, 2002):

a. The distance of the two terms is 0, its proximity is 1;

b. The distance of the two terms is infinite, its proximity is 0;

c. the greater the distance between the two terms, the smaller its proximity is (monotonically decreasing).

The semantic distance algorithm of He Ronggui and Lan Yuru(1999) are incorrect (see formula (1)), in order to reduce uncertainty and get the mean square value, the algorithm derived from the semantics of SLA is as follows (see formula (2)):

$$Dis(W_1, W_2) = \sqrt{\sum_M dis(w_1, w_2)^2} \text{..........(1)}$$

$$Dis(W_1, W_2) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_M dis(w_1, w_2)^2}{m}} \text{..........(2)}$$

In the formula above, Dis (W1, W2)shows the semantic space vocabulary words W1 and W2 and the linear distance of two points, dis (w1, w2) is the algebraic difference between the coordinates of words W1 and W2 words in the same factors of dimension M. In this experiment, 57 testees identify the scale semantic graph below at the circle the number in their view that "cool" should be in the semantics of the scale (as shown in Figure .2), this concept of different figures represent the direction and strength of the Top value that the testees evaluate. Different views on the concept of testees by the "semantic distance" between the meanings of words show the degree of difference.

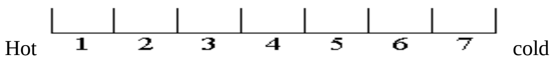
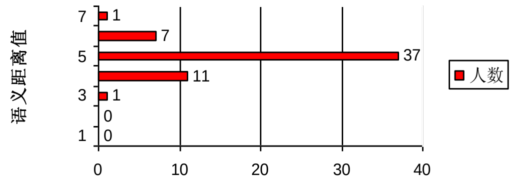


Figure .2 scale of the semantic identification
(Note: the size of the ruler scale is set according to level of delicacy of the experimental data needed, here is set to 7)



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
人数	0	0	1	11	37	7	1

Figure .3 the data distribution of the distance scale of "cool" in the "hot - cold" semantic meaning rule
(N = 57, the bars refers to the number of testees on each choice)

Statistics shown in Figure .3, according to the formula (2), the final value of 4.929 is obtained, that is, in the rule of the total scale of 7, the semantic distance of "cool" and "hot" is 4.929, and 2.071 with "cold". More people think that "cool" more close to "cold", its proximity with "cold" is much larger than and the proximity with "hot". In many cases, the direct calculation of the proximity of words is rather difficult. We can often calculate the semantic distance first, and then convert to the proximity of words. And the distance and the proximity of words can be two-way conversion.

2. Word correlation

The second indicator is the correlation between words, that the extent of the two words related to each other. It can be measured according to the possibility of two words presenting in the same context. Correlation is a term [0,1] between the real number.

Words correlation and proximity are two different concepts. Such as "factory" and "machine", their proximity is very low, and correlation is very high. The proximity of words reflects the polymer characteristics between the words, and word correlation between the words reflect a combination of features. At the same time, Words correlation and word proximity is closely linked to each other. If two words are very similar, then the correlation of two words associated with other terms will be very high, and vice versa. However, this situation may not reflect the low proximity of true level of testees, so the word correlation in the test should also be cause for concern.

C. The Calculation Method of the Word Proximity

1. Comparison of two common calculating ways

There are two common ways of calculation of semantic distance, one is based on a knowledge of the world (Ontology) to calculate the semantic distance (Agirre & Rigau, 1995; Wang Bin, 1999), another method of calculating word proximity is based on statistics of large-scale corpus. For example, computing the proximity of words by using word correlation. A set of feature words is selected beforehand, and then use this set of words in the actual corpus in the context of the term to measure the frequency, and calculate the characteristics of this group of words and the relevance of each word. This approach assumes that all semantic similar words should also be similar in their context.

Both methods have their own characteristics. The former is mostly used for computer applications and Chinese information processing, simple, effective, more intuitive and easy to understand, but the results were greatly affected by the subjective sense of impact, not always accurately reflect the objective facts. In view of the proximity of the semantic proximity between the research field of linguistics and information processing, this paper chooses the corpus-based method to improve the algorithm. Corpus is more objective and comprehensive reflects the proximity and difference of words in the syntax, semantics, pragmatics and other aspects. However, this approach relies on using the corpus to calculate a large amount of complex calculation, besides, it is affected by sparse data and the data noise interferences, sometimes by obvious mistakes. Liu Qun, Li Su-Jian (2002) provides five calculation methods of semantic proximity, among which the formula (1) and formula (2) are suitable for the testing in the News English, since these two algorithms have overcome the disadvantages of corpus. This paper below respectively calls them the formula (3) and (4).

2. The calculation method of proximity of word meanings

For two words W1 and W2, we note their proximity as Sim (W1, W2), Proximity is the real number between [0,1], its semantic distance is a path length, it is a positive integer, that is the Dis (W1, W2). Then we can define as the conversion relationship of a simple monotonic decline:

$$Sim(W_1, W_2) = \frac{\alpha}{Dis(W_1, W_2) + \alpha} \text{..........(3)}$$

Where α is an adjustable parameter. The meaning of α is semantic distance value when the proximity id 0.5, in the calculation of proximity here, α is set to 1.6. This conversion is not the only relationship where only one of the potentials is given. In order to more scientifically express the estimated true value and reduce uncertainty, this paper adopts the value under conditions of maximum uncertainty as the standard, using the following formula (4), selecting the maximum word proximity. As for semantic proximity of the two words W1 and W2, if W1 has n meanings: S11, S12, ... , S1n, W2 has m meanings: S21, S22, ... , S2m, we require, the semantic proximity of W1 and W2 is the maximum value of statistical calculated proximity per person:

$$Sim(W_1, W_2) = \max_{i=1...n,\, j=1...m} Sim(S_{1i}, S_{2j}) \text{..........(4)}$$

Thus, the proximity problem between the two terms boils down to the proximity between the two meanings. As for the two words we compared here, W1 is the correct answer sample provided by the tester, i.e., the benchmark meanings, W2 is the different semantic options provided by the testees, that is, meanings to be estimated. Based on formula (2), (3), using the formula (4), we can calculate the semantic proximity of semantic options in different language domain of news English.

The subsequent calculation of the semantic proximity is still prevalent in the field of computer applications, Wang Jiaqin, LI Ren-fa (2007) calculated by combining the two coefficients x, y between the concept of semantic similarity. He Tingting, Wen-bin et al (2008:90) proposed a lexical meanings of the similarity of the polarity between the formula and the formula for calculating the degree of emotional words. Wu Kui, ZHOU Xian-Zhong (2010) proposed the semantic similarity algorithm based on the concept of Bayesian estimation. However, these formulae do not apply to News English study, so they are not adopted

IV. Conclusion

The semantics of News English is restricted by three factors, they are, probability, scale of delicacy and proximity. The three are objective as parameters, but subjective as constraints, the learners are proposed to improve cognitive abilities according to the degree of changeability of these constraints.

The relationship among the three constraints is summarized below: the calculation of proximity is constrained by probability and scale of delicacy, semantic proximity becomes different when probability and scale of delicacy differ. In the conventional context, semantic proximity is proportional with probability, and inversely proportional with scale of delicacy. Probability is inversely proportional to the semantic scale of delicacy, that is, the higher the frequency effect is, the lower the semantic delicacy. For News Writing Style has preference of rare semantics of low word frequency in the polysemy, so the probability of the meanings in news genre is relatively low in the conventional context, news lexical semantics is of low probability, high scale of delicacy. But within the news context, the relationship among the three constraints are positive. Learners pay unconscious attention to the cognitive psychology with various styles, including the semantic proximity in the context conversion.

This study has some referential significance in setting the difficulty index, the test index and weight. The proximity reflects the final effect of testee’s information output. Domestic and foreign research in the field of Chinese and information technology has been done a lot on the measurement method of semantic proximity, but it has only about a decade of history, China has a late start of academic research in the field of foreign language, and the related research has just started. This paper, by studying the semantic constraints of English news, has discussed and analyzed the relationship among the three constraints, and has found the proposed measurement methods of probability, scale of delicacy and proximity in news language. However, the measurement of semantic proximity should also focus on the reduction of uncertainty to a greater degree and introduce subjective factors appropriately to make the algorithm perfect; in addition, the inner relation between the proximity and learner's individual Cognition is also worth further exploration.

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Jianqing Wu was born in Shandong, China in 1971. He earned his master's degree in Shandong University, China in 2003 and now a doctoral candidate in Shandong University.

He is meantime an associate professor of Linguistics and Journalism in Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Shandong, China. He has been working in QUST for over 16 years. In 2009, he was financed by Chinese government to do his research in MTSU, U.S.A. In the recent decade, he has published 30 articles and 15 books. Some of them are below: Evaluation in Media Discourse Analysis of a Newspaper Corpus. *Journal of Quantitative Linguistics* (SSCI, Netherland), 2010. 3: 256-260; Mini Discourse Training—Review on Discourse Analysis 2nd edition. *Contemporary Foreign Language Research* (CN), 2010. 4: 58-60; The Analysis of Cultural Gaps In Translation and Solutions. *English Language Teaching* (Canada). 2008: 2. "*ENGLISH DEBATE*", China Science and Culture Press, Feb. 2003, author; "*JOURNALISTIC ENGLISH*", Defense Industry Press, Aug.2005, author; "*Practical College English Grammar*", China Commerce Press, Aug.2002, co-author. His Current and previous research interests are discourse analysis, pragmatics and sociolinguistics.

Prof. Wu is a member in professional societies like the Newspaper In Education Research Society (NIE) -China, IQLA, ELT-China, AILA-China as well as Association of China's Sociolinguistics (ACS).

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Analysis on the Function of Cultural Connotation in Vocabulary Teaching and Learning of English Majors

Xianmei Sun
Dept. of Foreign Languages, Dezhou University, Dezhou, 253023, China
Email: sxm1964@126.com

***Abstract*—Vocabulary is one of most important essentials of language, and it is also the basic of language communication. There are great differences between Chinese and English culture. Therefore, this difference will certainly reflect on the words, especially words with special cultural connotation. In English, there are a lot of words with cultural connotation. University English students who do not understand English culture will certainly misunderstand its cultural connotation because of the negative transfer of culture. This paper will discuss the relations between culture and vocabulary and the problems caused by different cultural connotations, and thus puts forward some suggestions on how to improve vocabulary understanding in intercultural communication of English majors.**

***Index Terms*—cultural connotation, cultural differences, vocabulary teaching**

I. Introduction

If language structures make up the skeleton of a language, it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh. Vocabulary is one of the most important essentials of language, and it is also the basis of language communication. In vocabulary researches, vocabulary refers not only to single words, but also phrases and idioms. And in the Oxford Advanced Learner’s English-Chinese Dictionary, the definition of the “vocabulary” is the total number of the words that make up a language. It is the basic meaningful unite in language communication.

As language has a close relation with culture, culture learning plays an important role in learning language. For a long time, teachers in university English teaching and learning only pay much attention to the pronunciation, the basic meaning of words, but without paying attention to the cultural learning. The lack of cultural background causes carrier in students' understanding words well. Therefore, cultural learning should be put on a more important place in the future vocabulary teaching and learning.

II. Relationship between Culture and Vocabulary

Culture, totality of mental and material wealth through human’s history, is the product of people’s practice and creation. Any race in the world has its own culture and language. Language serves as the window to manifest the content of its own culture. Likewise, culture, attached to language, is regarded as the cradle of its own race speeches. In linguistic aspect, language is the reflection of its own culture.

As is widely known, vocabulary, the building material, is essential to a language. It is one of the three basic components (pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar), and is of utmost importance to people’s communication and language learning. Language emerges first as words, and the coining of new words never stops. Pronunciation and grammar are presented by vocabulary. The linguist David Wilkins (1972) once summered up the importance of vocabulary in his book *Linguistics and Language Teaching*: “Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.” To achieve the purpose of communication, people need to learn vocabulary first.

Just as the famous linguist Chen Yuan (1983)says vocabulary is the most active and dynamic element that sensitively reflect the social changes in life and thinking. Different cultures give words specific and particular signs, symbols and culture connotation. Only in the certain culture environment can the word be correctly understood and furthermore the communication be successful. The hierarchy of lexicon is the mirror of the nation's culture, and through the hierarchy of lexicon some of the nation's culture is transmitted and recognized by the language users.

Since there are great differences between the English culture and Chinese culture in the aspects of values, morality, religion, customs and so on. These different national cultures give the words different culture connotations. Take the common color words "red", "white", "black" for example. "Red", "white" and "black" is three kinds of colors and each of them refers to the same color in English and in Chinese. But the differences of people's attitudes, beliefs, values give the three colors different associative meaning and cultural connotation.

Both in English and in Chinese, red is connected with congratulation and ceremony. For example, there is "red-lettered days" in English which refers to holidays. Especially in China, red is also referred to revolution or something with active meaning. However, the color red in English is not only an active word, it also refers to the negative aspects. For example, "red flag" means something that makes people angry. "See red" means somebody is so angry that he even gets mad. "In the red" is a phrase concerns with business with the meaning "be in debt". The color red also refers to the dangerous state, as in the phrase "red light".

There is a viewpoint in China that the color "white" is concerned with the connotation of inauspicious. In a funeral, relatives wear white mourning apparel to show the sad mood to the dead. While in the eyes of westerners, white is the color that symbolizes lucky and purity. The bride wears white wedding clothes in their wedding ceremony to show their loyalty. There are also phrases like "a white day" and "a white lie". The former means a lucky day and the later means a lie without intention.

In English, black is the word with some negative meaning. "Black lie", for example, is not the same with "white lie" but means a lie with vicious intention, i.e. slander. There are also words like blackguard, black list, black mark and so on. Blackguard, as we know, means scoundrel. In the sentence "John is blacklisted", blacklist means somebody is to be wanted by the police. However, black in English can be referred to something active. Take the phrase "in the black" foe example. It is a phrase often used in business. Opposite to the phrase "in the red", it means the company has a net profit. In English countries, the color of ink which is used to record the profit is black, thus the phrase "in the black" got its meaning.

As Liu Shuang (1995，4)in his essay says culture makes us to have associative meaning towards the specific symbol. It changes the word’s meaning and enables us to understand the word's connotation. Since the knowledge and beliefs that constitute a people`s culture are habitually encoded and transmitted in the vocabulary, it is extremely difficult to separate the two.

As the relationship between culture and vocabulary is so close, it is impossible to teach vocabulary well without telling students its cultural factors. Vocabulary is both the carrier and the container of culture.

III. PROBLEMS CAUSED BY DIFFERENT CULTURAL CONNOTATION IN VOCABULARY UNDERSTANDING

There are many vocabularies in one culture can't find equal equivalence in another culture. Because of the differences, there are many misunderstanding in their understanding .There are also different world outlooks, values and culture consciousness in different cultures. So this will also cause misunderstanding in teaching and learning of a language.

A. Color Differences

Color terminology has also been used to explore the relationship between different languages and cultures. In this section, the cultural associations of certain colors will be discussed, with “colorful” phrases and expression is both English and Chinese used as illustration.

Red This color is usually associated with celebrations and joyful occasions; this is true in English-speaking countries as well as China. So in English one finds, for example, red-letter days----holidays such as Christmas and other special days. Such days are printed in red on calendars, rather than in black for ordinary days. In Chinese here is an example of 红双喜，开门红. The color red is symbol of good fortune. Red is also associated with certain emotions. In English , to become red-faced shows embarrassment, as it dies in Chinese 脸红. But some of English expressions involving the color red are nor so easily understood by Chinese. What is the meaning of *to see red* and *waving a red flag*? Both are associated with anger.

White To most Chinese and westerners, white has certain similar connotations: purity, innocence, 清白无辜，洁白. But does that a white lie is supposed to be a harmless one. The connotation of the color white in the Chinese expression 红白喜事 would be confusing to most Westerners. It would not to translate the color at all and merely say weddings and funerals. This is described as happy occasions(喜事) would be absolutely shocking to Westerners, although the expression reflects a certain philosophic.

Black In both English and Chinese there are various terms indicating that black is often associated with negative qualities: *blacklist, black market, black-hearted* and a number of others. Interestingly, in business of English, in the black has a good meaning; i.e., running a business at a loss, not making profit. These terms came from the color of the ink used in keeping accounts.

Blue In English, blue is usually associated with unhappy feelings. In a blue mood, or having the blues means a sad, gloomy or depressed mood. Blue is also often associated with high social position or being aristocratic. *He’s a real blue blood* means he’s from an aristocratic family. Also, in American English, blue book means a book with the name of well-known persons, especially government officials.

Green Besides *green with envy*, English has the term *greened monster* or just *green-eyed*----both means jealous, envious. However, in Chinese, an expression often used to describe envy or jealous is 眼红，害红眼病. In English, green is also often used to indicate lacking in experience, training or knowledge, as *green hand*. Similar in meaning is *green horn*----a person lacking experience, or a newcomer who is not familiar with local customs; the term is used for immigrants and is mildly derogatory.

Yellow Yellow appears in such Chinese expression as 黄色电影，黄色书刊. Should not be translated as yellow movies, yellow book. Here 黄色 means pornographic, trashy, obscene, filthy, or vulgar. So they are pornographic movies, obscene books. Yellow are appear in the English phrase *yellow journalism*----a kind of journalism with heavy emphasis on scandals, or presenting ordinary news in a sensational manner, sometimes even distorting the facts to create a sensational effect. Also, in most American homes one can find a big thick book called Yellow pages. This is a book with the telephone numbers of different shops, businesses, organization, etc.. It is a useful book. Its pages are yellow, but it is not a 黄色书 in the Chinese sense.

B. Metaphor and Association

People often associate certain qualities with certain creatures or object. These qualities often arouse certain reactions or emotions, although there is little or no scientific ground for such association. The qualities that are associated, or the emotions that are aroused, are not always the same with different peoples. We shall discuss such cultural similarities and/or differences relating to certain birds and animals.

First, let's look into the similarities.

He's as sly as a *fox*. He's *foxy*. You've got to watch him.

You *ass*! You stupid *ass*! How could you do a thing like that?!

He doesn't have his own idea. He just like *parrots* what other people say.

The qualities that Chinese associate with the creatures above are roughly the same as those that Americans, Canadians, Englishmen would associate. In fact, in Chinese we have similar expressions; for example, 蠢驴，鹦鹉学舌，像狐狸一样狡猾.

Other animals that have similar associations in both cultures: deer are meek and gentle; lambs are livable; pigs are dirty and greedy; monkeys are naughty, playful; wolves are bloodthirsty and cruel.

Then we look at the differences. We shall consider two categories:

First, creatures having certain associated characteristics in one culture, but not in the other. Take *bull* and the *crane* for example.

To Chinese, the bull carries no particular association. They are merely animals that may or may not be common, may or may not useful. Chinese might be guessing the meaning of a bull in a china shop, but they would not have the image that would be evoked in the minds of English-speaking people: an angry, snorting bull charging into a shop dilled with exquisite fragile porcelain. Consequently, Chinese would be less appreciative of the vividness of the expression—meaning a person who is clumsy and bungling and causes a lot of trouble in a situation requiring tact and delicacy.

The crane is a symbol for longevity in Chinese culture. Thus parents giving names like 鹤年 and 鹤龄 show their hope that the child will live to a ripe old age. The crane is often paired with the tree, which is a symbol for sturdiness and long life. In paintings and art designs, the two often appear together with the motto 松鹤延年. Gifts with such designs are favorites for older people, especially on birthday occasions. But to western minds, the crane does not arouse any such association.

Second, creatures with certain associated qualities in both cultures, but with different qualities. Take the *owl* and *dog* for example.

As wise as an owl indicates that English-speaking people associate wisdom with this bird. In children's books and cartoons, the owl is usually solemn and wise. In disputes among birds and beasts, it is the owl that acts as judge. In moments of crisis, it is the owl that they go to for advice. Among many Chinese, however, there is a saying 夜猫子进宅(an owl visiting room), portending misfortune in that household. The mere sight of an owl or the sound of the creature's hooting is enough to cause people to draw back in fear.

