Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Constraint on Merge: The Roots of the Lexical/Functional Divide

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Abstract—**This paper addresses the following questions: is (external) merge, the binary operation that combines two elements into a constituent in every variant of the Minimalist Program (Chomsky, 1993, 1995 and related works), an unconstrained operation? If so, what avoid generating ill-formed structures? I will argue here for a simple functional / lexical constraint on Merge, assuming a possible principled binary opposition for the items which enter the syntactic derivation. I will basically follow Kayne (2009), who assumes that the class of nouns (or *L-roots*) is the only open (lexical) class in grammar, updating the intuitions of Hale and Keyser (1993). This proposal leads to interesting structural and typological consequences.**

Index Terms—**merge, minimalist program, lexicon, biolinguistics, morpho-syntax**

I. INTRODUCTION

This work aims at investigating the properties of Merge, the operation that builds syntactic structures in the Minimalist program (Chomsky 1995, and related works). I will argue here that Merge, assumed to be the easiest, the first and, arguably, the only, step by which syntactic derivations take place is not a *free* step, once given a Numeration (see, for an alternative *constraining* hypothesis, Di Sciullo and Isac, 2008). I will hypothesize a simple functional / lexical constraint on (external) Merge, assuming a possible principled dichotomy / binary opposition (weakly relying on classic works in other subfields of grammar such as Jacobson and Halle, 1956) for all the items which enter the syntactic derivation.

The main inspirational works for the present proposal are (i) a recent paper by Richard Kayne (2009), which updates the intuitions of Hale and Keyser (1993) and assumes that the class of nouns is the only open (*lexical*) class in grammar; (ii) some recent Cartographic proposals (see Cinque, 2005; Cinque, 2010a; and for introductory purposes, Cinque and Rizzi, 2010); (iii) more broadly, those paradigms which assume that the elements within syntax and within morphology enter into the same kind of constituent structures (e.g. can be sketched via binary branching trees), such as Distributed Morphology (Halle and Marantz, 1993), the unifying paradigm of Manzini and Savoia (2006) or Nanosyntax (Starke, 2009; Caha, 2009).

Intuitively, approaching the architecture of the human faculty of language from its basis, a principle involved in a *directional/constrained* Merge must be necessarily simple and economic, and can be introduced as follow. Let's assume that our Lexicon stores only (underspecified, to some extent) lexical *roots* (let's call them *nouns* in an unorthodox fashion; see Barner and Bale, 2002 for a psycholinguistic anchorage): as for Merge, which combines items in syntax, a lexical root can target only a features' sets or functional item(s) and not *viceversa*: functional items can Merge to other functional items, leading to functional ordered sequences. Hence, *root* Merge *root* is banned (leading, at most, to exocentricity in compounds, see Progovac, 2009), while sequences of grammatical words, which crucially build syntax (see the *fseq* of Nanosyntactic paradigm), are allowed. Traditionally, functional items are those syntactic heads which are not defined in terms of [+Noun ; +Verb], marking grammatical or relational features, rather than picking out a class of objects (Abney, 1987).

Basically, if we assume that (only) functional items build syntax, we must say that lexical roots are *inert* in grammar: they do not project. That is the proposal in Kayne (2009), in which it is also argued that all verbs are functional *light verbs* (see also Franco *et al.* 2010, for clinical evidence from an anomic patient affected by Primary Progressive Aphasia, a degenerative syndrome marked by progressive deterioration of language functions and relative preservation of other cognitive domain). This is a basic fact, in order to implement a constrained Merge model. Thus, here, I will assume that only nouns, as lexical primitives, are *inert*. Since Jespersen (1965) the term "light verb" is a label used to refer to a class of verbs which is supposed to be semantically empty, thus lacking enough thematic strength to independently act as predicates.