Man's best friend is sometimes heard in English conversation or seen in English writing. Many would be surprising that it is the *dog*. To many Chinese, it would be unthinkable for the dog to be given such honor. Dogs, in China as well: loyalty, dependability, courage, and intelligence. But in China, dogs are first of all watchdogs, not pets. They are kept because they are considered a necessary evil, to be tolerated but not loved.

Lastly, we shall take up two legendary or mythological creatures. In the dynastic times in China, the traditional symbols of royalty were the dragon and phoenix. The dragon stood for the king or emperor, and the phoenix for the queen or empress. There were few negative connotations and even today, these mythological creatures occasionally appear in tradition Chinese designs for it is an auspicious creature that supposedly brings good luck.

However, to westerners, the dragon is often a symbol of evil, a fierce monster that destroys and therefore must be destroyed. Several stories of saints or heroes deal with struggles against the monsters, which is the most case are slain in the end. The phoenix, in Western mythology, is associated with rebirth and resurrection. According to Greek legend, the phoenix lives a certain number of years----500 by one account. At the end of the period, if makes a nest, singing a death song, the sets fire to its nest by flapping its wings. The phoenix is burned to ashes, but from these ashes emerges a new bird.

C. Idioms, Proverbs and Sayings

Idioms, proverbs, and sayings are an important part of the language and culture of a society. They are often hard to understand, especially idioms, and harder to use correctly. However, their proper use in a language is often a mark of a person's command of the language. Speech or writing without them lacks color and is uninteresting, but overuse or improper use makes the language sound affected and unnatural. It is often said that nothing marks a foreigner more than his unnecessary use of idioms.

Of all different kinds of English idioms, perhaps the hardest to learn are those comprising the forty or so most common verbs in various combinations with about a dozen prepositions or adverbs like up, down, in, out, off. The different meanings of such combinations amount to several hundred, and the confusion that they cause for the learners are immersing.

So, first of all, a student should learn not to look down on such idioms just because they're made up of such simple and easy words. He should look out for identical phrases with different meaning and look them up in the dictionary if he's not sure. He's bound to run into a lot of trouble when he first uses them, but he shouldn't give in, much less give up. If he keeps trying and keeps at it long enough he'll make out and things will turn out in the end. Besides, there are other idioms just as hard for the students to understand, but perhaps not so hard to remember.

Now we shall look at proverbs and sayings. Proverbs are short sayings of folk wisdom—of well-known facts or truths—expresses succinctly and in a way that makes them easy to remember. Because the sayings are so pithy, they have universal appeal. Students love to pick up proverbs, and the use of one or two in the original languages is often a minor triumph for beginning foreign language learners.

Proverbs may provide interesting little glimpses or clues to a people's geography, history, social organization, social views, and attitudes. People who live along seacoast and whose livelihood is dependent on the sea will have proverbs about sailing, about braving the weather, about fish and fishing. Nomadic people, such as the Arabs, have sayings about the desert or pastureland, about sleep and horses or camels, about wolves and wisdom of the elders. And in societies there women's status is low, there will be a number of sayings demeaning them.

Human experiences and observations of the world are in many respects similar. So, in spite of the dissimilar cultural backgrounds of the Chinese and the English-speaking peoples, the number of proverbs or sayings in the two languages that are equivalent or close approximation is rather surprising. Consider the following:

Striking while the iron is hot 趁热打铁

Haste makes waste 欲速则不达

Birds of a feather flock together 物以类聚， 人以群分

Look before you leap 三思后行

Where there smoke, there's fire 无风不起浪

Where there's will, there's a way 有志者事竟成

Given a person a does of his own medicine 以其人之道还治其人之身

All good things must come to an end 天下没有不散的宴席

Since culture is important in giving a language its characteristics, the dissimilarities are naturally more apparent. Compared with English proverbs, the Chinese show certain distinctive features. First of all, the immense number. Chinese seem to have a proverb or saying for almost all conceivable situations----whether they be human-nature situation, or human-human relations. Secondly, the distinctive Chinese quality of many of the sayings: 小卒过河， 意在吃帅 and 挂羊头，卖狗肉 are typical—the first having its origin in Chinese chess, the second referring to a Chinese butcher's shop with items that would be shocking to the West. Thirdly, the number that reflect social inequalities and the feelings of those deprived and oppressed, such as 卖花姑娘插竹叶， 卖线姑娘裙角裂 or 只许州官放火， 不许百姓点灯. Fourthly, the influence of Buddhism on Chinese customs and thinking, as in 远看菩萨， 近看泥巴 and 平时不烧香， 临时抱佛脚 where English proverbs reflect the influence of Christianity. Another feature is what might be called social harmony, or brotherhood, or "doing good"; Chinese seem to have more of such proverbs, as 前人栽树，后人乘凉；一人掘井，众人吃水；一个篱笆三个桩， 一个好汉三个帮。

The points of difference mentioned about are not exhaustive, but will help to give English learners some ideas.

D. Different Values System

Value systems are culturally diverse. Furthermore, values are the basis for our action. They guide our behavior and help us determine what is right and what is wrong, what is good and what is bad. They determine differences of communicative speeches among different cultures. From the brief introduction of value systems above, we can see that the essential difference between the Chinese and Western culture is that of value systems. Next, we will illustrate the comparison between value systems of different cultures and explore the roots.

Jia Yuxin (1997) states that values tend to permeate a culture. An understanding of cultural values helps us appreciate the speeches and behavior of other peoples. Cultural values are derived from the larger philosophical issue that has deep roots in the history of countries. Chinese 'indirectness' is a topical subject among westerners in China and those frequently interacting with Chinese. Westerners generally use a direct communication style whereas Chinese usually use an indirect one. Westerners tend to be frank and direct whereas Chinese are polite rather than honest. Chinese usually criticize someone through a third party. On the contrary, westerners usually give direct and frank comments and advice rather than a roundabout way. Indirectness is the most important approach to politeness in China, while directness turns out to be appropriate in the communication in western countries.

Collectivism in Chinese culture is 'we' consciousness and collectivity-orientation whereas the major characteristic of individualism in English cultures is ‘I’ consciousness and self-orientation. Self-denigration, mutual care, seeking harmony and moral obligations are common in collective cultures while balance of cost and benefit, respect for individual territory and freedom, and strategy of avoiding conflict are apparent manifestations of individualistic cultures. Collective cultures see the group as the most important of all social entities, from the family to the factory. In individualism culture, competition rather than cooperation is encouraged; personal goals take precedence over group goals; people tend not to be emotionally dependent on organizations and institutions; and every individual has the right to his or her private property, thoughts and opinions.

Because of different history and background, different value systems are shaped. Under the impact of Confucianism in China, benevolence is highly valued and serves the standard as interpersonal relationship, which is based on the fulfillment of the obligations and responsibilities. In the Western culture, each member of the Western society comparatively speaking enjoys independence and equality. In a culture, where equality is as highly valued as it is in the United States, people are expected to take the initiative in advancing their personal interests and well-being and to be direct and assertive in interacting with others.

The Chinese society, traditionally speaking, is hierarchical in nature. There are many vertical or hierarchical relationships, so respect for the elder and authority is much emphasized. In China, people are prone to use honorific titles and respectful words. In order to show respect, people usually say, “How is your family”, when they give greetings to each other. What authority refers to vary with time. Nowadays, it may include, for example, father in a family, leaders at different levels, the elder and the aged, and even people who are considered to be useful in the society (Jia, 1997). Authority is respected and listened to and power relationship is in the use of titles or honorifics when addressing occurs.

Respect is the predominant norm or value orientation in Chinese, just as change and progress is the important value orientation in the Western culture. These beliefs and attitudes produce a certain mind-set and a wide range of speech patterns. Various aspects of this orientation are optimism, receptivity to change, emphasis on the future rather than the past or present. The value systems influence their attitudes to life and work. Americans tend to be changeable. The young usually do not live with their parents. They are independent and rebellious. Creativity is highly valued, so the common people are not required to listen to their authority. The difference between value systems fosters not only the different beliefs but also the speeches.

IV. Ways to Improve English Majors' Ability to Understand Words' Cultural Connotation

As what has be discussed above, the cultural connotation of words is closely related to their ability to understand words well. If they know the cultural connotation of words, they will understand the words better. However, if they lack the ability, understanding the word well will be difficult or impossible because of the negative transfer of culture. Therefore, the teacher should find ways to fill in the important gaps in the cultural connotation of words.

A. Cultivating Cultural Creativity

Gaining knowledge about foreign culture in EFL learning, and further empowered by action to interact, the learner’s relations with reality have started to change. He or she may view the world differently. To accelerate this change, we should introduce the concept of “generative learning” to learners in China. In generative learning, students are encouraged to go beyond the known to the unknown. In this process, they will see how they themselves acted while actually experiencing the situation they are now analyzing, and thus reach a “perception of their previous perception.” This step is significant. By achieving this awareness, they come to perceive reality differently: by broadening the horizon of their perception, they discover more easily in their “background awareness” the dialectical relations between the two dimensions of reality.

If learners are able to gain insight into their previous perceptions and to inquire into their previous knowledge and experience, a change is in the making, because change is made on the basis of critique of conventions. If Chinese learners, through learning EFL, have develop a creative power for change, the perhaps we can say they have what we called culture creativity.

B. Participating in Practice

The next step in the learner’s internal change through EFL learning is: from being knowledge to being flexible and open to new experiences. The most effective way for a Chinese EFL learning to develop an understanding of foreign culture is probably to participate in the community in its cultural environment. But as we know, this is unrealistic for most EFL learning in China. But that does not mean that the learner cannot be a “participant”.

Classroom as culture is a real environment where the learner may begin to understand the foreign culture. According to this point of view, the classroom is an artificially created cultural environment in which the learner’s internal social reality meets a different external reality. By participating in classroom interaction, the learner’s knowledge is employed to match new input. A process of learning takes place in the process of interaction. In foreign language class, culture is created and enacted through the dialogue between students and between teacher and student. Through their dialogue, participants not only replicate a given context of culture, but because it takes place in a foreign language, it also has the potential of shaping a new culture.

Besides, there are many ways to learn the foreign culture. Talking to the native English speakers is the best idea to improve one’s oral English, through talking, at the same time, one can get the real feeling through talking.

The process of acquitting knowledge about foreign culture and using this knowledge in actual behavior is also a process of cultural interaction in which both home and foreign cultures are brought together. The learner’s own patterns of behavior are learned through their life experiences in China. The new experiences, which they received from learning and using EFL, will be filtered through their existing background knowledge. The key to acquiring the broad patterns of behavior lies in some experts called “interpretative repertoires” which are shared conceptual frameworks or recurrently used systems of terms applied in characterizing and evaluating actions, events and other phenomena. Since these “interpretative repertoires” cannot be described in words, the only way of learning is to engage in various kinds of social interaction.

V. Conclusion

Cultural teaching does indeed occupy a place in the English vocabulary teaching. For example, culture can not only provide a key to understanding English words well but it is also an ideal vehicle for improving their ability of translating, reading and writing. The success in teaching vocabulary well greatly depends upon teacher's telling. And other ways, such as discussion, literature, films are also important in introducing culture to students and furthermore improving their ability of mastering words. Cultures differ from one another each culture is unique. Learning words well means more than merely mastering the pronunciation, grammar but also mastering the cultural background and their ideas, customs and their “language of mind”. This paper analyses the relationship between culture and vocabulary, problems caused by different cultural connotation in vocabulary understanding and also some suggestions on how to teach word's cultural connotation well. And I hope all of these will help to improve English majors' ability of mastering word's meaning and furthermore to have successful communication with foreigners in their work in the future.

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Xianmei Sun was born in Dezhou, China in 1964.She received her bachelor degree in linguistics from Qufu University, China in 1984.

She is currently an associate professor in the Department of Foreign Language, Dezhou University, Shandong, China. Her research interests include English teaching methodology and applied linguistics.

Ms. Sun is a member of the Chinese Semiology Association of Foreign Language Teachers.

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Semantic Derogation in Persian Animal Proverbs

Azam Estaji
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran
Email: Estaji@um.ac.ir

Fakhteh Nakhavali*
Ferdowi University of Mashhad, Iran
Email: Fakhteh _ Nakhavaly@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—In this paper the analysis of Persian animal proverbs is studied based on the semantic – cognitive frame. The main aim of this research is to determine if there is semantic derogation in Persian, and if there is, ascertain whether it applies equally to both sexes (male & female) terms. The analysis shows that sex and semantic derogation are not shown in Persian structures and proverbs as much as other languages, but in the cases with semantic derogation, the metaphorical meanings of the female proverbs connote worse qualities than those connoted by the male proverbs.**

***Index Terms*—semantic derogation, animal metaphor, proverb, sexist language**

I. Introduction

For most people metaphor is a device of the poetic imagination, a matter of extraordinary language, metaphor is characteristic of language alone but figurative expressions are not just word combinations. The metaphorical proverb is a structure that shows one thing is inferred to another by an implicit comparison (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.3).

This investigation is based on two theoretical sources. On the one hand, the studies of Fontecha and Catalan (2003) related to the analysis of semantic derogation and sexism in languages; on the other hand the views of Lakoff and Johnson (1980) on metaphor, in their view "metaphor" is understanding and experiencing one thing in terms of another.

According to Fontecha and Catalan (2003), sexism and semantic derogation are viewed in most languages, and in most cases the worst qualities are connoted to female terms rather than to male terms, so in most languages of the world, there are some aspects of semantic derogation and semantic imbalance.

In this study, the focus is on Persian proverbs and analyzing those which referred to a special sex.

II. Review of Literature

Researches on animal expressions are rare, and this kind of expressions are mainly represented in dictionaries, however the works of some researchers on animal expressions are presented as follow.

Nesi (1995) discussed the figurative meanings to the names of different animals in different cultures, and highlights some of the problems language learners and translators face when dealing with single – word conventional metaphor. This research shows that many common terms such as "cat", "cow", and "mouse" were found to have a wide range of figurative meanings and discussions with informants revealed that even advanced learners tend to think in terms of the connotations of their first culture when they encounter or use these words in a figurative sense in English.

Nadim (2000) examines animal roles in Shirazi proverbs with an approach to sociolinguistics. After analyzing about 100 animal expressions, he concludes that donkey expressions are the most frequent ones and have some salient semantic molecules such "crazy, worthless, and absurd".

Hsieh (2001) Studied the origins, constructions, meanings and applications of the animal metaphors in Chinese and German. This study also included the ways of thinking and the cultural particularities of the respective societies as implied in the metaphors.

Hsieh (2003) represented a study which contained 2980 Mandarin Chinese and 2630 German written and spoken animal expressions. Animal expressions in that corpora included: metaphors, similes, proverbs, sayings, frozen collocations, grammatically ill-formed collocations and routine formulae. Hsieh analyzed the semantic functions of animal names, the concepts of them, and the applications of the corpora in both languages.

Halupka – Resetar and Radic (2003) dealt with combined metaphorical / vocative uses of animal names in Serbian in addressing people, both abusively an affectionately, so expressing the speakers' attitude towards their addressee. This research is based on the results obtained in a survey conducted with 100 university linguistics students.

Fontecha and Catalan (2003) presented a contrastive cognitive analysis of metaphorical usages of the word pairs fox / vixen and bull / cow together with their Spanish counterparts to find out whether animal metaphors are conceptualized

* Corresponding Author

in English and Spanish equally, and to show some kind of semantic derogation appears in both languages and the main metaphorical meanings of the female terms connote worse qualities than those connoted by the metaphors of the male terms. And there are differences in the degree and kind of semantic derogation in both languages.

Hsieh (2004) represented a paper in which the results of a cross – lingual study of Mandarin Chinese corpus and German Corpus of fixed animal expressions were presented. She examined the underlying conceit and also the metaphorical tenors of the expressions in both languages. She discussed the proportions of different types of underlying conceits and the salient metaphorical tenors they convey and the positive and negative tenors which shows animal expressions are the vocabulary of values.

Hsieh (2005) presented a corpus based study to explore the functions and concepts of the life form animal expression in Chinese and German, and aim to explore the semantic and pragmatic function of the wild animal names in the light of the underlying conceit.

Hsieh (2006) studied the corpora of animal expression in Chinese and German. She applied Goddard's (1998) approach of semantic molecules to examine "cat" expressions to explore the semantic interaction and the cultural backgrounds in the form of society.

Hsieh (2007) explored the origins, lexical changes, and meanings of dragon lexemes in Mandarin Chinese. She found that the dragon plays an important role for the Chinese and it is a mythical creature. After the lexical change was examined, the study focused on the semantic development of *long* lexemes, and the Chinese values, they convey.

Hsieh (2008) Compared animal and plant metaphors in order to show the semantic autonomy of language and the cognitive level of using these metaphors. She found that metaphors are not scientific, but the essence of metaphors and nature overlap, and animal metaphors are active and plant metaphors are static expressions.

III. Methodology

In this study a semantic – pragmatic analysis is applied which fascilate the organizing of animal concepts and metaphors in Persian. For gathering the data, a wide variety of dictionaries have been used, spoken data are gathered from daily conversation and questionnaires. The reasons for using dictionaries for date gathering instead of other sources was availability of dictionaries and literature in libraries, book shops, and institutions, and also dictionaries compiled the words, expressions, meanings, and definitions, so they are proper sources for semantic analysis.

In this study 1771 Persian animal expressions were analyzed and only few of them showed some aspects of semantic derogation.

Semantic derogation is technically defined as a change of meaning (Fontecha and Catalan, 2003, p.773) but in this research it refers to words that convey negative, demeaning or sexual connotations.

IV. Analysis

In this section the meanings of the Persian proverbs with semantic derogation will be studied. As it was mentioned before semantic imbalance is not revealed in Persian animal expressions as much as other languages, so the data of this section is few and limited to 20 cases which most of them refer to semantic derogation against female.

This section is divided in to two parts. In the first one, the Persian proverbs with semantic derogation against female, and in the second one the proverbs with semantic derogation against male, will be studied. The analysis, description, and concepts of these proverbs will be represented as follow.

A. Persian Proverbs with Semantic Derogation against Female

The analysis of Persian proverbs show that some animal expressions include "donkey", "dog", "camel", "hen", and "rooster" expressions reveal some aspects of semantic imbalance against female.

In this section the analysis of these expressions will be represented according to the frequency of animal names in Persian proverbs.

1. semantic derogation in "donkey" expressions

"Donkey" expressions are the most frequent Persian expressions, and show most semantic derogation in this language too. Analysis of the data shows that some proverbs as follow reveal some aspects of semantic imbalance against female:

1- «خداوندا زن زشت را تو بردار، خودم دانم خر لنگ و **طلبکار**»

"Cheeky & lame donkey know I, take you the ugly woman God" (L.T)[1]

2- «بود مهر زنان همچون دُم خر»

"Donkey tail like woman affection is" (L.T)

3- «عشوه شتری، غمزه خرکی»

"Like a donkey wink, like a camel coquetry" (L.T)

4- «مکر زنان بار خر است»

"Is donkey load women cunning" (L.T)

The first proverb means "having an ugly wife is worse and more difficult than having a troublesome donkey".

[1] -Literal Translation

The second proverb means "the women love and affection is like the donkey's tail": it is something worthless and instable.

The third proverb means "to coquet like camel and donkey". In Persian "camel" is known as a careless and gawky animal, and "donkey" as a thoughtless and heedless one. In this proverb the names of these animals accompany with the noun "coquettishness" and "amorous glance" which are just used for female. In the other words, in this proverb the negative the negative adjectives of these two animals are attributed to women, and used to describe a woman with inelegant behavior.

The fourth proverb means "The donkey is carrying the women's cunning".

In this proverb women are revealed a cunning beings who trick naïve and foolish guys.

As it is seen in the mentioned proverbs, concepts of "unaffectionate & unfeeling", "difficulty in tolerating an ugly woman", "having inelegant and careless behavior" , and "craft and tricky" are attributed to females within Persian proverbs.

2. semantic derogation in "dog" expressions

After "donkey" expressions, "dog" expressions are most frequent ones in Persian in which there are some aspects of semantic imbalance as follow.