Notice that many languages fails to incorporate the noun into a *light verb*, so that most 'verbal meanings' are expressed as V+N periphrases (see Amberber, Baker and Harley, 2010), probably demonstrating that most transitive and inergative verbs are not primitive but result from the incorporation of a noun into a limited class of light/general purpose verbs (e.g. 'do', 'give', 'take', 'put', 'hit'), and even the class of these primitive verbs may turn out to be closed and relatively small (Folli, Harley and Karimi, 2005; Cinque and Rizzi, 2010). One of such *light verb* languages is Persian, which is a crucial case also because it has been convincingly argued (Ghomeshi 1997) that Persian nouns

(remember: the only open class, according to our proposal) are non-projecting items. Notice that the not uncontroversial claim of a unique set of (nominal) roots, which go beyond traditional categories, finds many typological confirms also for other (alleged) open classes of items (Baker, 2003): in many languages it has been observed, for instance, that adjectives or adverbs can constitute a closed, often quite small class of elements (Dixon, 2004).

This brief paper is structured as follows. After an overall view on Merge, I will sketch my proposal from a structural viewpoint. Then, I will try to briefly show that a constrained Merge can easily explain in an economic way grammaticalization patterns (*clines*, see Heine and Kuteva, 2002; Von Fintel, 1995; Longobardi, 2004) and typological rarities. Notice that I am aware that, "despite the numerous attempts to uncover the principle(s) governing grammatical relations/orders, the concomitant demand of empirical accuracy with respect to actual languages, has reduced virtually all of the correlations proposed to mere statistical tendencies" (Cinque, 2010b, p.1) which are – however – interesting by themselves. Notice also that here, I will not address more technical details about Merge - given the simple constraint proposed - concerning e.g. the locality (topology) of the relations, and the interpretability of features (Collins, 2002; Bowers, 2010; Franco, 2008).

Finally, notice that in a related work under development (Franco 2011b), it will be addressed a problematic case study, *exocentric compounds*, melting up theoretical claims about their status and empirical evidence from clinical linguistics (see, for introductory purposes, Semenza and Mondini, 2006).

II. MERGE

Syntactic structures in the Minimalist Program (Chomsky 1995) are built bottom-up by the operation Merge, which has two fundamental properties: (a) it is a *binary operation*, which combines two items into a constituent, and (b) it is *recursive*, so that the its output may subsequently be submitted to another Merge with other elements yielding a further syntactic unit. In the Minimalist program all the elements that are subjected to Merge are drawn from a set (namely, a list) called the *Numeration*. A Numeration is defined as a set of minimal pairs, a lexical item and an index, who signals the number of instances of the item along the derivation. Whenever items are selected from the Numeration in order to enter the syntactic derivation, their indices reduce by one. The derivation ends when every index scales down to zero.

Hence, syntax seems to be very simple, economic. This iterative operation of Merge is the sole responsible for building up syntactic structures (from bottom to top): the fist input to the initial application of Merge consists of terminal items, and the last output of the final application of Merge expresses a hierarchical structure. The triggering step is illustrated below in (1):

(1) MERGE $(\alpha, \beta) \Rightarrow \{\alpha, \beta\} \Rightarrow \{\alpha, \{\alpha, \beta\}\}$

Thus, Merge combines the input objects into a *set*. As an immediate consequence, it forms a hierarchy: the original input objects are *directly included* in the output object (de Vries, 2009).

III. CONSTRAINT

My proposal is the following: Merge is principled and it is sensitive to *categories* in a broad sense. Let's hypothesize that the only valuable distinction in grammar is between functional and lexical categories. Merge operates as a filter and bans all its applications that impair a syntactic derivation. Thus, if we label $\sqrt{}$ lexical items and α functional items, Merge works as follow:

(2) a. Merge $(\alpha, \sqrt{}) \Rightarrow \{\alpha, \sqrt{}\} \Rightarrow \{\alpha, \{\alpha, \sqrt{}\}\} \leftrightarrow$ output Ok
b. Merge $(\alpha, \alpha) \Rightarrow \{\alpha, \alpha\} \Rightarrow \{\alpha, \{\alpha, \alpha\}\}$ or $\{fseq\} \leftrightarrow$ output Ok
c. Merge $(\alpha, \sqrt{}) \Rightarrow \{\alpha, \sqrt{}\} \Rightarrow \{\sqrt{}, \{\alpha, \sqrt{}\}\} \leftrightarrow$ bad output
d. Merge $(\sqrt{}, \sqrt{}) \Rightarrow \{\sqrt{}, \sqrt{}\} \Rightarrow \{\sqrt{}, \{\sqrt{}, \sqrt{}\}\} \leftrightarrow$ bad output

The combinations represented above get three crucial points: i) coherently with Kayne (2009) recent updates of Antisymmetry (for which Cinque, 2005; 2010 has given very strong typological evidence) lexical (*denotational*) items are not able to project; ii) merge between $\sqrt{}$ items does not allow for syntactic derivations and probably if a combination of that kind is possible, it pertains to morphology, as with the example of the above-mentioned *exocentric* compounds; iii) ordered sequences of functional items (projecting *heads*) build grammar, which is coherent with promising paradigms within the contemporary theoretical linguistics, such as Cartography or Nanosyntax.

In order to work, my proposal has to make a not uncontroversial assumption: verbs do not exist, or in a less dramatic form, all verbs are *light verbs*. This belief has originated from the seminal works of Hale and Keyser (1993, 2002), it has been radically retrieved in the work of Kayne (2009) and it has been effectively interpreted in Cinque and Rizzi (2010) as a putative principle of cartographic researches.

Many structural questions can arise from the present hypothesis. However, further technical details will be omitted here because not relevant. For those who are interested, you can refer to Franco (2011a).

IV. SOME NOTES ON GRAMMATICALIZATION

The proposal outlined above - leaving aside here structural questions involved within the generative framework (e.g. *asymmetry*, *dominance/hierarchy*, *selection*, etc.) and handled, as said, elsewhere - aims at providing possible unifying

answers related to various phenomena in subfields such as: i) language evolution and diachronical explanation; ii) statistical tendency in linguistic typology, with particular regards to implicational universals; iii) language acquisition and language loss; iv) language contact (e.g. how can a language absorb loan words into a *native* Lexicon?).

In this section I will briefly introduce the phenomenon of grammaticalization, trying to show that it is probably the most important factor for language evolution.

Grammaticalization is the historical development of function morphemes from lexical morphemes. One of the crucial properties of functional morphemes is that, in any natural language, their *inventory* is limited, as opposed to the virtually infinite lexicon of content items (Abney, 1987; Von Fintel 1995).

A list of some important kinds of functional morphemes, taken from Kay von Fintel (1995, p.176), may give an idea of what we are dealing with:

(3) *Noun Class - Gender - Number - Determiner - Quantifier - Case - Verb Class -Voice - Aspect - Tense - Modality - Negation - Complementizer - Conjunction - 'Wh'-Elements - Degree Words - Comparative – Superlative*

The notion of functional categories was introduced into the generative paradigm by the works of Fukui and Speas (1986) and Fukui (1986). Given the set in (3) it seems that "functional categories are what grammar is all about" (Von Fintel, 1995, p. 176). This intuition has been framed as a principle of natural languages: grammatically relevant cross-linguistic differences are confined to the properties of functional morphemes, but there must be an underlying regular pattern. A constrained version of Merge as given in (2) is, possibly, the more economical layout, if we consider Merge as the basic operation of language.