1- «از دیوار شکسته و زن سلیطه و سگ بی‌قلاده باید حذر کرد»

"Avoid should collar without dog and shrew woman and broken wall from" (L.T)

2- «زن سلیطه سگ بی‌قلاده است»

"Is collar without dog shrew woman" (L.T)

3- «سگ وفا دارد، ندارد زن وفا!»

"Loyalty woman doesn't have, has loyalty the dog" (L.T)

4- «وفا از زن مخواه از سگ وفا جوی»

"Look for loyalty dog from, don't ask woman from loyalty" (L.T)

The first proverb means "you should avoid the broken wall, shrew woman and a dog without collar". It means that, bad – tempered woman is more dangerous and tormenting than a wall which is broken or a dog without collar.

The second proverb means "a shrew woman is like a dog without collar" in this proverb again the adjective of the animal (cruelty and ill humor) are attributed to females.

The third proverb means "dog" has loyalty, but not the woman" , this proverb compares woman with "dog" to show women are more unfaithful than the dogs.

The fourth proverb means "never ask a woman for loyalty, but ask it from a "dog" this proverb again describes women as unfaithful beings and know it a mistake to ask it from them.

As it seems 'shrew, cruelty, and unfaithfulness' are attributed to women through "dog" expressions in Persian.

3. Semantic derogation in "camel" expressions

The third frequent animal expressions in Persian are "camel" expressions.

1- «عشوه شتری، غمزه خرکی» (Like a donkey wink, like a camel coquetry) (L.T)

which was explained before, and

2- «به شتر گفتند غمزه کن، زد و پالیز را خراب کرد» (Break down the patch and hit, do wink say they the camel to) (L.T)

As it is mentioned before, winking and coquetting are just used for women, so here the carelessness of "camel" is attributed to females with inattentive behavior.

4. Semantic derogation in "hen" expressions

"Hen" expressions are the most frequent bird expressions in Persian, and the names of ""hen" and "rooster" are the only names of animals which distinguish sexes in Persian. In the other words, "hen" expressions only refer to female and "rooster" expressions only refer to male.

1- «مثل مرغ»

"Hen like" (L.T)

2- «عقل چهل زن به اندازه‌ی یک مرغ سیاه است!»

"Is black hen a to equal woman forty intelligence" (L.T)

The first proverb means "like a hen"[2] is used to refer to a fat and sleepy woman who usually goes to sleep soon.

The second proverb means "The intelligence of 40 women is equal to a single black hen!" . This proverb wants to show that women are stupid and dull beings.

As the analysis of "hen" expressions show through these expressions women are described as "fat, sleepy, stupid, and dull" guys.

In the next section the Persian proverbs with semantic derogation against male will be given.

B. Persian Proverbs with Semantic Derogation against Male

As it is mentioned before the number of proverbs with semantic derogation against male are much fewer than the proverbs with semantic derogation against female, and only in 4 Persian proverbs there are aspects of semantic derogation against male as follow.

[2] - a according to the proverb dictionary definition, means: "being fat and sleepy" (Dehkhoda, 1982, p.10)

1- «مادرزن خرم کرده، توبره بر سرم کرده!»
"Wear my head on nose – bag make me donkey mother in law" (L.T)
2- «دلم خوش است که زن بگم، گرچه کمتر از سگم!»
"Dog from more inferior although call woman that I am delighted" (L.T)
3- «مثل خروس جنگی »
"Quarrelsome rooster like" (L.T)
4- «مثل خروس»
"Rooster like" (L.T)

The first proverb means "My mother in law supposes me a donkey and causes me to wear a nose - bag!" this proverb shows the mother in law (female) as a cunning guy and the groom as a stupid one, so there is semantic derogation against both sexes, but more against the male.

The second proverb means "I'm delighted to call my wife, although I'm inferior than a dog!". As it seems in this proverb there is semantic derogation against men, because compares male with dog (which is considered as an inferior, worthless animal in some Persian proverbs), and knows men more inferior than this animal.

The third proverb means "like a quarrelsome rooster". As it is mentioned before all the "rooster" expressions refer to male, so the adjective come from the "rooster" name will be attributed to male too.

The fourth proverb means "like a rooster" is another Persian proverb which a attribute the "rooster" characteristic of "voluptuousness" to men.

So the analysis of the Persian proverbs with semantic derogation shows that "stupidity, worthlessness, being quarrelsome" can be attributed to male and make semantic imbalance.

In the following table the abstract of these analysis will be given.

TABLE 1
THE PERSIAN PROVERBS WITH SEMANTIC DEROGATION

Animal names used in these proverbs	**Persian proverbs with semantic derogation against female**	**Persian proverbs with semantic derogation against male**
"donkey"	**1- «خداوندا زن زشت را تو بردار، خودم دانم خر لنگ و طلبکار»** **"Cheeky & lame donkey know I, take you the ugly woman God" (L.T)** **2- «بود مهر زنان همچون دُم خر»** **"Donkey tail like woman affection is" (L.T)** **3- «عشوه شتری، غمزه خرکی»** **"Like a donkey wink, like a camel coquetry" (L.T)** **4- «مکر زنان بار خر است»** **"Is donkey load women cunning" (L.T)**	**«مادرزن خرم کرده، توبره بر سرم کرده!»** **"Wear my head on nose – bag make me donkey mother in law" (L.T)**
"dog"	**1- «از دیوار شکسته و زن سلیطه و سگ بی‌قلاده باید حذر کرد»** **"Avoid should collar without dog and shrew woman and broken wall from" (L.T)** **2- «زن سلیطه سگ بی‌قلاده است»** **"Is collar without dog shrew woman" (L.T)** **3- «سگ وفا دارد، ندارد زن وفا!»** **"Loyalty woman doesn't have, has loyalty the dog" (L.T)** **4- «وفا از زن مخواه از سگ وفا جوی»** **"Look for loyalty dog from, don't ask woman from loyalty" (L.T)**	**«دلم خوش است که زن بگم، گرچه کمتر از سگم!»** **"Dog from more inferior although call woman that I am delighted" (L.T)**
"camel"	**1- «عشوه شتری، غمزه خرکی»** **"Like a donkey wink, like a camel coquetry" (L.T)** **2- «به شتر گفتند غمزه کن، زد و پالیز را خراب کرد» (Break down the patch and hit, do wink say they the camel to) (L.T)**	———
"hen"	**1- «مثل مرغ»** **"Hen like" (L.T)** **2- «عقل چهل زن به اندازه‌ی یک مرغ سیاه است!»** **"Is black hen a to equal woman forty intelligence" (L.T)**	———
"rooster"	———	**1- «مثل خروس جنگی »** **"Quarrelsome rooster like" (L.T)** **2- «مثل خروس»** **"Rooster like" (L.T)**

V. CONCLUSION

The semantic-pragmatic analysis of the Persian proverbs shows that:
1. Some Persian animal metaphors are conceptualized.
2. There is difficulty of characterizing each feature as positive or negative.

3. There is difficulty in ranging the degree of negative features.
4. Sexism and semantic derogation are not revealed in Persian expressions as much as other languages.
5. Most of the time animal pairs with different sexes are called with a single name in Persian.
6. Analysis of Persian proverbs show that if semantic imbalance exist in animal expressions, most of the time used to refer to female rather than to male.
7. "Hen" and "rooster" expressions are the only animal expressions which show sexism in Persian and refer to a special sex.

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Azam Estaji is associate professor in General Linguistics. She is currently in Ferdowsi university of Mashhad, where she teaches phonology, phonetics, research, and the school of linguistics. She published a lot of articles in different journals. Her major interest is: discourse analysis and historical linguistics.

Fakhteh Nakhavali is an MA graduate student of General Linguistics. She has done her study in Ferdowsi university of Mashhad. Her major interests are: discourse analysis and historical linguistics.

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A Study of Changes in Risk-taking and Sociability in Chinese University EFL Class

Wenxia Zhang
Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Tsinghua University, Beijing, 100084, China
Email: wxzhang@mail.tsinghua.edu.cn

Meihua Liu
Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Tsinghua University, Beijing, 100084, China
Email: ellenlmh@gmail.com

***Abstract*—This paper reports the results of a study of changes in risk-taking and sociability in Chinese university EFL class over a term. A 10-item survey involving 934 first-year undergraduates revealed that: (1) the students generally did not like to risk using English and were moderately sociable in English class both at the beginning and toward the end of the term; (2) the participants became significantly more risk-taking in English class over the term; (3) male students reported being significantly more risk-taking than their female counterparts both at the beginning and toward the end of the term; and (4) language class risk-taking and sociability were significantly correlated with each other and the students' performance in English both at the beginning and toward the end of the term. As such, some implications for teaching and learning of English are discussed.**

***Index Terms*—risk-taking, sociability, change**

I. Introduction

The classroom is a crucial place for student interpersonal and educational development (Pierce, 1994). For years, researchers and educators have been interested in the relationship between students' classroom participation and their academic achievement, which shows that students who participate actively in class tend to achieve higher than those who are passive in class (Ely, 1986; Liu & Jackson, 2008; McDonough, 2004; Spada, 1986). As Krupa-Kwiatkowski (1998, p. 133) claimed that 'interaction involves participation, personal engagement, and the taking of initiative in some way, activities that in turn are hypothesized to trigger cognitive processes conducive to language learning'. Since oral participation is the most observable behavior, much research has focused on this and its relationship with students' English proficiency or performance (Ely, 1986; Tsou, 2005).

In various language learning contexts, learners have been observed to be quiet in language classrooms, rarely responding to teachers' questions, or actively taking part in classroom discussions (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Jackson, 2002; Tsui, 1996; Zou, 2004). Asian learners are especially often viewed as being passive, lacking initiative, and rarely volunteering answers (Liu, 2006; Liu & Jackson, 2009; Saito & Ebsworth, 2004; Tsui, 1996; Zou, 2004). As to gender difference in faculty-student interactions, mixed findings were revealed. For instance, Krupnick (1985) found that male students interacted more with their instructors than female students. Canada and Pringle (1995) found that female students initiated more faculty-student interactions than male students within mixed-sex classrooms, which was supported by the subsequent research done by Lin and Rancer (2003). Nevertheless, Brady and Eisler's (1999) study of 24 classes from various disciplines at a major university in America showed that men and women did not differ significantly in terms of their behaviors and interactions with faculty members, and that male-dominated classrooms were rated significantly less interactive than female-dominated and nondominated classrooms. The researchers also found that instructor monitoring of equity was the strongest predictor of an interactive classroom.

As English is becoming increasingly more important in China, and as the confidence of many Chinese people has been tremendously boosted up in recent years, it is assumed that Chinese EFL learners, especially university learners should be more enthusiastic, open-minded and active to learn and use English both in and outside class. Presumably, they should tend to be more risk-taking and sociable in English class. To confirm this assumption, the present study explored the changes in risk-taking and sociability in English class in relation to their relationships with the students' performance in English with a sample selected from three universities in China. And the research questions are: 1) Is there any change in language class risk-taking and sociability in university EFL class over the term? 2) Is there any difference in language class risk-taking and sociability between male and female students? and 3) How are language class risk-taking and sociability related to students' performance in English

II. Design

934 (587 male and 347 female) first-year non-English majors from various disciplines in three Chinese universities participated in the present study. With an age range from 13 to 21 and an average age of 18.49, they all were enrolled in credit-bearing and compulsory English courses offered by their universities. They completed the 6-item Language Class Risk-taking (LCR) (Liu & Jackson, 2008), the 4-item Language Class Sociability (LCS) (Liu & Jackson, 2008), and the background questionnaire in around 7 minutes in class in the third (phase 1) and fourteenth (phase 2) week of a term. The LCR aimed to measure to what extent learners would risk using the target language in class. It was believed that learners who risked using the target language more often were more willing to communicate with others in class or vice versa (Ely, 1986). It achieved a reliability score of .60 and .629 in phases 1 and 2 respectively in the present research. The LCS intended to tap to what extent learners enjoyed interacting with others in the target language in class. It achieved a reliability score of .756 and .684 in phases 1 and 2 respectively in the present research. All the items except the background questionnaire were placed on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree” with values 1-5 assigned to them respectively.

The data were analyzed in terms of mean and standard deviation to determine the general pattern of the students’ language class risk-taking and sociability. t-tests were run to explore the difference in language class risk-taking and sociability between male and female students and over the term. Finally, correlational analyses were conducted to reveal how the measured variables were related to the students’ performance in English.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *General Pattern of and Changes in Language Class Risk-taking and Sociability*

To reveal the general tendency of the students’ language class risk-taking and sociability, the means and standard deviations of the LCR and the LCS in both phases were computed. The higher the score, the more risk-taking or sociable the respondent was in English classrooms. The results are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
STATISTICAL ANALYSES OF THE LCR AND LCS (N = 934)

	LCR		LCS	
	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 1	Phase 2
Mean	16.40	16.95	13.09	13.14
Standard Deviation	3.72	3.63	2.82	2.76

Since each item of the LCR and the LCS had five descriptors with values of 1 to 5 assigned to them respectively, a mean of 16.40 (SD = 3.72) in phase 1 and 16.95 (SD = 3.63) in phase 2 on the LCR, both below the scale midpoint 18, reflects that the majority of the participants were moderately or even not risk-taking in both phases. Likewise, a mean of 13.09 (SD = 2.82) in phase 1 and 13.14 (SD = 13.14) in phase 2 on the LCS, all exceeding the scale midpoint 12, suggests that the participants were moderately or even strongly sociable in English classrooms in both phases. All these findings were consistent with those revealed in Liu and Jackson’s (2008) study of a sample with similar backgrounds.

Further, as noted from Table 1, the students generally tended to score higher on the LCR and the LCS in phase 2, implying that they became more risk-taking and sociable toward the end of the term. And the paired samples t-test results show that the difference in the LCR (t = -4.713, p = .000) was statistically significant but that for the LCS (t = -.549, p = .583) was statistically insignificant. Namely, the participants became significantly more risk-taking in English class over the term.

Gender differences in class risk-taking and sociability

To explore gender differences in language class risk-taking and sociability required the computation of the means and standard deviations of the LCR and the LCS for both males and females in the two phases (see Table 2).

TABLE 2:
GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE LCR AND THE LCS

		Mean		Standard Deviation	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
LCR	Phase 1	16.77	15.77	3.70	3.69
	Phase 2	17.15	16.62	3.61	3.65
LCS	Phase 1	13.01	13.21	2.80	2.86
	Phase 2	13.13	13.16	2.76	2.78

According to Table 2, males scored 16.77 (SD = 3.70) in phase 1 and 17.15 (SD = 3.61) in phase 2 on the LCR; and females scored 15.77 (SD = 3.69) in phase 1 and 16.62 (SD = 3.65) in phase 2 on the LCR, suggesting that both males and females generally did not like to risk using the target language in English class both at the beginning and toward the end of the term. Similarly, males scored 13.01 (SD = 2.80) in phase 1 and 13.13 (SD = 2.76) in phase 2 on the LCS; and females scored 13.21 (SD = 2.86) in phase 1 and 13.16 (SD = 2.78) in phase 2 on the LCS, indicating that both were moderately or even strongly sociable in English class both at the beginning and toward the end of the term.

Moreover, comparison of male and female scores on both scales reveals that males scored higher than their female peers on the LCR but lower on the LCS in both phases. It seems that male students were more risk-taking than females both at the beginning and toward the end of the term, which might be related to the Chinese culture which respects men more (Bond, 1996; Scollon & Scollon, 2000). Meanwhile, they reported to be less sociable than their female counterparts both at the beginning and toward the end of the term, consistent with a number of existing studies (Canada & Pringle, 1995; Lin & Rancer, 2003). Nevertheless, statistically significant difference was observed only in the LCR in both phases (t = 3.99, p = .000; and t = 2.16, p = .03 for phases 1 & 2 respectively), as supported by the independent samples t-test results. Alternatively, male students reported being significantly more risk-taking than their female counterparts both at the beginning and toward the end of the term.

B. Correlations between Language Class Risk-taking and Sociability and Students' Performance in English

Correlational analyses were conducted to explore the relationships between the students' language class risk-taking and sociability and their performance in English. The results are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN LANGUAGE CLASS RISK-TAKING AND SOCIABILITY AND PERFORMANCE IN ENGLISH

		LCR	LCS
Performance	Phase 1	.168**	.160**
	Phase 2	.070*	.155**

Note: ** = p < .01; * = p < .05

As noted in Table 3, both the LCR and the LCS were significantly positively correlated with the students' performance in English in both phases, with coefficients ranging from .070 to .168 (p < .05). Alternatively, the more risk-taking and/or sociable a student reported to be in language class, the better she/he performed in English, as found in Ely (1986) and Liu (2009). Though the coefficients were not high, they did suggest that language class risk-taking and sociability affected students' performance in English and that they might interact with other variables to exert an effect on the latter.

In addition, correlational analyses demonstrate that the LCR was significantly positively correlated to the LCR in both phases (r = .226 and .123 respectively, p < .01). Namely, the more risk-taking a student reported to be in language class, the more sociable she/he was as well.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Several conclusions can be drawn from the results of this study of Chinese university students' risk-taking and sociability in relation to their performance in English.

Analyses of the data revealed that the majority of the participants were moderately or even not risk-taking, and moderately or even strongly sociable in English classrooms both at the beginning and toward the end of the term. Toward the end of the term, the students became significantly more risk-taking in English class. Meantime, male students reported being significantly more risk-taking than their female counterparts both at the beginning and toward the end of the term, but no significant gender difference occurred in language class sociability in both phases. Finally, language class risk-taking and sociability were exposed to be significantly positively correlated with each other and the students' performance in English both at the beginning and toward the end of the term.

As such, it is beneficial to create a relaxing and non-threatening classroom environment to increase classroom risk-taking and participation, as suggested in several studies (Jackson, 2002; Liu, 2006; Tsui, 1996). A number of studies also suggest that it is conducive to creating a cohesive group and relaxing classroom environment if the EFL teacher acts as a facilitator who is characterized by empathic ability, acceptance of the members and congruence (Dallimore, Hertenstein & Platt, 2004; Dörnyei & Malderrz, 1997; Tsou, 2005). Thus, the learners' learning motivation can be enhanced, which leads to success in the FL classroom. Karabenick and Sharma's (1994) study of 25,000 American undergraduates of various disciplines showed that students who perceived their teachers as more supportive of classroom questioning were more likely to ask questions. Thus, the researchers suggested that teachers should well support their students. Tsou's (2005) study exposed that participation instruction was conductive to increasing student participation in interpersonal interactions in class, especially for those who came from traditional passive, teacher-centered classrooms, since it helped create a non-threatening, supportive and friendly classroom environment.

In addition, as students adapt more to the learning environment (e.g., classmates and teachers, the teaching style, more use of the target language), they become more willing to participate in interpersonal interactions and more active contributors to classroom activities, as found in existing studies (Liu, 2006; Liu & Littlewood, 1997). Thus, it is helpful to increase the students' exposure to and access to the target language both in and outside class.

Finally, as found in Brady and Eisler's (1999) study, if instructors can be equitable to both male and female students, the class may become more interactive since each one's contribution to classroom discussions is equally valued.

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Wenxia Zhang is professor of English at the Department of Foreign Languages, Tsinghua University, China. Her major research interests include EFL teaching and learning, language testing and EFL writing.

Meihua Liu is associate professor of English at the Department of Foreign Languages, Tsinghua University, China. Her research interests mainly include EFL teaching and learning in the Chinese context, individual differences, anxiety and reticence, and EFL writing.

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The Impact of Memory Strategy Instruction on Learners' EFL Vocabulary Retention

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

Nushin Karami Riabi
Islamic Azad University, Garmsar Branch, Iran
Email: nu.karami@gmail.com

***Abstract*—The Depth of Processing Hypothesis (DPH) suggests that the more cognitively one is engaged in learning a word, the more likely it is to remember it later. This study was an attempt to test and substantiate this Hypothesis by assessing the impact of memory strategy instruction on learners' short-term and long-term vocabulary retention. True experimental design was employed to study two classes of 40 randomly selected intermediate learners as control and experimental groups. Both groups were exposed to the same vocabulary learning activities; however, only the experimental group received the treatment regarding memory strategies. A 35-item vocabulary test was developed by the researchers based on the instructed material (the "Intermediate Vocabulary" textbook by B. J. Thomas). The reliability of the test was estimated 0.72 through KR-21 formula. The results of the first and second independent samples t-test analysis from the immediate and delayed post-tests indicated that the experimental group had a better performance than the control group on the delayed post-test only. Thus, the findings confirm the long-term effectiveness of instruction through memory strategies and support the DPH.**

***Index Terms*—memory strategies, EFL Learner, long-term retention, vocabulary instruction**

I. Background

In Iran English as a Foreign Language (EFL) is taught academically in class for a limited period of time each week with no immediate communicative purposes. Students are exposed to abundant words and grammatical rules. Language teachers have been teaching vocabulary as a core component of language proficiency by means of traditional methods such as flash cards, notebook with list of vocabulary, dictionaries, synonyms, antonyms etc. Learning words and how to use them is quite challenging and learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) cannot achieve their potential without an extensive vocabulary. One of their main problems with vocabulary learning is that it is here today, gone tomorrow.

According to Danesi (2003), in traditional language teaching only 4% of learners' brain is activated. Many authors suggest that a deeper level of new word processing will ensure better retention. One of the most commonly accepted views of vocabulary learning is that teaching language learning strategies leads to better vocabulary retention. Language learning strategies are "strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly" (Rubin, 1987, p. 22).

According to Nemati (2009) research into language learning strategies dates back to the1960s and researchers have had many publications on vocabulary learning since the 1990s. She argues that since learners forget much of what they learn, memory strategy instruction can result in long lasting knowledge without increasing study time. Based on the Depth of Processing Hypothesis (DPH), the more cognitively one is engaged in learning a word, the more likely it is to remember it later. Depth in this hypothesis refers to greater degree of semantic involvement. Remembering information depends not only on attention and rehearsal but also on the levels of processing. The implication is that the depth of processing is more important than the recency and length of exposure in remembering new words. Remembering the old information depends upon the nature of the cognitive process that is applied to process that information. So, teachers need to teach their students how to process new words deeply for better retention (Craik, 2002; Craik & Tulving, 1975; Craik & Lockhart, 1972).

According to Nation (2001), vocabulary learning strategies as subcategories of language learning strategies lead learners to take responsibility for their own learning. Language learning strategies refer to whatever learners employ to make learning easier, faster, and more enjoyable. They help learners to proceed with language learning tasks by facilitating comprehension, internalization, storage, retrieval, and use of the target language. By becoming aware of their own learning process, learners gradually feel independent and confident (Oxford 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Rubin, 1987). Therefore, strategy instruction is a crucial part of any foreign or second language teaching program (Schmitt, 1997).

Oxford (1990, p.1) defines language learning strategies as, "steps taken by students to enhance their own leaning, they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence" and distinguishes between direct strategies dealing with the language itself and indirect strategies concerned with management of learning. Direct strategies are divided into three sub-strategies: memory strategies for storing and retrieving information, cognitive strategies for language comprehension and application, and compensation strategies for language application despite gaps in knowledge. Therefore, direct strategies are helpful to the students due to the fact that they help learners store and retrieve information, assist them in producing language even when there is a gap in knowledge, and also help them understand and use the new language. Indirect strategies comprise meta-cognitive strategies for planning, monitoring comprehension, organizing, and evaluating learning, affective strategies for dealing with the task in a positive way, and social strategies for involving and cooperating with other people to get input and practice.

According to Oxford (1990), memory strategies, traditionally known as mnemonics, have been around since ancient times. They involve linking the word with some previously learned knowledge and their goal is organization and consolidation. Her memory sub-strategies (acronym, grouping, and imagery), which help learners store and retrieve information, were taught to examine their impact on the short-term and long-term vocabulary retention. In this study, short-term retention (STR) refers to the learners' performance on the exam immediately after the treatment but long-term retention (LTR) refers to the learners' performance on the exam two weeks after the treatment. Using acronyms (forming a real or nonsense word from the first letters of a list of words) will not help learners to understand the information but to memorize and remember it better. Grouping words belonging to the same category together also make them easy to remember. Categorizing and breaking down a lot of language materials into small meaningful subgroups and then parts in order to make the information simple to remember by reducing the number of trivial elements. Using imagery refers to linking a list of things to concepts in memory by picturing them together or separately. Employing meaningful pictures either in the mind or in an actual drawing is believed to lead to better memorization and retention.

Since vocabulary is still a fundamental challenge and the current focal point of teaching and research (Wei, 2007), this study was conducted to test DPH and possibly alleviate the problem by using three memory strategies in vocabulary instruction. Memory strategies were used as mnemonics by learners to make mental linkages that would allow new words to enter, remain, and retrieved for communication in long-term memory. Some researchers suggest that effective instruction requires a deeper level of processing of new words. However, more empirical evidence is needed to support this hypothesis. According to O'Malley and Chamot, (1990) and Oxford (1990), these strategies are more effective than memorization and parrot-like repetition techniques which need shallow processing. Vocabulary learning is a memory problem (Yongqi, 2003) and one of the major ways of researching vocabulary teaching techniques is doing experimental comparisons of vocabulary learning activities (Hulstijn and Laufer, 2001). In this study, the impact of teaching memory strategies on storing (short-term retention evaluated by immediate post-test) and retaining (long-term retention evaluated by delayed post-test) new words was investigated using two groups of intermediate female subjects.

In order to assess whether or not memory strategy instruction enhances short-term and long-term vocabulary retention of the subjects participating in the experimental group of this study, the following question was formulated.

Does teaching EFL vocabulary through memory strategies impact EFL learners' short-term and long-term vocabulary retention?

To answer the research question, the following null hypotheses were formulated.

1. Teaching EFL vocabulary through memory strategies has no significant impact on learners' short-term vocabulary retention.

2. Teaching EFL vocabulary through memory strategies has no significant impact on learners' long-term vocabulary retention.

II. Methodology

A. Research Design

This study followed a true experimental design in which the control group received no treatment, the subjects were randomly selected and assigned to two groups, and a pre-test was administered to capture the initial differences between the groups. The following diagram summarizes the design. The dotted line represents equivalent groups. In this diagram GA and GB stand for experimental and control groups respectively. T1 stands for the test before applying the treatment. T2 and T3 stand for the tests after the treatment and X stands for treatment.

GA	T1	X	T2	T3
--				
GB	T1		T2	T3

B. Subjects and Instruments

Forty Iranian intermediate EFL learners participated in this study implemented at Kaneye Zaban which is an English institute in Bojnord located in the north east of the country. The participants were 40 Iranian intermediate EFL learners. All of them were adult female students selected based on a placement pre-test. Those who get 37 to 42 scores out of 70 in Interchange placement test are called intermediate English learners. Forty out of 70 participants were eligible to attend the vocabulary class. They were randomly assigned to two groups. A coin was tossed to choose the experimental and control groups.

Although the pre-existing Interchange placement test (pre-test) was standard**,** its reliability was estimated 0.88 using the following formula:

$$kr21 = \left(\frac{k}{k-1}\right)\left(1 - \frac{\bar{X}(k-\bar{X})}{k\sigma^2}\right) = (\frac{70}{70-1})(1 - \frac{35.97(70-35.97)}{70 * 11.92^2}) = 0.8869$$

The vocabulary textbook “Intermediate Vocabulary” by B.J. Thomas was taught to both groups. In the control group, vocabulary was presented through different modes such as explanation, examples, synonyms, antonyms, etc. In the experimental group, the subjects were familiarized with the concept of memory strategies and their applications, too.

A 35-item multiple-choice vocabulary post-test was developed by the researchers. The items were designed based on the input from the above mention book. Before piloting phase, five English lecturers were asked to analyze the items for content and face validity. Then the test was piloted on the students who took the same course previous term. the reliability of the test was estimated 0.72 through KR-21 formula.

$$kr21 = \left(\frac{k}{k-1}\right)\left(1 - \frac{\bar{X}(k-\bar{X})}{k\sigma^2}\right) = (\frac{35}{35-1})(1 - \frac{27.58(35-27.58)}{35 * 4.445^2}) = 0.72478$$

C. Procedure

This study was implemented in four phases: pre-test, treatment, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test. The independent variable was the impact of teaching three types of memory strategies: imagery, grouping, and acronyms. And the dependent variable was the learners' short- and long-term EFL vocabulary retention.

The allocated time for teaching in both groups was 15 one hour sessions. Both classes were held at the same time in the afternoon. Vocabulary instruction in the control group included pronouncing words loudly, writing them on the board, explaining their parts of speech, defining or elaborating their meanings via synonyms and antonyms, using them in meaningful sentences, giving the Persian equivalents of abstract words to clarify their meanings, etc.

As to the experimental group, in addition to applying the techniques in the control group, the researchers made students aware of memory strategies which served as the independent variable. The subjects got acquainted with the concept of strategy through a handout including the definitions of three kinds of memory strategies (imagery, acronyms, and grouping) and examples to clarify them. For each kind of strategy 3 vocabulary items were given along with the instructions. The first 20 units of the intermediate vocabulary book were taught. The syllabus of each session`s teaching and the pictures needed for teaching concrete words had already been prepared. The researchers knew which words could be classified into groups and which ones were appropriate for making acronyms.

Immediately after the treatment, the first post-test was administered to measure the learners' short-term vocabulary retention. The same post-test with some changes in its arrangement was administered to the same subjects as the second post-test two weeks later to measure the learners' long-term vocabulary retention. According to Yongqi (2003, p. 12), "Delayed recall after 2 weeks under experimental conditions is normally referred to as long-term retention".

D. Statistical Analysis and Results

Before analyzing the data, a few preliminary steps were taken to ensure the validity and reliability of the results. To answer the research question, the raw scores taken from the post-tests were submitted to the computer software Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS version 15), using t-test. Paired-samples t-test was used to see whether there was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores for post-test 1 (immediate post-test) and post-test 2 (delayed post-test) of the same group. Independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the possible differences between the means of the experimental and control groups based on the gain scores from the post-tests. The research question and the corresponding hypotheses in this study are as follows:

Does teaching EFL vocabulary through memory strategies impact EFL learners' short-term and long-term vocabulary retention?

1. Teaching EFL vocabulary through memory strategies has no significant impact on learners' short-term vocabulary retention.

2. Teaching EFL vocabulary through memory strategies has no significant impact on learners' long-term vocabulary retention.

The following tables indicate the summary of t-tests.

TABLE 1.
THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS (POST-TEST 1)

Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	df	t	Sig.
Experimental Control	20 20	16.98 16.65	1.69 2.44	38	.50	0.61

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the experimental and control groups immediately after the treatment (post-test 1). As indicated in Table 1, there is no significant difference between the experimental group (*M* =16.98, *SD* = 1.69) and the control group [*M* = 16.65, *SD* = 2.44; *t* (38) = 0.50, *p*. > .05]. This result suggests that the first null hypothesis (teaching EFL vocabulary through memory strategies has no significant impact on learners' short-term vocabulary retention) fails to be rejected.

TABLE 2.
THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS (POST-TEST 2)

Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	df	t	Sig.
Experimental Control	20 20	16.97 14.56	1.64 2.72	38	3.39	0.002*

*Sig. p < .05

The second independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of the experimental and control groups two weeks after the treatment (post-test 2). As indicated in Table 2, there is a significant difference between the gain scores for the experimental group (*M = 16.97*, *SD = 1.64*) and the gain scores for the control group (*M = 14.56*, *SD* = 2.72; *t* (38) = 3.39, *p* < *.05*). This final result shows that the mean increment of the experimental group two weeks after the treatment is more than the control group. That is, the participants who received memory strategy instruction learned significantly more vocabulary than others. Since there is a significant difference between the means of the two groups, the null hypothesis (teaching EFL vocabulary through memory strategies has no significant impact on learners' long-term vocabulary retention) is rejected. Therefore, the DPH is supported.

TABLE 3.
THE PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (POST-TEST 1 & 2)

Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	df	t	Sig.
Post-test 1	20	16.98	1.69	19	0.063	0.951
Post-test 2	20	16.97	1.64			

Table 3 shows that there is no significant difference between the means of the two means in post-test 1 and 2 of the experimental group. This result suggests that the experimental group subjects performed the same in the immediate and delayed post-tests.

TABLE 4.
THE PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE CONTROL GROUP (POST-TEST 1 & 2)

Control Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	df	t	Sig.
Post-test 1	20	16.65	2.44	19	9.549	0.000*
Post-test 2	20	14.56	2.72			

*Sig. p < .05

Table 4 shows that there is a significant difference between the two means in post-test 1 and 2 of the control group. This result suggests that the control group subjects performed better in the immediate post-test in comparison to the delayed post-test.

III. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The result of the first independent samples t-test analysis from the immediate post-test indicated that the experimental group who received memory strategy instruction had almost the same performance as the control group who did not receive it. This means that the impact of memory strategy instruction on short-term retention is not significant. However, the result of the second independent samples t-test analysis from the delayed post-test administration indicated that the experimental group had a better performance than the control group. This suggests that memory strategy instruction is useful for the long-term vocabulary retention. The results of the paired-samples t-tests also shows that there is a significant difference between the two means in post-test 1 and 2 of the control group only. This result suggests that the control group subjects performed better in the immediate post-test in comparison to the delayed post-test. Since teaching memory strategies seems to have facilitated the process of long-term EFL vocabulary retention, its application can be suggested to reinforce the EFL vocabulary learning.

The findings of this study confirm the long-term effectiveness of instruction through memory strategies and support the DPH. The findings are in line with Nemati (2009), Schmitt and Schmitt 1995), and Craik and Tulving (1972). However, they are different from Marefat and Shirazi's (2003) findings in which learners who received memory strategy instruction performed better in short-term retention test than long-term retention test. This discrepancy may be due to the inappropriate combinations and use of strategies in terms of time, place, and method (Yongqi, 2003; Lessard-Clouston, 1997 as cited in Marefat and Shirazi, 2003). The result of this study can be justified in keeping with Craik and Tulving' (1972) perspective that in the short-term, information is stored easily, but in the long-term, it is recalled only if it is deeply and meaningfully processed. However, due to the limitations of this study, the results should be interpreted cautiously. In fact, further research in this regard is in order. The implications from the findings of this study suggest that if memory strategies are incorporated into the curriculum and instructed in EFL classes, long-term retention of new EFL words will be facilitated.

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Mohammad Reza Ghorbani has worked as an EFL teacher and researcher in Iran, Japan, and Malaysia since 1990. He has published two books on educational issues and six articles in specialized international journals. He has also presented 10 papers in international conferences. His interests are English Teaching, Learning, Testing, and Evaluation.

Nushin Karami Riabi holds an M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). She has been an English teacher for 12 years and has run a language institute since 2008.

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Translation of Names and Comparison of Addressing between Chinese and English from the Intercultural Perspective

Xueqing Wang
Department of Fundamental Course, Zhenjiang Watercraft College of PLA, Zhenjiang, China
Email: richerwang1980@yahoo.com.cn

***Abstract*—It is self-evident that to communicate, we must first know the participants' names, or successful communication will be impossible. Names not only symbolize identities, but also denote special significance such as the great expectation from the parents. It is absolutely impolite and embarrassing to make mistakes in regard to others' names. Therefore, it is of staggering significance in communication, especially in intercultural one. With the deepening project of reform and opening up to the outside world, frequent intercultural communications take place. Because the structure of people's names in English-speaking countries is different from ours, it is extremely important to correctly translate foreign names and name foreigners. Only when we are aware of the differences can we carry out smooth intercultural communication. In this article, I will analyze these phenomena.**

***Index Terms*—translation, names, addressing, English, Chinese**

I. Introduction

There have been lots of fervent discussions on translation of names. In regard to the translation of names from Chinese into English, Chinese phonetic system has been used since 1978. But in fact, many overseas Chinese students, Chinese visiting scholars and people living in Hong Kong SAR, Macau SAR and Taiwan province conduct their own practices. Some claim to observe the English habit, i.e., given name first, family name second. Some suggest sticking to the Chinese way, i.e., family name first, leaving the given name to follow. Some say it is neither suitable nor scientific to employ Chinese phonetic system when translating Chinese names. They advise that Chinese should acquire English names in replacement of Chinese names when necessary.

II. English and Chinese Names in Intercultural Communication

A. Differences between English and Chinese names

Names are part of language, which belongs to culture. Therefore, different factors concerning names reflect differences among cultures in a certain degree. First and foremost, phonetic forms of names in different cultures differ notably. Second, the number of syllables in names differs from culture to culture.

When listing the differences between English and Chinese names specifically, we can cite a legion of examples. For instance, there are more family names in English, but more given names in Chinese. And we Chinese have family name and given name, whereas westerners often have given name, middle name and family name. Furthermore, in linear arrangement of name, we Chinese put family name at the first place, then given name, while in western countries, they do this in a reversed order.

Although names are symbols of humans, they also contain profound meanings. In Chinese and other oriental cultures, choosing proper words to name a baby is an arduous task, for Chinese people believe names are closely related to their destinies. Let's take one name comprising three characters for example. The first character is family name. The middle one reflects his position in family hierarchy. The last character is the given name. Sometimes, people may rack their brains in order to give the new-born good Chinese names. Generally, Chinese names are simple, including two or three characters. English names usually possess a long array of letter, but they are interesting in that one's gender can easily be identified according to his or her names.

B. Dealing with the Differences during Translation

Now that names are essential to smooth intercultural communication and there are so many characteristics about names, how can we deal with it in intercultural communication?

First, we must be clear that translation of names is restricted by the language used in communication. Roughly speaking, one certain language should first be designated for the communication, and then names of both sides should be translated with words having similar pronunciation in the designated language. But minor adjustments are necessary if differences between the two languages are almost unable to bridge. For example, we translate "smith", which is composed of one syllabus, into “史密斯”，which contains three syllables. And Chinese name “任志坚” is turned into Ren Zhijian based on Chinese phonetic rules. But foreigners have great difficulties to correctly pronounce it. The pronunciation and intonation may change sharply, the result of which is that the pronunciation of the name belongs neither purely to Chinese culture nor purely to English culture. This is a kind of compromise in essence.

There are many channels in intercultural communication. If the structure of language symbolic system is analyzed, we can divide intercultural communication into two types, i.e., intercultural communication in oral way and intercultural communication in written way.

Phonetically, some phonemes in foreign language can neither be heard clearly nor be pronounced correctly, thus posing on great barriers to memorizing them. It is hard for us to memorize a foreigner’s name if it is too long and contains too many syllables. It is difficult for us Chinese to memorize a foreign name which has more than four syllables, because our names are usually made up of by two to three syllables. At the same time, it is also uneasy for foreigners to remember our name because the way in which our names are made up of is different from that of theirs. For example, foreigners frequently feel perplexed as to whether or not the family name of “徐俐” is “Xu”. They sometimes made mistakes by taking “Li” as its family. Once the radiobroadcaster of VOA mistook by calling Chinese ambassador to the UN, 黄华，Mr. Hua. Therefore, transliteration is far from enough. And some point out that the more people engaged in intercultural communication have in common, the easier they are able to communicate. For example, it is easier for Chinese people to communicate with Japanese than to communicate with Americans. Because Chinese and Japanese are all familiar with oriental culture and the psychological distance between the two is short.

There are two inclinations concerning the translation of names. One is to translate names in line with the foreign culture and the other is to translate them in accordance with its own culture. Many foreign experts or students in china have their Chinese names. Kevin Polpeter is called “包克文”. Halliday is “韩礼德”。And we are all familiar with the Canadian “大山”，but few can tell his original English name. The same is true when we Chinese live in foreign counties. Many Chinese entitle themselves with English names. 李登科 is called Timothy Lee and 程国宏 is Henry Cheng etc. Some people center their own culture when dealing with the translation of foreign names. It is commonplace for the foreign teachers to give their Chinese students foreign names. They call students whose family name is 王 King and 绍安 Shean, or they call them Tom, David or Chris directly.