Grammaticalization seems to be a unidirectional process and the counterexamples cited, for instance, in Norde (2009) are not unambiguous. Heine and Kuteva (2002) wrote that "grammaticalization is a unidirectional process, that is, it leads from less grammatical to more grammatical forms and constructions (p.4)". This process, following Hopper and Traugott, 1993) may be interpreted as in (4):

(4) *content word > grammatical word > clitic > inflectional affix*

In our view this process (*cline*) may be the phylogenetic proof of a syntactic "Big Bang", triggered by functional morphemes and it is essential for the study of language evolution. We think that, having in mind what is relevant for syntax and the hypothesis in (2), we may restate (4) as follows:

(5) $\sqrt{} > \alpha > \varnothing$

Guglielmo Cinque (2010b) has pointed out that the notion of ideal language(s) may be restated in terms of amount of movement of constituents (no movement vs. the most possible movement). From an asymmetric Merge perspective the ideal language would be the either (i) a radically *analytic* language, such as for example Riau Indonesia (described in Gil, 2004) or (ii) a radically *polysynthetic* language, such as Mohawk (described in Baker, 2001). In other words: (i) every functional morpheme presupposed *vs.* (ii) no presupposition at all (as concern for the inventory of functional categories in a given language, due to a grammaticalization process such as the one depicted in (5)). Since Pollock's (1989) classical work, it has been postulated an abstract set of functional (un-spelled/presupposed) projections (e.g. by the means of the existence of certain systematic word order differences among languages).

Without entering into technical details, notice that our model fits the evidence of antisymmetric theory quite well, because it assumes that a lexical specifier and a lexical complement cannot be spelled out/linearized/parsed when adjacent. Hence, adjacency plays a role in grammar, contrary to common evidence, in the sense that it triggers a syntactic derivation, implying the necessity to avoid $\{\sqrt{}, \sqrt{}\}$ (for a partially analogous proposal see the dynamic model of Moro 2000; 2008).

V. TRIGGERING EMPIRICAL ISSUES

This idea, utterly speculative at first sight, can actually address interesting typological phenomena, otherwise quite unexplainable. One example could be provided by the morphosyntactic behavior, described in Heath (2007), of some languages of the Songhay family (a West-African language family of Mali), in which are present *bidirectional* case markers that specify both that the NP to the left is a subject and that the NP to the right is an object, without being bracketed uniquely with either. Another example, among many others, could be given by *coverbs*, as described for instance for the Australian language Jaminjung (Schultze-Berndt 2000; 2001). In Jaminjung coverbs form complex predicates with inflecting verbs, but can also act as main predicates in a clause subordinated by means of a case marker. However, coverbs constitute a distinct part of speech from nominals, which, unlike coverbs, take the full set of case markers and may occur in a noun phrase together with determiners or attributive adjectival nominals (Schultze-Berndt, 2000). Probably, they are, in our model, the best approximation of a pure $\sqrt{}$ (root). Furthermore, it is interesting to observe that also in Indo-European languages, such as Persian, are present underspecified "mismatching" words (Karimi-Doostan, 2011), that seem to function as roots, when isolated / unmerged with a functional complements.

A constrained version of Merge could also explain, from my viewpoint, universal tendencies in the morpho-syntax of language, from a typological viewpoint, investigating e.g. some Greenberg Universals (Greenberg, 1963), or make a basis for interesting recent investigation within the generative framework on *hierarchical universals* (see the *Final over Final Constraint*, assumed by Biberauer *et al.* 2010). Refer to Franco (2011a) if interested in the underlying argumentations.

VI. Conclusion

In this brief paper I have proposed that Merge, the operation that builds syntax in the Minimalist program is principled and it is sensitive to *categories* in a broad sense. I have proposed that the only valuable distinction (*binary opposition*) in grammar is between functional and lexical categories. Merge operates as a filter and bans all its applications that *crash* a syntactic derivation. The only possible *array* is among functional categories, creating a functional sequence (*fseq*). This is coherent with challenging recent paradigms in theoretical syntax such as Cartography and Nanosyntax.