Regarding the translation of foreign names, the common practice in China is to translate them into names of Chinese characteristics. For example, Scarlett O'Hara in *Gone With The Wind*, is translated into “郝思嘉” and John Leighton Stuart is turned into 司徒雷登. And we often call the world-renowned playwright Shakespeare 莎翁 in Chinese.

To sum up, names are not simple symbols, but rather, they are loaded with abundant cultural and traditional information. In intercultural communication, it is of paramount importance to reach consensus about how to translate participants’ names.

III. COMPARISON OF ADDRESSING BETWEEN CHINESE AND ENGLISH

As we have had knowledge of the translation of names in intercultural communication, we start turning to touch on another topic which is closely related to the previous one, i.e., the comparison of addressing between Chinese and people from English-speaking countries.

Generally speaking, there are a lot of ways for people to address each other. People can address others by their full names. But in this part of the article, I will center my discussion on the phenomenon that people address others by their first names.

It is easy to understand that the forms of first naming address between Chinese and people from English-speaking countries are different because of the two different cultures. Obviously, we Chinese have more ways in first naming address than westerners do. Following are some forms of first naming in western counties, especially in the U.S. and UK.

First, westerners address each other by one-word first name, e.g., John, Bill, Jane

Second, they address each other by their compound first name, e.g., Mary-Jean

Third, they address each other by their endearment first name, e.g., Dick for Richard, Liz for Elizabeth, and Jim for James etc.

Fourth, they address each other by their generic first name, e.g., Jack, Mack, Buddy etc.

Fifth, they address each other by their nickname, e.g., Short for a tall man, Happy for a person who always smiles, Carrot for a red-haired man etc.

The frequencies of the above five addressing forms by first name are not the same in actual daily use. The first and the third are most frequently used ones. The fourth type is used when people do not know each others’ first names. In contrast, there are more forms of first naming in Chinese.

First, Chinese address each other by one-character first name, e.g., Wei (伟), Ze (泽), Li（丽）etc.

Second, Chinese address each other by two-character first name, e.g., Xuefeng (雪峰), Yimiao (毅苗)etc.

Third, Chinese address each other by one-character first name plus er (儿)，e.g., Jinger (婧儿)，Ronger (蓉儿)，Qinger (晴儿)etc.

Fourth, Chinese address each other with two-character first name out of the duplication of a one-character first name, e.g., Weiwei—Wei (薇薇—薇)，Lili—Li (丽丽—丽)，Dongdong—Dong (东东—东)，etc.

Fifth, Chinese address each other with two-character first name made by put A before the one-character first name, e.g., A-jun (阿军), A-ren (阿仁), A-hua (阿华) etc.

Sixth, Chinese address each other with two-character first name made by put Xiao before the one-character first name, e.g., Xiaoli (小莉), Xiaoshan (小山), Xiaohong (小红) etc.

Seventh, Chinese address each other by two-character surname used as first name, e.g, Duanmu (端木)，Ouyang (欧阳)，Situ (司徒) etc.

Eighth, Chinese call children by their infant name, e.g., Laifu (来福), Maomao (毛毛) ，Guyu （谷雨）etc.

Tenth, Chinese address each other by their nickname, e.g., Dabao (大宝), Baimaoer (白毛儿) etc.

Among these addressing means, we Chinese frequently use the first, second and fourth ones. The fifth one is usually employed in the southern areas of China. The infant name addressing is mainly found in rural areas before a child grows up. The nickname is restricted to close friends.

In western world, the use of first name addressing is conditioned by a few factors such as age, gender, occupation, social and economic status etc. But roughly speaking, westerners tend to use first name when they meet. If they do not know others' names, they would employ generic first names such as Mack, Jack and Buddy. If two adults are introduced to each other, they are likely to be addressed with their titles and last names. But intimacy should be developed before first names are displaced.

There are also conditions where people employ nonreciprocal patterns. These happen when the two parties are not in the same or similar conditions. For instance, children often address adults as Mr. or Mrs. and the latter always call them by their first names. In the meantime, adults address people years their senior with the title and last name, but they themselves are addressed with first name by their peers. And these asymmetrical address patterns may also happen between master and servant, officer and soldier, boss and employee, or teacher and student. Often the superiors can first name the inferiors but the latter cannot do in return. For example, an officer who is younger than his soldiers can address them by their first names but those soldiers, though older than the officer, cannot address him by his first name.

In China, situations here are much the same. In Chinese families, for the sake of solidarity, family members can first name each other. Kin, including husband and wife, brothers, sisters, cousins, and so on, can first name each other provided their age gap is not great. Close friends, colleagues, boy friends and girl friends, and lovers can also conduct the practice. What is noteworthy here is that age difference plays an important role in reciprocity of first naming. Elders in a family, such as grandparents, are able to first name their family members but younger generation cannot do this in return.

Furthermore, Chinese first names can be followed by other addressing forms, which is less in English-speaking countries. Following are some examples.

1. first name + Xiansheng
Wulong Xiansheng
2. first name + tongzhi
Mingfei tongzhi
Comrade Mingfei
3. first name + jie/mei
Yun Jie
Elder Sister Yun

IV. Conclusion

Translation of names and proper addressing are of paramount importance in intercultural communication. To a great extent, they are the precondition for smooth intercultural communication. As language learners, it poses on lots of requirements for us to grasp the gist of the translation of names and proper addressing means. Only when we are aware of the differences between two cultures can we carry on intercultural communication smooth.

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Xueqing Wang was born in Zhenjiang, China in 1980. She received her M.A. degree in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics, Guangxi Normal University, China in 2009.

She is currently a lecturer in Department of Fundamental Course, Zhenjiang Watercraft College of PLA, Zhenjiang, China. Her research interests include Intercultural communication; Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching.

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Idiom Taxonomies and Idiom Comprehension: Implications for English Teachers

Noorolhoda Saberian
Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch, Iran
Email: hodasaberian@yahoo.com

Zahra Fotovatnia
Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch, Iran
Email: Z_fotovatnia@phu.iaun.ac.ir

***Abstract*—Idioms are an important part of a language, as they are used to express ideas in a more concise and effective way. Idioms have a considerable role in a foreign language as in the mother tongue. Therefore, their learning and teaching in L2 are worthy of attention and research. This paper intends to define idioms, introduce their different taxonomies, discuss L2 idiom processing and comprehension, and use the information to endow English teachers with some pedagogical implications.**

***Index Terms*—idiom taxonomies, idiom comprehension, literal and figurative meaning, opaque and transparent idioms**

I. Introduction

Idioms are an important part of any language and may be said to be an indicator of one's fluency in that language (McDevitt, 1993). Cowie, Mackin, and McCaig (1983), in the general introduction to their groundbreaking work *Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms*, consider the accurate and appropriate use of idioms as one distinguishing mark of the native command of the language and a reliable measure of the proficiency of foreign learners. There are so common that ignoring them will cause learner numerous problems. Foreign language learners learn not only the grammatical structures and vocabulary of the target language, but the idioms as well to integrate into the culture of the foreign language. Dixon (1994) believes that idioms are essential to successful communication, whether in listening, speaking, reading, or writing. Therefore, there are many reasons why one would think that teaching idioms to L2 learners is a good idea. Over the last few decades, linguists and psycholinguists have developed a number of hypotheses to describe the processing, and comprehension of idioms. Presently, there seems to be no agreed upon model or theory. A better understanding of the way in which idioms are processed and comprehend by L2 learners could lead to more effective ways of teaching them to L2 learners.

II. Definitions of Idiom

Several criteria have been suggested in the literature to define idioms. The term "idiom" has been used to encompass a wide variety of different types of multi-word units (MWUs). MWUs are vocabulary items which consist of a sequence of two or more words. These words form a meaningful and inseparable unit. Moon (1997) in her description of idioms, argues that the term "idiom" occurs in the literature with a variety of different meanings. She uses the term in the narrow sense to refer to MWUs which are not the sum of their parts: their meaning cannot be retrieved from the individual meanings of the component words. She describes idioms as high in non-compositionality, infrequent in terms of institutionalization (the degree to which a MWU is conventionalized in the language), and often held to be relatively frozen in terms of fixedness. Similarly, Grant and Bauer (2004) believe that the term MWU encompasses both idioms and open and restricted collocations, but excludes phrasal verbs. Open collocations are the loosest kind of MWU and "core idioms" are the most restricted. Furthermore, some idiomatic strings have both a literal and a non-literal meaning; therefore, contextual clues may be necessary to distinguish whether the MWU has a literal or idiomatic interpretation. Clearly, many different forms of MWUs exist yet there is no generally agreed set of definitions in use.According to the idiom widely-held definition, it is a common form of expression whose meaning of the whole is not determinable given the meanings of its individual constituents. McCarthy and O'Dell (2002) define an idiom as a fixed expression whose meaning is not immediately obvious from looking at the individual words in the idiom. Definitions such as these are abundant; however, they all agree on two common characteristics: (a) idioms have a fixed word order, which implies that they are socially accepted expressions, and (b) it is impossible to guess the meaning from the individual words that make up an idiom. A more practical definition of idioms applicable to language learning is that idioms are "multi-word unites which have to be learned as a whole, along with associated sociolinguistic, cultural and pragmatic rules of use" (Alexander, 1987, p. 178).

III. Different Taxonomies of Idioms

In previous studies, idioms have been classified in a variety of ways by different researchers based on their semantic, syntax, and function (Grant & Bauer, 2004). This study, however, describes taxonomies of Nunberg (1978), Cacciari and Glucksberg (1991) and yoshikawa (2008) which seem to be more comprehensive.

A. Nunberg's Taxonomy

Based on Nunberg's taxonomy (1978) semantic taxonomies have been posited to describe how idioms differ in their compositionality, and how these differences may have implications for process model of idiom comprehension (Titone & Connine, 1999). Nunberg (1978) proposed a typology for characterizing how literal meanings of idiom components contribute (or do not contribute) to the overall interpretation of idiomatic phrases.

According to this system, idiomatic expressions may be arranged into three different classes: normally decomposable idioms, abnormally decomposable idioms and semantically nondecomposable idioms. Normally decomposable idioms are expressions in which a part of the idiom is used literally (e.g., *the question* in *pop the question*). Abnormally decomposable idioms are expressions where the referent of an idiom's parts can be identified metaphorically (e.g., *buck* in the idiom *pass the buck*). Finally, semantically nondecomposable idioms fit the traditional definition because the idiom meaning is less likely to be derived compositionally from the words that comprise the string (e.g., *chew the fat*) (Titone & Connine, 1999).

B. Cacciari and Glucksberg's Taxonomy

In taxonomy of idiom compositionality, Cacciari and Glucksberg (1991) classify idioms as opaque, transparent or quasi-metaphorical. Opaque idioms are phrases such as *kick the bucket* in which there is some degrees of semantic constraint on interpretation of the idiom give the meaning of the component words. In contrast, transparent idioms are phrases in which there is a direct mapping of literal word meanings to idiomatic meanings. For example, *spill* in the idiom *spill the beans,* which literally translate *to divulge a secret* directly maps on to the verb *divulge*, and *the beans* directly map a *secret*. Finally, idioms classified as quasi-metaphorical phrases in which the overall literal meaning of the phrases metaphorically maps onto the idiomatic meaning similar to metaphorical expression, these idioms convey their meaning via allusional content (Glucksberg, 1991) that is, they simultaneously refer to an ideal exemplar of a concept and to the contextually determined referent in a particular communicative situation.

C. Yoshikawa's Taxonomy

According to this taxonomy, idioms are classified into five different types: A, B, C1, C2 and D (the last idiom type was added by Saberian, 2011). In this taxonomy, the degree of L1-L2 structural and semantic similarity is taken as the primary criterion in classifying English idioms. An L2 idiom is structurally similar to an L1 idiom if the major content words could be literally translated to L1 and it is semantically similar to an L1 idiom when they share the same central concept, and could be used in the same contexts (pragmatically congruent) (Cedar, 2004). Idiom type A, are English idioms with both structural and semantic similarity to L1 idioms, type B are idioms with "partly" structural similarity and semantic similarity to L1 idioms. On The other hand, idiom type C1, are idioms with structural "similarity" but semantic "dissimilarity" to L1 idioms. Type C2, are idioms with both structural and semantic "dissimilarity" to L1 idioms. While idiom type D, are idioms with structural "dissimilarity" but semantic similarity to L1 idioms. They cannot be translated literally into L1 because literal translation does not make sense in L1, yet their literal translation may give learners clue for guessing the idiomatic meaning.

IV. Different Models of L2 Idiom Processing

The proposals in L2 idiom processing are different in terms of the status they consider for literal and figurative processing accompanying idiom comprehension. Whereas some researchers have maintained that L2 learners comprehend idioms by direct retrieval of their figurative meanings (Nelson, 1992), others have claimed that L2 learners first process idioms literally and only then access their figurative meanings (Liontas, 2002). Matlock and Heredia (2002) have suggested that the role of literal and figurative meanings in the processing of L2 idioms will be determined by the L2 learner's proficiency in the language. Based on this assumption idiom comprehension at early stages of L2 learning consists of three steps. In the first step, an L2 idiomatic expression is translated into L1. Next, the learner accesses the literal meaning of the expression and attempts to make sense of it. Finally, in the third stage, the figurative meaning is accessed. On the other hand, at more advanced stages of L2 learning, the L2 speaker may process figurative expressions in the same manner as a native speaker, without having to access their literal meanings first. In Dual L2 Idiom Representation Model (DIR Model) is assumed that non-decomposable idioms require an idiom entry, whereas decomposable idioms can be represented via constituent entries and can additionally develop an idiom entry (Abel, 2003). In her study, Abel (2003) has compared the judgment of idiom decomposability between native English speakers and German learners of English. The result showed that non-native speakers rate opaque non-decomposable idioms as decomposable and they attributed meaning to individual constituents of opaque idioms, even if this is not correct. She believes that if decomposable idioms have no idiom entry at the lexical level, conceptual representations are accessed during comprehension. Therefore, the twofold claim of dual representation has not only a lexical but also a conceptual level of representation and both constituent and idiom entries co-exist at the lexical level. In another model, Cie'slicka (2006) has proposed that the status of literal and figurative meanings in processing idiomatic expressions will be different for native language speakers and for second language learners. Since L2 learners first become familiar with literal meanings of the second language and after a long time, they encounter their figurative meanings in fixed phrases and since literal meanings are more frequently used than idiomatic ones in an L2 learner's performance, it seems more reasonable to assume that literal meanings have a more salient status than figurative ones in the course of processing idiomatic phrases. In this model, salient meanings can be understood as the meanings, which are activated first and most strongly in the course of language processing in the mental lexicon than those of the less salient meanings. This assumption forms the core of the L2 idiom comprehension model.

V. Research on L2 Idiom Comprehension

Many earlier idiom studies mainly involved native speakers of English (e.g. Titone & Connine, 1994). It was only until recent years that researchers began to pay attention to the learning and processing of L2 idioms. (E.g., Cie ' slicka, 2006; Cooper, 1999; Irujo, 1986; Liontas, 2002). These studies, in general, are concerned with two central issues: the effect of L1 on L2 idiom comprehension and the strategies that learners adopt in comprehending L2 idioms.

Kellerman (1979, 1983) studied the relationship between native language (NL) knowledge and interpretation of the figurative use of target language (TL) expressions. His studies showed that L1 plays a role in L2 idiom processing even though L2 learners are less likely to transfer L1 knowledge when they perceive the meaning as figurative. In fact he considered the of strategy of "transfer" of NL items into TL expressions to be an active learner strategy dependent on the learners' "distance" between the NL and the TL and the markedness of the structure in the L1. These two factors integrated might serve to prevent interference where L1 and L2 are typologically different, and also to prevent facilitation of transfer where L1 and L2 are close. Afterwards, Irujo (1986) investigated whether advanced students of English relied on knowledge of their native Spanish in order to comprehend and produce L2 idioms. She divided English idioms into three types in comparison with Spanish. One type was identical in form and meaning with Spanish equivalents, the second type was similar to Spanish equivalents, and the third type was different from Spanish idioms. The data obtained from this study showed that idioms, which were identical in both L1 and L2, were the easiest to comprehend and produce. While, idioms, which were similar in L1 and L2 presented learners with only somewhat more difficulty, but idioms that were completely different in L1 and L2 proved to be the most difficult for learners to comprehend and produce. She concluded that there was both positive and negative L1 knowledge transfer in the case of same or similar idioms when the learners' first language was close to the second language.

Liontas (2002) examined the effect of context on the comprehension and interpretation of idioms in three different languages (French, German& Spanish). The idioms were selected based on their interlingual similarity. The results revealed that context significantly affected the comprehension of idioms. Context favoured more the comprehension of L2 idioms that were different from L1 than those that were similar or identical to L1, which can reach a high percentage of correct answers even in the no context task.

Yoshikawa (2008) studied the comprehension of English idioms by 175 Japanese college students. They were required to write down the equivalent meanings of 12 English idioms in Japanese. After the data analysis, he classified those idiomatic expressions into 4 groups of A, B, C1 and C2 based on semantic transparency and concluded that the more semantic similarity between the two languages, the more understandable English idiomatic expressions will be.

VI. Teaching Idioms to L2 Learners

Since idioms are figurative expressions that do not mean what they literally state and since they are so frequent in spoken and written discourse, understanding and producing them present L2 learners with a special vocabulary learning problem (cooper, 1999). Therefore, it would appear that for second language learners to become more fluent in the target language, just a good command of grammar and vocabulary is not enough. Idioms reflect the language used daily by the native speakers of the target language. Prodromou (2003) claims that in the past, teachers relied heavily on grammar and dictionaries to help them teach but these were not based on a naturally occurring language. Liontas (2002) argues that idioms should be introduced to learners as early as possible along with other aspects of semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistic, culture and conventions of discourse. He also claims that idioms should not be separated from other aspects of learning a language. In short, idioms should be integrated into the language curriculum right from the start.

In teaching idioms, Lennon (1998) suggests that since idioms are so semantically opaque, they are well suited to a problem-solving approach in teaching, which can exploit learners' innate cognitive drive to make sense out of their environment, therefore, exercises of a problem solving nature can help learners to discover the metaphors in idiomatic expressions. He also claims that comparison with L1 should be encouraged so that learners can become aware of the differences between the metaphors in the target language and their native language. In fact, a cross-linguistic comparison of English and L1 idioms in terms of their conceptual basis is needed when teaching or learning English idioms. Activities, which compare literal and idiomatic meanings of idioms, will provide a link from the literal words to the non-literal meaning. In addition, as suggested by Charteris-Black (2002), learners should "be made aware of the connotations of figurative units in the target language and advised to avoid paraphrasing L2 figurative units with translations from L1 figurative units that ignore these connotations" (p.128). Furthermore, based on Yoshikawa's taxonomy (2008) and Saberian's findings (2011), in L2 instruction, differential attention should be paid to different types of idioms, instead of treating all the idioms in the same way. For example, for L2 idioms that have high transparency for transmitting the true meaning and which have L1 equivalents (idiom type A), comprehension will no longer be a problem and do not require a teaching measure. For L2 idioms which have moderate transparency and partial translation equivalent in L1 (idiom types B &D), L2 teachers have to provide more teaching measures. For L2 idioms that have false transparency and literal translations, make sense in L1 but denote a different meaning other than the target English idioms (idiom type C1), explicit teaching measure in English class is strongly required. Finally, for L2 idioms which have high opacity and cannot be translated literally into L1 (idiom type C2), teaching measures are not urgently needed. However, in speaking, misunderstanding can be avoided by negotiation between speakers but if English teachers want to avoid interruption and delay in conveying the meaning, they should teach the true meaning of these kinds of idiomatic expressions too.