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An Investigation of Chinese Students' Learning Styles at an English-medium University in Mainland China

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Abstract—This paper reports on an investigation of Chinese tertiary students' perceptual learning styles at an English-medium university in mainland China. Results revealed that 1) a wide variety of learning styles was distributed among Chinese EFL students, a majority of them favoring tactile, kinesthetic, and visual learning styles; 2) gender differences existed but were not statistically significant in the learning-style preferences between male and female students; 3) English majors and Non-English majors showed statistically significant differences in their tactile learning and kinesthetic learning; 4) English majors differed significantly from Non-English majors in their tactile learning and kinesthetic learning; 5) postgraduates and undergraduates were significantly different in their preferences for auditory learning and individual learning. These results provided insightful implications for tertiary English teaching in China.

Index Terms—learning styles, English-medium University, EFL teaching and learning

I. INTRODUCTION

As the first Sino-foreign joint university in China, the University of Nottingham, Ningbo, China (UNNC) has drawn great attention from the educational specialists both abroad and at home for its practice of applying English as the medium of working language and its operation of the British educational system. The approach to teaching at UNNC is shaped from the model of its mother university, the University of Nottingham, UK (UNUK). Students are partly taught in large lecture groups and partly in smaller seminar groups of around 15-20 students. They are encouraged to take a deep approach to learning and to become independent learners who know how to research, analyze and present the key issues of their chosen discipline. They can access to the internet resources of the home campus in the UK. Courses are delivered entirely in English. All the curricula are based on its needs analysis of the development of Chinese society, education as well as learners' personal development conducted by the UNUK before its coming into China (Chen, 2006). Besides, this model is underpinned by the staff who are native speakers of English and whose teaching is directly informed by their research. It can be seen that the teaching beliefs and styles, and the needs analysis of the Nottingham model reflect the student-centered nature of the British educational system.

Efforts have been made to explore the practice of the British educational system in the Chinese EFL context, particularly its Orientation system (Chen, 2006) and its supporting system of self-accessing learning (Cai, 2008), which reflect the nature of the student-centered approach. However, there is paucity to date to explore the characteristics of Chinese university students' learning styles at the English-medium environment in mainland China. This paper thus attempts to bridge this gap by examining the Chinese university students' learning styles at UNNC.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Learning style is thought of as learners' preferred way of dealing with information. Reid (2002) defines it as "natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, retaining new information and skills" and categorizes styles into six types-Visual, Auditory, Kinesthetic, Tactile, Group, and Individual. A large body of literature in the West and at home has investigated the characteristics of Chinese EFL learners' learning styles under different contexts (e.g., Dunn, 1990; Felder, 1995; Peacock, 2001). Reid (1987) studied the preferred learning styles of the Chinese EFL students studying in the U.S. universities and reported that they demonstrated multiple major learning style preferences, preferred kinaesthetic learning styles most and group learning style least. This is finding is evidenced in later research. Melton (1990) administered a survey among students from Chinese universities and found that they favored Kinesthetic, Tactile and Individual styles, but disfavored group styles. In their research, Coffield, et *al.* (2004) reported that the implications of learning styles for language teaching and learning were serious and thus should be of concern to both learners and teachers. Compared to the West, research on learning styles in China began much later. However, there are a proliferation of empirical studies at home, mainly exploring students' learning style preference under the Chinese EFL context and the implications English teaching and learning in China (e.g. Liu, et *al*, 2004; Li & Su, 2007; Lǚ, et *al*, 2009; etc). Meanwhile, other Chinese Language practitioners and researchers expand the research scope of EFL learning style

from various aspects. For instance, Li and Bi (2006) argued that students' English learning outcomes were to a large degree affected by their learning style preference. Zhang (2008) discussed the implication of learning styles for English teaching in EFL classroom and advocated that the design of College English class be based on students' learning style.