VII. Conclusion

A quick examination of the second language acquisition literature on idioms reveals an ongoing debate over the way in which idioms are defined and categorized. The fact that a variety of definitions exists illustrates the lack of precise definition of the term ''idiom''. This paper attempted to clarify the issue of teaching idioms to second language learners through an overview of recent idiom taxonomies and theories in idiom comprehension. Clearly, L2 learners know that idioms are an important feature of the target language and want to learn them. This desire alone supports a strong position for teaching idioms in the L2 classroom. Furthermore, it seems that L2 learners, whose goal is to achieve a near-native mastery of the target language, will be unable to avoid learning at least a few idioms. As a result, by raising teachers' awareness of different idiom taxonomies and effect of structural and semantic similarity/dissimilarity between L1 and L2 idioms on comprehension of L2 idioms, they may alter the way they plan and execute their lessons more effectively and successfully.

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Noorolhoda Saberian received her M.A in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch. Her areas of interest are psycholinguistics, research methodologies, syllabus design and second language acquisition.

Zahra Fotovatnia has a Ph. D in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch. She is an assistant professor at the English department of Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch. She has presented and published papers in international conferences and journals.

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Research on Decreasing Interest in Mandarin Studies in Mainland China

Huiqiang Zheng
Xiamen University, China
Email: huiqiangz@gmail.com

***Abstract*—This paper is aiming at exploring possible reasons for decreasing interest in Mandarin studies for high school students. We summarize characteristics of high school students from three perspectives: observation, memory, thinking ability. According to some report, interest in Mandarin studies at Longxian High School is waning in recent years. In this paper, we find the reasons for the decreasing interest in Mandarin are as follows: negative emotion and deficient knowledge of teachers, increasing gap between teachers and students caused by inadequate communication. In reading classes, problems lie in traditional cramming way of teaching, exam-oriented and overemphasis on scores, and monotonous way of class organization. To solve these problems, we provide suggestions on strategies of organizing Chinese classes using performing and competition ways. In writing class, topics are too far away from students' daily lives, and exams are overemphasized too. Positive feedbacks from teachers are inadequate to maintain the situational interest of students. Recommendations are proposed on preparation before class, timely positive feedbacks in the essay, and adjustment in evaluation ways.**

***Index Terms*—declination of interest, situational interest, instructing method, class organization**

According to the survey at Longxian High School, average academic scores for Mandarin studies are declining sharply in recent years. More and more students cannot perform well in Chinese subject in College Entrance Exams. Based on the investigation in Longxian High School, which is located in the northwestern part of Mainland China, we find that students' performances in Chinese classes are far from satisfaction and the existing problems in Chinese classes are pertinent to the waning interest. The paper is based on the assumption that interest would positively promote learning. After observing Chinese classes for half a year and interviewing with local students, we provide practical suggestions to solve problems in reading and writing. According to some previous research, high school students are being in a special stage, which is characterized by the following features comparing with other stages.

Characteristics in observing ability: Previous research (Zhang, 1999) shows that high school students are in a stage of independent thinking. One of the characteristics of observation ability is that high school students are having definite purpose in observation with increased duration. Secondly; observation ability is developed into a stage with enhanced precision in details and accurate judgments in essence. Thirdly, high school students possess better generality and relatively mature minds.

Characteristics in memory: Memories of high school students are reaching a peak in the perspectives of conscious memory and comprehensive memory. Although the amount of rote memory is not as good as middle school students, the quality and quantity of memory in general meaning are two times of middle school students, and four times of elementary school children (Guo, 2001).

Characteristics in thinking: Senior students are mature both physically and mentally, and their thinking modes are changed from the experienced to theoretical ones. Logical thinking and critical thinking are developed in full bloom. Transference and creativity are enhanced at the same time. High school students are adults-to–be and sometimes are one-sided and easily frustrated.

As mentioned above, instructing methods should be designed adapting to the characteristics of high school students. Tasks should be challenging enough to raise the interest and curiosity of students.

I. Research on the Reasons for Decreasing Interest of Mandarin Studies

A. Problems of Teachers

Negative emotion of teachers: Emotion of teachers will influence the students and the atmosphere in the class. Negative one will worsen the boring class. Prejudice toward good students and overemphasis on scores will also have bad effect on sensitive students.

Deficiency in knowledge: Some of the teachers are not knowledgeable enough to comprehend Chinese language with some other disciplines such as history, politics, culture, etc. to raise the interest of students. Others are unfamiliar with new facilities and technologies which are connected to update resources.

Lack of communication and interaction: Without passionate and active emotion to influence students, teachers arrange the class in a predesigned way and in strict conformity to guidelines. These teachers ignore the characteristics of high school students and act improperly by regulating them. The students are not stirred and the interest of learning is damaged. Another result caused by lacking communication is the increasing gaps between students and teachers. According to the survey, one of the qualities of a popular teacher is considerate, which means the teacher should be easy to communicate with and sometimes can be friends of the students.

B. Problems in Reading Classes

Traditional cramming way of instruction. In this method, the final goal of teaching is the only specific answer instead of process of thinking and way of solving problems. At Longxian High school, the survey indicates that the most serious problem in Chinese teaching is the method of cramming. The primary reason is the old concept in curriculum. It is common at Longxian High school that the teacher is instructing without any interaction with students. The task of teachers is offering correct answers to questions without detailed explanation, and students are only expected to memorize the answers in notes. They are inhibited from active and critical thinking, so teachers are actually becoming the center of the class. The class is arranged in stiff model and taught in one way without adjusting to the different levels of students. The thinking ability is not enhanced and neither the literature proficiency in the learning process. As time goes by, the learning interest of students is decreasing and one third of the students in the survey admit that they are always distracted from class. Half of the students indicate the current Chinese course is boring and spiritless. On the other hand, 70% of the respondents are willing to participate in the class activities. Half of the students show preference to the class in which they can probe the problems by themselves through activities. Nearly one third of the students indicate the preference to group discussion and cooperation with classmates. High school students are adults who are independent thinkers and have strong self-consciousness, so they refused to be a recorder of the teachers' ideas.

Frequent exams and overemphasis on scores. As a result, Chinese classes become exam-oriented and classes are arranged under the guide of exams, putting aside the thinking ability and the language proficiency. On the other hand, students are frustrated by a series of informal exams, which are not reflecting their actual abilities in reading and writing. The goal of Chinese Class in high school should be measured in three dimensions, knowledge & skills, process & methods, emotion, attitude & values. Too much emphasis on the final exam results leads to ignorance of the learning process, does no good to the language skills, and has bad influence on the passion and interest in Chinese studies.

Monotonous organization and dull teaching methods. Some of the teachers lead the class in a boring and impassionate way. As a result, inspiration of students is inactive and creativity is inhibited. Some of the teachers are inflexible and stick to one single way in teaching or limited themselves to teaching materials and reference books. Students are easily losing their interest when they can only learn to summarize reading materials in a duplicated way without making progress in writing and critical thinking. 62.3% of the respondents in the survey of Longxian High School attribute boring Chinese studies to monotonous teaching way. Classes are organized in dreary methods, from explaining new vocabulary to paragraph analysis, from inside meaning of one sentence to the summery of the whole paragraph. Teachers are tired of dreary instructing, while students are tired of the fixed way of learning. This kind of class is not interesting at all, not to mention inspiring and exciting students. However, some of the experienced teachers are adopting different methods in instructing, and it is rare that they can adjust and design according to different students and arrange the class in a delightful way.

In addition, reading materials especially texts written in ancient Chinese, according to the students, are the most difficult. 73.8% of the respondents in Longxian High School indicate negative attitude towards ancient Chinese materials. The requirements of reciting texts worsen the situation and result in the declining interest in Chinese learning.

Solutions: Lead the class in a flexible and diverse way. Chinese class are criticized as old topics and organized in hackneyed way without any novel elements. Admittedly, Chinese classes are not updating year after year unlike what scientific subjects do. The old mode in instructing Chinese classes should be changed adapting to new situations. Creative and suitable ways are encouraged. Firstly, performing way in drama unit is a good way to increase interest. During the time of preparation, students are collecting background information, try to understand the content and understand different characters in a drama. In addition, students are pushed to learn the subject by themselves.

Secondly, competition can be introduced in proper time. Teachers are responsible for the detailed grading criterion and divide the students into different groups.

Thirdly, story retelling can be implemented and combined with oral composition. For example, some texts written in ancient Chinese which are descriptive can be organized in this way.

C. Problems in Writing Class

Writing has been an important and difficult part of language proficiency in the stage of high school. Students are sick of writing articles in class.

The key reason why students are afraid of writing is that they are not confident in using the language, especially how to express themselves accurately and polish drab language. The improvement of writing is a long process which requires massive reading and long-term accumulation. It is a long process when students refine their taste, appreciate beautiful expressions and learn how to use them. Most of the respondents at Longxian High School do not form good habits of keeping diaries. Only one fifth of the students admit that they often keep diaries and jottings. Others feel blank when they are asked to write in class because of careless observation in life and no accumulation of essays.

Writing classes were exam-oriented too. A lot of restrictions are set on styles or contents, even the number of words in exams prevent students from putting imagination into full play. What students do in the exam is trying their best to guess the original intention of the topic and write as required, namely expository writing, argumentative writing or narrative paragraphs in a prosaic way. Teachers are putting overlade emphasis on exams, neglecting good inspiration in the casual essays.

The situational interest (Hidi, 1988 & Kappy, 1989) which is defined as transitory state of the focused attention and the immediate feelings triggered by the situation, cannot be maintained (Mitchell, 1993) and transformed into individual interests (Hidi,2001) for the lack of encouragement and feedback. Most teachers only grade the composition rather than writing positive feedbacks, which frustrate students with low scores. Feedbacks from teachers play an important role in the transformation of long-term interest, which is called the evocative emotional reactions (Schraw, Flowerday & Lehman, 2001).

Topics in exams are too far away from students' lives. In fact, prose is the favorite style for students at Longxian High School due to its beautiful language and fresh imaginative way of writing. Thus, students are actually not afraid of free writing, but they always fail to write the composition assigned by teachers. In a loose and comfortable atmosphere, students take delighted in choosing topics and writing in their own style. In a word, how to arouse the interest of students is the most important issue in the writing instruction.

Solution: In the first place, sufficient preparation before writing class. Sufficient preparation can be done in different ways and adjusted at times, such as discussion in groups, activities out of class, and oral practice. It can also be reading. Combination of reading and writing is beneficial for students to improve the writing ability. Reading relative materials and background information is proved to help increase the engagement (Mitchell, 1993, Schraw & Stephen Lehman 2001) and encourage unconfident students to make an early start. As a result, writing after reading is a good way to maintain the interest of Chinese studies. On the other hand, discussion in class will comfort the students who are nervous to strengthen their sense of belonging so as to maintain the interest of studies (David, 1999).

In addition, positive feedback and timely encouragement are crucial for students in maintaining the interest even for a little progress or sparkles. Interest of learning needs to be intrigued and then maintained. Positive feedbacks from teachers are one of the ways to encourage students to dig out their potential and strengthen their sense of self-efficiency.

Finally, change of evaluation way is required. Integration of self-evaluation and group assessment will arouse the enthusiasm of students. Students are beneficial in discussion through learning from partner.

II. SUMMARY

Considering all of the problems in reading and writing classes we have found, teachers have huge potential to further improve their teaching skills, which means they can do much to increase the interest of students in Chinese studies by improving the instructing methods or diversifying the organization of class. High school students are in a special stage with characteristics in observation, memory, and thinking which we can take full advantage of to maintain the situational interest or change it into personal interest.

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Huiqiang Zheng was born in Quanzhou, China in 1983. She is a Ph.D. candidate now in Chinese Department in Xiamen University. Her research interests are Language education, Culture Communication, Contrastive Linguistics, and Educational Psychology.

She was a full time lecturer teaching Chinese I/II and Chinese Culture in the University of Texas Pan-America from 2008 to 2009. She was part-time lecturer in Xiamen University in summer of 2004, 2005, 2007, spring of 2010.

Ms. Zheng is a member of the International Society for Chinese Language Teaching.

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Teaching English through Critical Pedagogy: Problems and Attitudes

Elmira Noroozisiam
Shiraz University, Iran
Email: elmira_noroozi_siam@yahoo.com

Seyyed Mohammad Ali Soozandehfar
Shiraz University, Iran
Email: soozandehfar@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—Critical pedagogy is an issue which deserves a lot of attention from language teachers. This paper presents a qualitative study which investigates the attitudes and perceptions of language teachers towards teaching English through applying features of critical pedagogy. The study has been conducted in a small scale with about 10 language teachers from 3 popular institutes in Ardebil, Iran. The research was done through observation and semi-structured interview. We came up with positive attitudes but for some reasons most teachers tend not to apply the features of critical pedagogy.**

***Index Terms*—critical pedagogy, teaching English, teaching critically, teaching English**

I. Introduction

Critical pedagogy began its life in the works, thinking and pedagogic practice of Antonio Gramsci along with the works of key thinkers from the Frankfurt School, but in reality it became wholly recognized in the seminal writings of Paulo Freire, the Father of critical pedagogy, especially with work of Pedagogy of the Oppressed (1972). Ira Shor (cited in Pennycook, 1999) nicely characterizes critical pedagogy as:

Habits of thought, reading, writing, and speaking which go beneath surface meaning, first impression, dominant myths, official pronouncements, traditional clichés, received wisdom, and mere opinions, to understand the deep meaning, root causes, social context, ideology and personal circumstances of any action, event, object, process, organization, experience, text, subject matter, policy, mass media or discourse (p. 129).

It reads as being after kind of commitment to social transformation. Transformation of what's so far accepted as unquestionable truth. But to achieve such an end, individuals of the society need to become critical and empowered enough to make their voices loud enough in order to be heard. Critical pedagogy criticizes entanglement of individuals in every-day phenomena without ever questioning it.

Individual cognitive development ⟷ Collective social transformation

Along with this line of thought, continuous problematization of the common sense is a great help. Not to mention educationalists do not aim at going to the extent of getting radical rather than critical. When social transformation comes to focus, education proves to be a political issue in the need of being dealt politically. This kind of system brings everything including curriculum, materials, teachers, and learners under its influence. Critical pedagogy through critical thinking looks to create a healthy non-alienating classroom-social relationship with no dominant policy overhanging in the minds of individuals. That is, pedagogy needs to be domesticated. Critical theorists highly criticize a one-model-fits-all look toward education. Critical pedagogy, on the whole, rejects a "blanket approach". Looking at education through *their* glasses, we can see that individuals with different identities and voices are all to be appreciated, all to be discussed dialogically and all to be developed to the point of finding a place in the outside society. Critical theorists believe that adult literacy programs should not be confined to teaching specific literacy skills but rather should contextualize instruction within a framework of social activism and societal transformation. In such a democratic setting, the learners are able to attain a power to analyze their own place in the society critically using their literacy skills.

II. Literature Review

For all the above-mentioned to be appropriately fulfilled, individuals need to be intellectually developed and according to Vygotsky's (1978) theory of social construction which takes the view that an individual's intellectual development results from social interactions within specific cultural contexts. This kind of prerequisite community for development can be created in the classroom which is already a part of society if treated properly. Learners need to be active participants in the process of their own learning. Dewey (1933) theorized that only students who were actively involved in their learning could become informed participants in a democracy. He believed that rote learning contributed to the passive acceptance of one's place in society, whereas learning through problem-solving and practical application would lead students to take a more active role in determining their experiences and their positions within society.

In traditional classes, the teacher is the agent of knowledge transfer and students are knowledge consumers. But in the new approach, the teacher is the agent of change and sets the right condition for the exchange of ideas, as a result, they all learn together, they all teach each other. Freire (2002) believes in a more fluid relationship between teachers and students, so that learning goes both ways; teachers are learners and learners are teachers (cited in Giroux, 2004). Taking this, classes are not expected to reflect “banking” sensibility. Akbari (2008) rightly defines critical pedagogy as "connecting word to world", but for this connection to be established, the marginalized learners (those felt to be in need of getting conscious) must learn how to tackle with their world problems. Freire and Macedo (cited in Lin, 1999) believe that marginalized learners must learn to "read the world" before they "read the word". In other words, students must come to an understanding of the cultural, political, and social practices that constitute their world and their reality before they can begin to make sense of the written words that describe that reality. As it can be seen, the approach is against what's going on traditionally. Barrera (cited in Pennycook, 1999) uses the concept of "culturalectomy" to refer to the processes of exclusion of the culture and non-school lives of the students from what happens in school. In such setting, the only thing that's appreciated is to maximize academic outcomes but in no way to nurture socially intellectual individuals.

Critical pedagogy attempts to act through post-modern discourse. And as Giroux (2004) claims, it is through these discourses that it tries to problematize the modernity's universal project of citizenship, and its narrow understanding of domination; the kind of domination that aims at "disempowerment". So in addition to bringing about changes in looks, some deconstruction and reconstruction of long-accepted discourses and ideas should be brought about. In other words, a critical kind of pedagogy rejects being overwhelmed by market discourses, identities, practices and voices; that is, in order to be critical, one should consciously reject totalizing certainties. This way, critical pedagogy promises democratization (to borrow the word from Giroux, 2004). As Giroux (2004) states:

Educators need to develop a language of possibility for both raising critical questions about the aim of schooling and the purpose and meaning of what and how educators teach… In doing so pedagogy draws attention to engaging classroom practice as a moral and political consideration animated by a fierce sense of commitment to provide the conditions that enable students to become critical agents capable of linking knowledge to social responsibility, and learning to democratic social change (p. 41).

Critical pedagogy encourages students to respond to text not as consumers but as active and conscious members of society.

What language has to do with all this?

Language is the thing that is quite acceptably ideological in one way or another. Language can be a best tool to empower the learners. They can have a desirable language experience without ever having their real identities hurt. Such a language classroom favorably goes beyond linguistic knowledge. Things are handed on to the learners to be negotiated and challenged. Language is pragmatically dealt with in an ideal sociocultural atmosphere. So language is not just a tool for communication. It's a good approach that makes the learners engage in a fluid relationship between society and texts. As it was mentioned at the very beginning many studies has attempted to bring critical pedagogy into language classes. By presenting dependable evidence on its working influence in language learning Thinsain (2008) in his semester-long self-study with his students came to a belief that kind of "compromisation" should be exercised in classes. He concludes that in a language class the dominant issue should not be put aside in its totality; rather, the marginalized issues should be worked on as an alternative in order to be given a voice in turn. He sees the tension, as a result of opposing issues in the class or as a stimulator of learner development in the class. Learners' discomfort works to their own good and triggers their development. He states that total alienation of learners from mainstream would obviously do disservice to them. The table below presents the gist of what he came to:

TABLE 1

Banking education's assumed teacher-student relationships (Freire, 2002, p. 73):	His lens:
The teacher teaches and the students are taught;	We should not go to the opposite extreme. Teachers can teach and learn, but teachers cannot teach. Balance must be found.
The teacher knows everything and the students know nothing;	Teachers know more about certain things, but not everything. Freire (2002) also thought "the teachers must be expert and knowledgeable to be a responsible critical-democratic educator (Shor & Pari, 1999, p. 13).
The teacher thinks and the students are thought about;	Who is in charge? Don't students as human beings have the innate ability to think and challenge? (action <-> reaction!)
The teacher talks and the students listen meekly;	This is not true in the real world. No teacher wants to talk too much and the students cannot do so either.
The teacher disciplines and the students are disciplined;	Students at least need self-disciplines; and teachers can help arrange the agreeable mechanism.
The teacher chooses and enforces his choice, and the students comply;	Both parties can contribute. Yet, the goals must be firm, and teachers can have an agenda while students can learn to read the worlds.
The teacher acts and the students have the illusion of acting through the action of the teacher;	This depends on what kind of actions and the given roles and situations.
The teacher chooses the program content, and the students (who were not consulted) adapt to it;	Teachers as authority of knowledge that is not ill-structured need to set up the program. However, flexibility and space can still be embedded and negotiation can exist.
The teacher confuses the authority of knowledge with his or her own professional authority, which she and he sets in opposition to the freedom of the students;	The freedom of the students can be constrained by many factors, linguistic needs, background experiences, etc. and the teachers usually can help to provide guidance.
The teacher is the Subject of the learning process, while the pupils are mere objects.	Where is the line? How far can the students be in taking care of their learning? The ground may vary in different cultures, fields of study and profession.
Learners are regarded as adaptable, manageable beings.	Do we not want the students to be adaptable and manageable

On a study conducted in Venezuela on critical pedagogy and EFL, as it is stated in Carmen's (2001) paper, Brutt-Griffler & Samimy used EFL learners' reflection through discussion and diary writing in order to empower learners through critical praxis generated from within. They emphasize ongoing process of self-reflection and a "construction of subjectivity". There are many other researchers presenting models of teaching through consciousness-raising activities in the language classroom. Morgan (2002) uses Quebec Referendum as a generative theme to involve the learners in a meaningful activity in order for them to master the modals; so grammar is taught critically by employing some hot issues. This way, such community-based ESL programs become different from generic ESL programs. Students own their learning and generate the knowledge and extend it from classroom to community and they are said to gain "double consciousness"; themselves as learners and themselves as creators of learning. The point is that the teachers and students all participate in co-constructing the class through a process of negotiation. The current study sets out to shed more light on the issue of critical pedagogy in a language class.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Ten language M.A. language teachers were randomly chosen from three popular language institutes in Ardebil, Iran. They were all interested in the topic and quite too eager to participate in the study.