The aforementioned literature reveals that the past studies were administered either under the Western educational context or under the Chinese EFL context. To date no initiative has been made to investigate the features of those EFL students at English-medium universities in mainland China. The present research thus attempts to bridge this gap by studying the characteristics of this cohort of students' learning styles at the English-medium University in mainland China, with a hope of promoting classroom English teaching at Chinese universities.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

This study addressed the following questions:
1) What is the feature of the Chinese university students' learning styles at UNNC?
2) Are there any style differences between male and female students?
3) Do English majors vary from non-English majors in their learning style preferences?
4) Do postgraduate students learn differently from undergraduate students?

B. Participants

The survey was administered with 92 participants from UNNC. These participants were composed of 59 undergraduates and 33 postgraduates from various majors including International Business, International Communications, Management, Finance, International Studies, and Applied Linguistics. There were 56 female students and 36 male students, 20 of whom were English majors and 72 were non-English majors.

C. Instruments

The present study employed Reid's (1987) Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ) to measure the participants' learning-style preferences. This questionnaire is the most widely used instrument for non-native speakers of English (DeCapua & Wintergest, 2004). As a well-tested instrument (Peacock, 2001), it has been proven to be highly valid and reliable. In Cheng's (1997) study, for instance, the reliability of PLSPQ was as high as 0.81 using Cronbach's alpha. The instrument consists of three sections. The first section is the directions telling the participants the purpose of doing this survey and how to respond to the questions, including their personal information, namely, their gender, major, and grade. The second section has 30 statements covering six learning-style categories: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, individual and group learning. The third section is the self-scoring sheet for students to report their style preferences.

D. Data Collection and Analysis

The questionnaire was administered after class at the end of the second semester of the 2007-2008 academic year under my supervision. The collected data were computed through Statistical Package for Social Science 16.0 (SPSS 16.0). In response to the proposed research questions, the collected data were analyzed in the following steps: the statistics were first described to report the results and findings of the overall characteristics of learning styles among all the participants. Then, the data were further interpreted from the perspectives of gender, major, and grade. T-Test was made in order to indentify whether and how the differences in learning style preferences were significant between male and female students, English and non-English majors, and postgraduates and undergraduates since the postgraduates already have had more years' experience of learning English at college than the undergraduates.

IV. RESULTS

A. The Participants' Overall Learning Styles

Table-1 illustrated the overall characteristics of the participants' learning styles. It can be noted that there was a stronger distribution tendency among the participants who showed a wider and more diversified stylistic preferences in their learning, compared with that under the Chinese EFL context (e.g., Liu, et *al*, 2004). The students who preferred tactile learning shared the highest mean value, while those students who used visual learning more frequently and those who favored kinesthetic learning shared the same mean value, which was the second highest mean value. Then it was followed by the auditory learners, and the individual learners. The learners who favored group learning shared the lowest mean value.

TABLE-1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' LEARNING STYLES

Style	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
visual	92	36.7826	5.80986
tactile	92	37.8913	5.20662
auditory	92	35.3696	4.68741
group	92	33.6522	6.12406
kinesthetic	92	36.7826	5.72603
individual	92	34.3043	6.84481

A further interesting finding is that the most favored learning style reported by the participants was tactile learning, with kinesthetic and visual learning styles being slightly less favored. The participants favored least individual learning and group learning. These findings were echoed in the results of some earlier studies (e.g., Reid, 1987, Melton, 1990, Rossi-Le, 2002) which reported that Chinese university EFL students favored kinesthetic and tactile learning styles most and disfavored group styles.

Another important feature is that the six Standard Deviation values for these six dimensions of perceptual learning style preference indicate that these learning styles were distributed widely and variedly among the participants. However, there are specific differences according to the particular Standard Deviation for each learning style. The relatively lower Standard Deviation of auditory style (Std. Deviation=4.68741) showed that the auditory learners were more homogeneous in this learning style, while the relatively higher Standard Deviation of group learning (Std. Deviation=6.12406) and individual learning (Std. Deviation=6.84481) indicated that these two learning styles were distributed more variedly and strikingly among the participants.

B.   Gender Differences and Learning Styles

Table-2 provided the following findings: obvious differences can be observed in mean values between female and male students in individual learning, visual learning, and group learning respectively, in which male students reported a higher mean value than female students. On the other hand, the two groups demonstrated very close mean values in tactile learning, auditory learning, and kinesthetic learning, though female students showed a slightly higher mean value than the male students in these three learning styles. However, the T-Test (Table-3) showed that all the P values were above the 0.05 level (P＞0.05) among these six styles, which means that though differences existed between male and female students, these differences were not statistically significant.

The above statistical descriptions can be interpreted as follows: gender differences do exist in the learning style preference of male students and female students, but these differences are not statistically significant. Male students prefer individual learning, visual learning, and group learning in comparison with female students. They learn considerably differently from each other in these three learning styles.

TABLE-2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF GENDER IN RELATION TO LEARNING STYLES

Style	Gender	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
visual	Female	56	36.0357	5.70156
	Male	36	37.9444	5.86488
tactile	Female	56	37.9286	4. 79339
	Male	36	37.8333	5.86272
auditory	Female	56	35.4286	4.69761
	Male	36	35.2778	4.73655
group	Female	56	32.9643	5.94510
	Male	36	34.7222	6.32732
kinesthetic	Female	56	36.9286	5.79610
	Male	36	36.5556	5.68931
individual	Female	56	33.3929	5.99296
	Male	36	35.7222	7.87260

TABLE-3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE TEST OF GENDER IN RELATION TO LEARNING STYLES

Style	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
visual	-1.55	90	.125
tactile	.085	90	.932
auditory	.150	90	.881
group	-1.35	90	.180
kinesthetic	.303	90	.762
individual	-1.607	90	.112

significant at p<.05

C.   Academic Major Differences and Learning Styles

TABLE-4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MAJOR IN RELATION TO LEARNING STYLES

Style	Major	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
visual	NEM	72	36.6667	5.94813
	EM	20	37.2000	5.40565
tactile	NEM	72	37.2500	5.19412
	EM	20	40.2000	4.67468
auditory	NEM	72	35.0000	4.60251
	EM	20	36.7000	4.86772
group	NEM	72	33.3056	6.30814
	EM	20	34.9000	5.3695
kinesthetic	NEM	72	36.0833	5.57093
	EM	20	39.3000	5.70411
individual	NEM	72	34.5278	7.16795
	EM	20	33.5000	5.61483

Note: EM=English majors   NEM=Non-English majors

Table-4 and Table-5 provided two significant findings. The most striking one was that the Non-English majors were only higher in the mean value of individual learning style, while the English majors (EM) showed a higher mean value than the Non-English majors (NEM) in the following five learning styles: kinesthetic learning, tactile learning, visual learning, auditory learning, and group learning, among which the English majors reported to be most different in the mean values than the Non-English majors in the styles of kinesthetic learning and tactile learning. This was also reflected in the T-Test (Table-5). The T-Test showed that the P value for tactile learning was 0.024, which was under the 0.05 level (P<0.05); and the P value for kinesthetic learning was 0.025, which was also under the 0.05 level (P<0.05). These indicated that the differences between these two groups in tactile learning and kinesthetic learning were statistically significant.

TABLE-5
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE TEST OF MAJOR IN RELATION TO LEARNING STYLES

Style	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
visual	-.361	90	.719
tactile	-2.293	90	.024
auditory	-1.443	90	.152
group	-1.03	90	.306
kinesthetic	-2.273	90	.025
individual	.592	90	.555

*significant at p<.05

The above statistical descriptions were informative in the following ways: the English majors do learn differently from the Non-English majors. The English majors show more preference in kinesthetic, tactile, visual, and auditory learning than the Non-English majors. The Non-English majors prefer to learn individually while the English majors like to learn in groups. And the English majors are significantly different in the kinesthetic and the tactile learning styles from the Non-English majors.