B. Instruments

The study was conducted through observation and a semi-structured interview. Interview questions were aimed at investigating the extent to which language learners feel empowered or disempowered by the language they're getting to know about and to what extant features of critical pedagogy are employed by the teachers objectively and these teachers define their role as a teacher, then how they define the teacher-learner relationship. I also asked them questions to get on their perceptions on critical pedagogy and ELT. The commonly used activities and techniques exercised in the class were explored through interview and observation.

IV. RESULTS

After the data collection, the responses were coded. Some of their responses regarding their role as a teacher were as the following:

1. *Role as a guide:* Introducing other materials; showing them how the learning process can be facilitated; telling them about their own learning experiences.
2. *Role as a perfect model of language:* Students mostly try to imitate their teachers in all aspects and rely on their teachers for their problems so a teacher should serve as a perfect model.
3. *Role as a provider of the knowledge*: students expect their teacher to provide them with anything they wish to know.
4. *Role as an activator of learning process:* the teacher acts as a trigger so the learners can act upon themselves.

Most of the teachers (6 out of 10) defined their role as a guide and provider of the knowledge. Of course, in their daily work, teachers are encouraged to use other people's ideas as ready-made. They actually import the ideas instead of creating their own ideas of specific and local significance. In the account of the teacher-student relationship they mostly described themselves as being in authority for different reasons as to prevent chaos. They didn't seem to appreciate the learners' autonomy in terms of choosing issues and matters to be discussed, activities to be done and making changes to the materials. All the teachers seemed not to associate critical pedagogy with their own teaching but as they were describing the activities they practice in the class, they unawaringly seemed to work on activities that suit the interests of the learners and because they were locally debated activities they obviously worked toward the learners ' consciousness-raising. I have listed some of those activities below:

1. Setting up discussions on hot, current issues of their own country, Iran, and working on problem-solving activities
2. Writing activities with the topics suited to the area of interest of the learners
3. Diary writing which made kind of reflective writing; the kind which combines experience and knowledge

These activities, if wheeled correctly, can work toward the learners critically conscious as they are all problem-oriented and not unidimensional. Although the attitudes of all the teachers toward critical pedagogy were positive, they claimed not to be expert enough to pronounce on such issue. I have brought some of their quotes below:

"I cannot deviate too much from the material at hand. This is not suggested by policy of institutes and the syllabus is highly structured and time-limited".

"We try to make them think creatively and generatively but cannot ensure social transformation later on by these individuals".

"Those who are instrumentally motivated don't care about such things and those who are integratively motivated enjoy entanglement with new culture other than their own".

"My students always enjoy discussing relevant issues in the second language because they have something to utter and at the very beginning conceptualization does not pose them a difficulty".

"Tackling with problem-solving issues especially of relevant type makes the learners' mind so generative and creative in their writings and this is quite evident when it is compared with those of irrelevant type"

V. Discussion & Conclusion

The result of the interview and our observations so clearly represented a sample of what's actually going on in almost all institutes in Iran. The language classes are just the practice of whatever the theories including the dominant ones impose. The easiest way to get on with the classroom is to stick to whatever the syllabus suggests. It's obviously a type of being after "one-model-fits-all" approach. As Kachru (1992) states, in most of the outer circle the focus of ELT is on applied linguistics i.e. theoretical knowledge about syntax, phonology, and lexicon; and we all agree as far as studies reveal. I personally agree that language is a very powerful tool and we actually underestimate its power if we only learn it for the sake of being a competent speaker, reader or whatever. Pennycook (1994, 1998) rightly questions the apolitical neutrality of ELT. So language teachers should go beyond words and texts. The learners should own their learning and question the discourse, ideas, words and their implications. Language is a good mind activator. It is an appropriate tool to trigger the mind to start thinking critically. Sometimes what language classes lack is creativity, so to fill this gap, individuals as social entities need to be able to connect the class to their community and as a result the activate their mind to solve problems they encounter, and work for the transformation of some kind; this is simply means "going beyond words". Taken three different models of class activities, according what studies including mine indicate, language classes mostly follow "transmission model" and at the best "generative model".

What about "transformative model"?

The question in the first place should be directed to policy-makers, material developers, curriculum designers, and then teachers. That's true that some programs may lack the necessary resources to update curricula or materials to better match learners' needs, interests and experiences. Sometimes it is better to look at the programs in terms of the degree to which they reflect critical pedagogy rather than labeling them as critical or non-critical. The four tables in the appendix show the different degrees of critical pedagogy you may refer to for more information. As a concluding point, let's focus on the question below:

Is English considered a vehicle of cross-cultural understanding or a symbol of dominance?

The idea of universal transfer of English discursive and pedagogical norms is on its way of total destruction. Cultures are on the way of gaining their true identity and the people of those cultures are voicing those identities; and language is no exception as a tool to achieve the goal. A different language as EFL/ESL is used to voice the identity differently.

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Elmira Noroozisiam got her BA in English Language Translation from Ardebil University. She received her MA in TEFL from Shiraz University. Now, she is a Ph.D. Candidate in TEFL.

Seyyed Mohammad Ali Soozandehfar got his BA in English Language and Literature from Shiraz University. He received his MA in TEFL from Shiraz University. Now, he is a Ph.D. Candidate in TEFL.

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The Deconstructive Reading on *Moll Flanders*

Li Wang
School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China
Email: Wanglily523@163.com

***Abstract*—As the first female protagonist in Daniel Defoe's novels with first-person narrators, Moll Flanders is a highly ambiguous, problematic character. Emerging into the man-dominated, money-orientated society as an orphan from the lowest social class, she courageously defies her birth and eventually manages to achieve the self-designated identity of a gentlewoman. Centering on Moll's search for personal identity, which is undergone in extreme circumstances, this thesis discusses her three processes, which actually forms a circle to obtain gentlewoman-ship. From the territorialization of gentlewoman-ship at the beginning to the de-territorialization of gentlewoman-ship to the re-territorialization of gentlewoman-ship in the end, Moll has experienced a progress of subversion, rebellion and re-subversion. Therefore, we can find Defoe's hidden patriarchal discourse in the novel.**

***Index Terms*—*Moll Flanders*, gentlewoman, territorialization, de-territorializationn, re-territorialization**

Among Daniel Defoe's various works, Moll Flanders (1722) is his first novel, also the first one in the history of English literature, whose protagonist is a woman from the lowest social class. Moll the character is especially ambiguous, for she, though defiant and indomitable, is often confused about her own identity and even tends to fall into the muddle of self-deception.

Despite its great popularity upon publication, for a long time Moll Flanders has to find its readers in the lower classes. Respectable readers dismissed it as a secondary novel and found its vulgarity and profanity outrageously distasteful. Critics of Charles Lamb, William Hazlitt and twentieth-century literary criticism witnessed a drastic rise in the critical appreciation of Moll Flanders, such as Ian Watt, James Joyce, and Virginia Woolf.

I propose to approach Moll the character from her pursuit of identity, because it is undertaken in extreme circumstances and later it becomes the shaping force in her life-long struggle for survival. Through this line and Moll the character, I will prove Defoe's patriarchal discourse in this novel and show Moll in fact is an outsider and marginalized woman in the patriarchal society whether be a wife or whore or be a thief.

I. Territorialization of Gentlewoman

A. *Moll's Genteel Education*

Moll is the object of sexual code that is designated by the dominant society at the beginning of the novel. Moll has received the genteel education from the old woman as well as some leisured middle-class gentlewomen in Colchester since her early childhood. Compared with other orphans, Moll is probably a lucky dog, for she has been left in the care of a pious, sympathetic nurse, who brings her up " as Mannerly and as Genteelly" as if she has been " at the Dancing school", and later she has been patronized generously by some gentlewoman of the leisured middle-class. Thanks to the education stolen in the Colchester household, Moll is equipped with many wholesome talents for a gentlewoman who can be accepted by men and the dominant society: music, dancing, French, writing and agreeable speech. Defoe once advocated establishing colleges for women in order to train good women for society. All properties Moll possessed are almost Defoe's requirements for an "ideal woman". We have to admit that it is a proper and necessary thing to educate women but it will be a repressive one if the purpose of educating women is to breed them up to be suitable and serviceable. In addition, Defoe also mentioned, "the ladies might have all the freedom in the world within their own walls and yet no intriguing, no indecencies, nor scandalous affairs happen; and in order to this, the following customs and laws should be observed in the colleges…"According to such definition of such cultural codes, women is no more than the subsidiary of men. Furthermore, worries about intriguing scandalous affairs prove that the dominant society regards women "the other" as burden or even threatening of men "the self's". Only under the territorialization of laws and walls can men educate women better without changing their position in the society as "the other". Therefore all Moll's properties are the results of territorialization of the cultural codes of society which is dominated by men.

B. *Moll's First Three Marriages*

The territorialization of the cultural codes of dominant society is also represented by men's commercialization to women. Such right of commercialization is controlled by men. Moll, be a wife or whore, is commercialized or self-commercialized in order to satisfy men's demands. During this period, Moll is a typical woman designated by dominant society, genteel and subversive. She is so subversive that she would be even overwhelmed with gratitude by her fortune to be commercialized by men. Moll is surrounded by men "the center and self" at that times and subversive to the territorialization of the cultural codes of dominant society. With the discovery of the truth that her husband in

Virginia in fact is her own brother, Moll decided to return London, thus ending her territorialized journey and beginning her de-territorialized journey.

II. DE-TERRITORIALIZATIONN OF GENTLEWOMAN

A. *Moll's Last Two Marriages*

Moll begins to destroy her former designated position by society and deconstruct the sexual codes. Her relation with men at this period proves her transformation. In the affairs with her Lancashire husband, Moll has erased the difference between men "the self" and women "the other". Moll and her Lancashire husband are the same from the nature and this marriage is a strategy of double deception. In this affairs, men/women regards the other side as "the self/the other" respectively, thus erasing the difference between men "the self" and women "the other". In the affairs with the clerk, Moll destroys the sexual codes and subverts it reversely to serve for herself. She has become the "bad woman" who feminizes men, that is, she has become the "the self" while men "the other". From the beginning of this marriage to the end of it, Moll is in positive and dominant position. From this marriage, Moll got what she wanted to get, that is, the economic security and quite life while clerk got what he wanted to get, that is, Moll-his ideal gentlewoman wife. As a matter of fact, this marriage is a covert commercialization. However, this time Moll is never the objective of it but the subjective of it.

B. *Moll's Thievery Career*

Since this period Moll's masculine property is more and more obvious. We are informed that she has a full range of costume, which would effectively turn her into a widow, a beggar, a well-dressed gentlewoman, a dignified Duchess and even a man. Underneath the various disguises, and surprisingly uninfluenced by her criminal experience, Moll, already a hardened, audacious thief, is characterized by the tendency to identify herself with the gentlewoman she has dreamed of becoming ever since her childhood. An interesting case is her experience of being mistaken for another thief in her affair with a mercer. During the whole process, Moll makes a fine picture of an indignant, innocent gentlewoman who is determined to defend her indignity and reputation. Far from viewing the capture of the poor thief as the ominous prediction of her own fate, she seems to perceive no similarity or affinity between her and that woman. It never occurs to her that all those ill words the journeyman lavishes serve her perfectly well; for, despite the fact she happens not to rob that shop at the specific spatio-temporal point, she is undoubtedly a thief here and elsewhere. She simply enjoys playing the role of a generous, benignant gentlewoman. However, the connotation of gentlewoman now has been changed totally. Moll is not the genteel and fragile gentlewoman who is asked to be able to play music, go dancing, speak French and agreeable speech any longer. She is a typical economic individualism who regards her economic benefit as life's prime want and uses her stolen property of being a gentlewoman as her disguise.

Parallel to Moll's identification, deceiving or self-deceptive, with a gentlewoman is her obvious de-feminization in this period. Though Ian Watt says she is "essentially masculine" in character and action, her female sexuality and genteel education enable her to present herself as a charming feminine figure under the male gaze in the past. Most men intimate with her enjoy her considerateness and carefulness in her tender care of the sick man of Bath. Her first and last husbands never question her wifehood and there is no mention of physical violence or rough disposition on Moll's part. However, her new criminal career marks a significant change and from then on, she becomes more masculine than feminine. Physically, her feminine sexuality has been considerably reduced, and when putting on men's clothes, she is almost indistinguishable from a man, to the extent that even her male fellow never suspects she "was not a Man". Psychologically, the thieving trade reduces Moll to a hardened egoist with no human feelings for others.

Liberated from the horror of going to service or doing housework, she not only earns her bread with her work but also accumulates an enormous sum of money to afford the expensive gentlewoman-ship. If her past identity as a wife or mistress presupposes dependence on the male others, her identity as a thief establishes her female self-dependence and makes Moll her own boss. More important, this disgraceful trade lays a solid economic foundation for her successful enterprise in the New World, without which Moll would never succeed in concluding this story in the capacity of a self-appointed penitential gentlewoman.

Being arrested to Newgate and transported to America with her Lancashire husband, Moll seems to deconstruct her identity of gentlewoman as well as the fixed sexual cultural codes.

III. RE-TERRITORIALIZATION OF GENTLEWOMAN

A. *Moll's Relationship with her Lancashire Husband in America*

Moll's masculine property reaches its climax in the afire with her Lancashire husband in America. Moll's marriage this time is beyond the patriarchal society though it is in the center of it. Moll once admitted that women, whether wife or whore, is men's servant and subversion. So she wants herself to be a pseudo- male or masculine female. Male/female in gender connotation and master/servant in cultural connotation are combined into one person now, thus destroying the designated signification of these two pairs of binary oppositions, erasing their cultural difference and only leaving the literal difference. Men (master) are women (servant); women (servant) are men (master). Moll's relation with her Lancashire husband can be the best evidence to prove this point. Moll not only didn't depend on men's gratitude and bestow but also hold her own right and benefit in this marriage. This masculine woman enjoys the right of controlling money that should belong to men's rights in family and plays the role of bringing bread for the family that also should belong to men's responsibility. Moll, in this marriage, is female (servant) as well as male (master); she represents female sexual codes (wife and the corresponding responsibility) as well as male sexual codes (economic security and master of family life). Furthermore, the harmonious relationship between Moll and her husband in this marriage also deconstructs the sexual difference between men and women.

We remember that before their separation near London, Moll once proposes to Jemy the plan of moving to Virginia, arguing, "a Man of application would presently lay a foundation for a family, and in a few years would raise an estate," but it turns out to be Moll who lays "a foundation for a family" and raises an estate. Jemy, characterized by his gentlemanly indolence and ignorance of plantation knowledge, prefers hunting in the woods while his wife is busy with the labor of managing their plantation. Compared with Jemy, who inherits his gentility but is unable to improve his impoverished gentleman-ship in his own, Moll, the self-made gentlewoman, is more worthy of that gentle title. To a large extent, it is the strong-willed Moll that restores his gentleman-ship both physically and spiritually. Sharing her fortune willingly with her husband, Moll takes special care to buy for him all kinds of luxurious things, such a swigs, swords, a fine saddle, and so on, delighting immensely in making him "appear a very fine Gentleman". Now we have to admit that Moll has reached the highest female independence or authority she has been struggling for in her life. Unlike the disguised gentlewoman who manipulates men for financial means and sacrifices live for expedient marriages, Moll eventually obtains a fixed identity as a self-made, self-reliant gentlewoman whose marriage, far from suggesting subordination to the patriarchal domination, conforms her female authority and capacities.

B. Moll's Re-territorialization of Gentlewoman

However, Moll's return to London in the end of the novel represents not only the ending of all her efforts to deconstruct the sexual and cultural codes but also the returning to the gentlewomen-ship designated by the dominant society at that times. Moll re-territorializes herself in the end of the novel after de-territorializes the sexual cultural codes, that is, she denies her efforts to deconstruct and erase the difference between men "the self" and women "the other" finally and subverts to the former position that designated by the dominant society: women is "the other" while men is "the self".

Distinguishing herself as an industrious tiller, experienced plantation manager and shrewd businesswoman, Moll sufficiently achieves the long-desired economic security. Possessing a flourishing plantation to ensure her economic prosperity, waited on by servants, equipped with enough comfortable things suitable for the gentle class in England, enjoying the company of a gentlemanly husband, Moll is justified in assuming the identity of a gentlewoman with ease.

According to Michael McKeon, in eighteenth-century English society which witnesses the mobility of social categories, the distinction between the gentility and other classes is no longer so strictly clear-cut, and "the traditional, qualitative criteria of honorific status were being definitely infiltrated by the quantitative criteria of socioeconomic class". A marginalized Dissenter who endeavored to integrate himself into society, Defoe attacked on more than one occasion "the idea of gentility residing in the blood" and, I think, ought not to question Moll's gentlewoman ship gained in America. And as further evidence, he gives a positive estimation of her success in the Preface: "Diligence and Application have their due Encouragement, even in the remotest Parts of the Worked, and that no case can be so slow, so despicable, or so empty of prospect, but that an unwearied Industry will go a great way to deliver us from it, will in time raise the meanest Creature to appear again in the Worked, and give him a new Cast for his Life". In her sixties, Moll, "who was Born in Newgate, and during a Life of continued Variety for Threescore Years, besides her Childhood, was Twelve year a Whore, five times a Wife (whereof once to her own Brother) Twelve Year a Thief, Eight Years a Transported Felon in Virginia," is finally given a chance to transform herself into a self-made gentlewoman, not only according to her standard, but also with the high probability of winning dominant society's approval.

Moll's final stay at London represents the ending of her geographical deconstruction, and her final realization of gentlewoman-ship not only according to her standard but also according to the dominant society's standard represents the ending of her psychological deconstruction. All things have been re-territorialized in the end and all Moll's efforts to erase the difference between men and women have been drowned by the great power of the dominant society. By a circle, Moll has come back to the starting point.

By the circle of Moll's pursuit to gentlewoman-ship and Moll's final re-territorialization to the dominant society, we can find Denial Defoe's hidden patriarchal discourse in the novel.

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Li Wang was born in Zibo, China in 1980. She received her M.A. degree in literature from Sichuan International Studies University, China in 2006.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China. Her research interests include British and American literature.

Ms. Wang is a member of the Research Institute of Foreign Language Literature, Qingdao University of Science and Technology.

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The Relationship between the Arrangement of Constituents and Reading Speed

Zahra Jokar
Shiraz University, Iran

Seyyed Mohammad Ali Soozandehfar
Shiraz University, Iran
Email: soozandehfar@yahoo.com

***Abstract*—The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the arrangement of constituents and reading speed. This study answered this question: "does the arrangement of constituent affect reading speed?" The subjects of the study were 30 female EFL graduate students at Isfahan University. Two forms of a passage were used. One form (form A) with breaks between constituents and one intact form (form "I"). These forms were given to two homogenous groups. To achieve two homogenous groups, Oxford Placement Test 1B1 (Allan, 1985) was administered. Finally, the data of Placement test scores was analyzed through Mann-Whitney test. An Independent sample t-test was used to analyze the data of time of reading comprehension of the two groups. The results of t-test proved that there was significant difference (0.03) between the times of reading comprehension of the two groups. The subjects in the group (I) spent less time in accomplishing the test than that in another group. The main finding of the study was that arrangement of the sentences in a passage may affect reading speed. It was preplanned to write a program to design a type of software to record the exact time of the reading speed and answering the multiple-choice questions but because of lack of time, the participants used stop watches of their cell phones to measure spent time.**

***Index Terms*—constituents' arrangement, reading speed, reading, constituent**

I. Introduction

Reading ability is recognized as critical for academic learning. Interest in second language reading research and practice has increased dramatically in the past 15 years. Little attention has been attached to considering the role of constituents' arrangement in speed of reading comprehension. A study by Graf and Torrey (1966) proved that isolated constituents help to comprehend faster. What these researches and findings suggest is that constituents play an important role in reading comprehension speed. This study tries to investigate whether special text arrangement can affect readers' perception speed. Because reading is one of the four skills taught in almost every language, teachers of English may benefit from the results of this study.

II. Literature Review

One of the most important information processing skills is reading comprehension. Many components of reading are unconscious and process of reading comprehension is highly automatic. William James anticipated the contemporary distinction between working and long-term memory, which he called primary and secondary memory, in his landmark book, principles of psychology (James, 1890/1950).

A. Short-term Memory

Short-term memory is the place that new information must remain for a minimum of 20-30 s and after this time, the information will be lost. It is thought that short-term memory is analogous to consciousness and has been described as the "working memory". Psychologists believe that exact wording is stored for a brief period in short-term memory. Clark and Clark (1977) refer to the limited capacity of short-term memory and this part of the brain stores only about seven or so unrelated words at a time (Clark and Clark, 1977).

In an early and highly influential article, The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two,[13] the psychologist George Miller suggested that human short-term memory has a forward memory span of approximately seven items plus or minus two. For example, if the number 833231893 is presented and you are asked to recall it in the same order, individually, you will face difficulty. You can recall them when you divide the numbers into 3-digit numbers (e.g. 833-231-893).

B. Long-term Memory

Alongside working memory, the information stores of long-term memory are also of importance in learning through reading and reading comprehension. Long-term memory in turn effects through its contents and organized structure the ability to understand the applied language and its abstractness as well as pragmatic and other meanings of language. Numminen (2002) found that One major problem with reading comprehension among learners of the Finnish language is thinness of information in long-term memory concerning the studied language. Just & Carpenter (1992) believes that information from the text and nformation retrieved from long term memory must be temporarily kept in memory to be integrated with newly incoming information while further portions of the text are processed. Ericsson and Kintsch (1995) found that the information is stored in the long term memory during reading.

C. Reading Process and Constituent Structure

Phrase structure rules specify the permissible sequences of constituents in a language. The surface structure of a sentence divides up into phrases and sub phrases called constituents. A constituent can be defined as: a group of words that can be replaced by a single word without a change in function and without doing violence to the rest o the sentence" (Clark & Clark 1997 pp.47-48). Hashemi (1988) found that constituents structure of the text make it more difficult or easier to read. Hyona & Pollatsek, (1998); Pollatsek, Hyona, & Bertram (2000) revealed systematic effects of the properties of both the whole words and theirconstituents, with the effects of the first constituentsappearing earlier than those of the whole word or second constituents. McElree (2006) states that sentential constituents (e.g. arguments) should be maximally distinct from one another, so as to avoid interference. McElree (2000) examined what effects interpolated material had on the speed and secondarily the accuracy of processing nonadjacent constituents. No comparable effect was found in the study reported in McElree (2000). McElree (2000) found that the amount of material interpolated between two constituents (e.g., NP and verb) decreased the accuracyof discriminating acceptable from unacceptable relationsbetween the constituents.

D. Reading and Eye Movements

During reading, the visual properties of the text are encoded via a series of eye movements (Rayner, 1998), generally from left-to-right across the line of text. Encoding the visual information during fixations typically lasts about 200–250 ms (though the range is from 50 ms to over 500 ms). The movements of the eyes between the fixations, saccades, typically last 20–30 ms; no new information is obtained during these movements. Indeed, vision is suppressed during saccades (Matin, 1974). On average, the eyes move 7–8 letter spaces (though the range is from a single letter space to over 20 spaces) for readers of English and other alphabetic writing systems; letter spaces, rather than visual angle, are the appropriate measure for indexing how far the eyes move during reading (Morrison and Rayner, 1981). On about 10–15% of the saccades, regressions, readers move their eyes backwards in the text to look at material that has received some prior processing. Readers tend to increase fixations durations and regressions when text difficulty increases.

E. Word Space and Reading Comprehension Speed

The spaces between words in English appear to be important in reading because they serve to visually delimit words in the text and, as a result, appear to aid readers (Pollatsek & Rayner, 1982; Rayner & Pollatsek 1996). Epelboim *et al.* (1994) claim that unspaced text is relatively easy to read. In the Spragins *et al.* (1976) study, reading rate decreased by an average of 48% when the text was unspaced. A similar finding was reported by Morris, Rayner and Pollatsek (1990). Pollatsek & Rayner (1982) and Rayner & Pollatsek (1996) agree that elimination of space informa tion interferes with word identification processes.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

This study was conducted with an overall number of 30 female EFL graduate students at Isfahan University. The participants ranged in age from 25-27.

B. Instruments

To have two groups of learners with different proficiency level, Oxford Placement Test 1B1 which is a standard test including 50 multiple choice items identifying and assessing the learners' level of English Proficiency (Allan, 1985) was administered. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire is taken for granted.In order to conduct a study, the participants were asked to read two forms of a single text. Each text was followed by five multiple-choice questions. The participants used stop watches of their cell phones to record the time spent on reading the passage and answering the multiple-choice questions.

C. Data Collection Procedure

The scoring of Oxford Placement Test was based on the number of items answer correctly by the students. Each correct answer received one point and the total score of the test was 50. After dividing the participants into two groups, they were given two forms of a single text in which they were required to measure total time of the reading and answering multiple-choice questions. One passage was typed out in two forms: Form "A" consisting of non-broken constituents and Form "I" which was kept intact as the original texts. The experiment was of paper and pencil caliber. It was preplanned to use a type of software to record the time of reading speed and answering the multiple-choice questions but because of the lack of time, the participants used stop watches of their cell phone.

D. Data Analysis Procedures

After collection, scores of Oxford Placement Test were entered into SPSS for analysis. To have two homogenous groups, Mann-Whitney test was conducted. Differences between the means of the subjects' reading comprehension time were obtained through the independent sample t-test.

IV. RESULTS

The Subjects of the two groups were homogenous and the passage as well as multiple-choice questions was identical. The only factor that distinguishes the groups was the preplanned constituents at the line shifts.The results of mann-whitney test showd that the significance of difference of Oxford Placement Test scores was .539, so participants of this study did not differ in terms of their placement test scores.They are homogenious in English language proficiency level.The following is the descriptive statistical analysis of Oxford Placement Test scores.

TABLE1:
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PLACEMENT TEST SCORES

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Group 1	15	10.00	40.00	50.00	44.6667	3.28778
Group 2	15	11.00	39.00	50.00	45.3333	3.33095

An Independent sample t-test showed a significant main effect (t=3.64; P <0.05) of changing constituents arrangement on the reading speed (see Table 2).

TABLE 2:
SUMMARY OF MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE READING SPEED OF TWO GROUPS

Text Form	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Significance
Spaced	15	1.66	53.59	0.03
Unspaced	15	1.09	28.83	

* P < 0.05

V. DISCUSSION

The main question was asked in this study was whether arrangement of constituent can affect reading comprehension speed. The results of t-test proved that there is significant difference between times of reading comprehension of the two groups. The subjects in the group (I) spent less time in accomplishing the test than that in another group. The principal finding of this study is that arrangement of constituent is an effective factor in decreasing or decreasing reading comprehension speed. This result indicates, in agreement with Rayner et al.(1996), that reading time is slower when arrangement of the constituents was chaned.Results of this study is not consistent with Epelboim et al. (1994) who claim that text with changed arrangement is relatively easy to read and it is relatively unimportant for guiding eye movements.he study of reading is one of the oldest topics in experimental psychology; and some of the earliest investigators discovered that it was effective to examine role of eye movements during the reading process.Modern technology must be used in order to examine eye movements. Changing physical arrangement of the constituents can affect fixation time as one of the main contributors to the overall reading rate.

VI. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In conclusion, the role of constituent arrangement on reading speed was considered. In particular, it has been argued that changing constituent arrangement can make reading speed faster and easier. Two forms of a passage were used. One form (form A) with breaks between constituents and one intact form (form "I"). These forms were given to two homogenous groups. The participants used stop watches of their cell phones to record the time spent on reading the passage and answering the multiple-choice questions. The results of this study examined that arrangement of the constituents can make a text easier or more difficult and make a reader reads a text faster or slower. It was revealed that the subjects in the group (I) spent less time in accomplishing the test than that in another group. Recent studies have been described to show that unspaced texts and constituent arranegement of the text can affect reading speed. It was also noted that fixation duration varies with both the difficulty of the content and the skill of the reader. It should be noted, though, that lack of modern technology can affect study results.It had been planned to use a suitable software to measure the exact time of the reading but the lack of enogh time led to use of a chronometer The lack of capacity to monitor these eye movements to examine the role they may play in reding speed and process can decrease accuracy of the study data. Finally, the findings in this study will be of pedagogical importance. The issue will be of importance to second language teachers of English to familiarize their students with text structures.

VII. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are several limitations attached to a study of this kind. The restriction on the sample of participants is the principal limitation of this study. The participants were a small group of EFL graduate learners. Because of the lack of time to prepare a type of software to measure the exact time of the reading, as mentioned, a stop watch of cell phone was used to record the time spent on reading the passage and answering the multiple-choice questions.

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Zahra Jokar is a Ph.D candidate in TEFL. He got her BA in English Language Translation and her MA in TEFL from Shiraz University.

Seyyed Mohammad Ali Soozandehfar is a Ph.D candidate in TEFL. He got his BA in English Language and Literature and his MA in TEFL from Shiraz University.

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Dynamic Equivalence: Features and Merits

Yinhua Xiang
School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Jiaotong University, Chongqing, China
Email: xiangyh6@163.com

***Abstract*—Euivalence is an essential requirement of translation and the main task of translation activity is to establish equivalence between the source text and the target text. Such being the case, different principles of translation equivalence have been put forward, of which the principle of dynamic equivalence put forward by Nida is the most familiar to and has the greatest influence on Chinese translation circle. It has its own features and boasts a lot of merits, which will be discussed in this paper.**

***Index Terms*—dynamic equivalence, features, merits**

I. Features of the Principle of Dynamic Equivalence

In *Toward a Science of Translating,* Nida first put forward the principle of dynamic equivalence which he defines as "the relationship between receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptors and the message" (Nida,1964, p.159). Following this principle, he defines D-E (dynamic-equivalence) translation as "the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message" (Nida, 1964, p.166). To discuss the merits of this principle, we must first know about the essential features of this principle and D-E translation.

As Nida himself points out, the essential features of D-E translation consists of the following points:

(1) equivalent, which points toward the source-language message.

(2) natural, which points toward the receptor language

(3) closest, which binds the two orientations together on the basis of the highest degree of approximation (Nida, 1964).

All these points aim at arousing "similar response" between the source text readers and the target text readers.

A. Equivalent

As mentioned above, this aims at reproducing the message of the original text. This is the basic requirement of D-E translation, as is with any other kind of translation. That is say, to produce a D-E translation, the translator must aim primarily at conveying the meaning of the original text, and to do anything else is essentially wrong to his task as a translator, because translation is basically a kind of communication (Nida and Taber, 1982).

B. Natural

A D-E translation is directed primarily toward the similarity of response. To achieve this purpose, the translation must be natural, for it is of great importance to arousing in the target readers a response similar to that of the original readers. To be natural, the equivalent forms should not be "foreign" either in terms of form, or in terms of meaning, which means that the translation should not reveal any signs of its non-native source (Nida, 1975) . Nida stresses that naturalness in a D-E translation must fit these three aspects: (1) the receptor language and culture as a whole, (2) the context of the particular message, (3) the receptor-language audience ((Nida, 1964). He further remarks:

The best translation does not sound like a translation.... [It should not] exhibit in its grammatical and stylistic forms any trace of awkwardness or strangeness.... [It] should studiously avoid 'translationese'-- formal fidelity, with resulting unfaithfulness to the content and the impact of die message (Nida and Taber, 1982).

C. Closest

"Closest" here is of a double nature. On the one hand, it indicates that equivalence in translation can never be absolute identity, because "loss occurs in all forms of communication, whether it involves translation or not" (Bassenet and Lefvere, 1990, p.35). It can only be an approximation, because no two languages are identical, either in the meanings given to corresponding symbols or in the ways in which such symbols are arranged in phrases and sentences. Therefore, the total impact of a translation may be reasonably close to the original, but there can be no identity in detail.

On the other hand, since equivalence in translation is just a kind of approximation, not absolute identity, it naturally results in the possibility to establish equivalence between the source text and the target text on various degrees or in different aspects. However, it is the highest degree that a D-E translation is expected to strive for. In other words, though loss of meaning is inevitable, the translator should try his best to reduce it to the minimum.

D. Similar Response

This is the principal aim of the D-E translation and all the above three points are directed to it. The term "response" here refers to the way in which receptors of a text understand the text, including the effect the text produces on them while "similar response" involves a comparison of two relations: the relation of the target text readers to the target text should be substantially the same to that of the source text readers to the source text. That is to say, the target text readers must not only know how the source text readers must have understood the content of the text, but they should also be able to appreciate some of the impact and appeal which such a text must have had for the source text readers (Jin Di and Nida, 1984).

II. Merits of the Principle of Dynamic Equivalence

As is known to all, translation in essence is a kind of communication, and its main task is to let the target reader understand the meaning of the original text. Whether a translation is good or not depends largely on whether the target reader understands the original message adequately. However, traditionally, the adequacy of translation is judged only on the basis of the correspondence in words and grammar between the source and target languages, and this is sometimes misleading (Nida, 1993). Since translating means communication, evaluating the adequacy of a translation cannot stop with a comparison of corresponding lexical meanings, grammatical classes, and rhetorical devices. In short, it cannot stop with a comparison of the verbal forms of the source and target texts. Instead, it should take into consideration the reader's response and comparison should be made between "the way in which the original receptor understood and appreciated the text and the way in which receptors of the translated text understand and appreciate the translated text" (Nida, 1993 p.116).

It has a lot of merits to take into consideration the readers' response and focus on the similarity between the response of the source text readers and that of the target text readers, which include the following aspects:

A. Rationality of Taking into Consideration the Reader's Response

Since translation is mainly intended for its readers to understand, quite naturally, we should take into consideration how the readers interpret the translation, namely, their response to the target text, and compare it with that of the source text readers to the source text. Only when the response of the source text readers and that of target text readers are similar can we say that the translation is adequate. If we do not take into consideration the readers' response when judging the adequacy of a translation, it is often misleading. As we know, sometimes what seems to be equivalent translation of the original text in terms of lexical, grammatical features may actually distort the meaning. This may be indicated in the following example.

She is a cat.

A. 她是一只猫。

B. 她是一个包藏祸心的女人。（Ke Ping, 1998）

Superficially, Version A is equivalent to the original sentence in almost every aspect, such as words, grammatical structure, etc. However, it is not equivalent in terms of meaning, and yet, the basic task of an adequate translation is nothing but to convey the meaning of the original. According to Western culture, the cat is a devil incarnation and the guard of witches in Middle Ages. The word "cat" is often used to refer to a nasty woman or a badly behaved and hot-tempered woman. Because of this cultural background, the original reader simply does not interpret "she is a cat" literally. Instead, when he reads it, his primary response to it is that "she is wicked." To arouse this similar response, version B puts it as "她是一个包藏祸心的女人" and it is equivalent to the original sentence in real sense.

Professor Jin Di expresses the same opinion on the rationality of taking into consideration the readers' response when he remarks as follows:

Most earlier approaches to translation have focused attention upon the relationship of the source text to the target text, whether in terms of form or content. The concept of dynamic equivalent translating introduces an important new dimension, namely, the relationship of receptors to the respective texts.... [It] deals not merely signs as signs, but focuses on the ways in which verbal signs have meaning for receptors. It is really within such a context that discussions of transnational adequacy and acceptability make sense (Jin Di and Nida, 1984).

In short, taking into consideration the readers' response helps to reproduce the original message adequately and guarantee equivalence between the source text and the target text in real sense.

B. Avoiding the Debate over Literal Translation versus Free Translation

Whether to translate literally or freely is an issue that has long been debated in the translation circle. Some scholars argue for literal translation while others argue for free translation. It seems that the two views will never reconcile with each other. However, it is no use arguing which is better, since literal translation and free translation both have their validity and limitations. Instead, it is more helpful, in the author's opinion, to deal with this issue from a different perspective and provide a principle of translation that can well combine them.

In a sense, the principle of dynamic equivalence may serve as an effective means to turn aside the debate. Since it focuses on the similar response, any kind of translation, either literal or free, is adequate, so long as it can arouse the similar response. Thus, the debate over literal translation versus free translation tends to be useless, and the choice between them depends on which can better bring about the "closest natural equivalent" and elicit "substantially the same response".

Sometimes, a literal translation may be quite adequate and can arouse similar response in the target readers to that of the original readers, for sometimes languages have similar plays on words, almost identical proverbs, or parallel rhetorical patterns. Generally speaking, it is more likely to produce the "closest natural equivalent" and arouse "substantially the same response" by means of a free translation. However, we must be careful with the degree of "freedom" in free translating. Free translation should aim at better conveying the message of the original and eliciting similar response. It should not be produced at the sacrifice of the original message. That is because the basic task of translation is to convey the message of the source text. A translation that does not convey the message of the source text is by no means a good translation; at most, it may only be a good creation or rewriting.

C. Freeing the Translator from the Binding of the Original Verbal Form and Increasing Translatability

Languages differ from each other, and each language has its own peculiarities. Sometimes the ways of using language are peculiar to a certain language. In this case, if the translator focuses on the original verbal form, he is usually incompetent. However, if he turns aside from the verbal form and focuses on the similar response, he can sometimes "crack the nut". Let's see the following example:

But it was not from Henry; it was a message from the desk clerk. She read: "9:20. Mr. Remsee fone. You lost pkg in his ownership. He bid you stop before tiring." She judged the last word was intended to be "retiring".

但那不是亨利写的，而是前台服务员留下的条子。她读到：九点二十分，拉姆西先生来电话，说你把包裹落在他家。他让你旧寝前到他哪儿去。她判断“旧寝”两个字可能是“就寝”。（华胄译）

In the original, in order to indicate that the desk clerk is not well educated, the author deliberately misspells some words, such as "Remsee" for "Ramsey" (拉姆西), "fone" for "phoned", and misuses "stop" for "stop by" which means “drop by”（顺便走访）. As a matter of fact, this kind of meaning is rather difficult to reproduce if one focuses on the verbal form. In the translation, the translator gives up the verbal form and, aiming at producing the similar response in the target readers as that of the original readers, he deliberately employs“旧寝”for “就寝”which helps to arouse the similar response and at the same time conveys the main content. Therefore, the whole version is adequate.

III. CONCLUSION

Translation in essence is a kind of communication, the basic requirement of which should be to establish equivalence between the source text and the target text. So far, different principles of translation equivalence have been put forward, of which the principle of dynamic equivalence put forward by Eugene A. Nida has more merits. It focuses on producing "the closest natural equivalent" of the source language message and aims at eliciting "substantially the same response" between source text readers and target text readers. Since it emphasizes similar response between source text readers and target text readers, any kind of translation is adequate, so long as it can produce similar response on the side of readers. Consequently, it helps to free the translator from the binding of the linguistic form of the source text, thus increasing translatability to a certain degree.

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Yinhua Xiang was born in Chongqing, China in 1966. He received his M.A degree in translation from Sichuan International Studies University, China in 2000.

He is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Jiaotong University, Chongqing, China. His research interests include theory and practice of translation, teaching theory and method of English and lexicology.

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