D.   Grade Differences and Learning Styles

TABLE-6
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MAJOR IN RELATION TO LEARNING STYLES

Style	Grade	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
visual	UG	59	37.1864	6.19364
	PG	33	36.0606	5.06174
tactile	UG	59	38.3390	5.01243
	PG	33	37.0909	5.52474
auditory	UG	59	34.7797	5.03802
	PG	33	36.4242	3.83267
group	UG	59	34.1695	6.01479
	PG	33	32.7273	6.30115
kinesthetic	UG	59	37.2203	6.30289
	PG	33	36.0000	4.50000
individual	UG	59	33.1186	7.31810
	PG	33	36.4242	5.37953

Note: Note: UG=Undergraduate students   PG=Postgraduate students

Table-6 demonstrated a major difference between the undergraduate and the postgraduate students. That is, the undergraduate students showed a relatively higher mean value than the postgraduate students in visual learning, tactile learning, kinesthetic learning, and group learning; while the postgraduate students had a relatively higher mean value compared to the undergraduate students in auditory learning and individual learning. Another finding can be obtained through the T-Test (Table-7) that the P value for auditory learning was 0.083 which was under the 0.05 level (P<0.05) and the P value for individual learning was 0.025 which was also under the 0.05 level (P<0.05). This means that the

differences were statistically significant between the two groups in their stylistic preferences for auditory learning and individual learning.

The interpretation of the above statistical descriptions yields the following findings: Postgraduate students learn differently from undergraduate students. Undergraduate students favor visual, tactile, and kinesthetic learning more than postgraduate students. While undergraduate students like to learn in groups, postgraduate students prefer to learn individually and favor the auditory learning. And there is a very significant difference between the two groups of these participants in favoring the auditory and individual learning styles.

TABLE-7
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE TEST OF GRADE IN RELATION TO LEARNING STYLES

Style	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
visual	.89	90	.376
tactile	1.104	90	.273
auditory	-1.629	90	.083
group	1.084	90	.281
kinesthetic	.98	90	.330
individual	-2.272	90	.025

significant at p<.05

V. DISCUSSIONS

A. Participants' Overall Learning Styles

The findings illustrated in Table-1 provided strong evidence for Question One in that the Chinese tertiary EFL learners were characterized by various and diversified learning styles; they favored tactile, kinesthetic and visual learning most while least favoring group learning; auditory learning was distributed more evenly and homogeneously among them.

The British educational system conducted at UNNC may to a large degree account for these findings. The teaching model at UNNC is characterized by its delivery of courses to students entirely in English, lecture groups and smaller seminar groups, and the same Quality Assurance processes as conducted at the UNUK. In order to communicate effectively in their study with their students and teachers, students need not only good English reading and writing abilities, but also satisfactory listening and speaking skills. Besides, UNNC provides its students various language learning facilities and courses through its Centre for English Language Education (CELE), for example, group project, seminar, English opera, film appreciation, speaking contest, and so on, which can create a very friendly English-learning environment for students. Obviously, this educational system doe not only emphasize students' language ability in academic study, but also pays attention to the development of their ability in listening, speaking, reading, and writing to communicate. Under such an education system, students tend to learn by various means and thus display diversified learning styles.

Secondly, the findings that Chinese college students favored tactile, kinesthetic and visual learning most indicates that the participants tended to prefer to learn through some visual and tactile activities, for example, listening to teachers' instructions, reading books and the teaching materials provided by teachers, and doing some exercises under their teacher's directions and guidance in classroom. These Chinese students show strong trust and respect to their teachers in the classroom because they are highly influenced by Confucian thoughts that the teacher is an authority in the classroom (Nelson, 2002) and that students are expected to "listen to adults, not interrupt, sit quietly and listen attentively" (Scarcella, 1990). The cultural influence of Confucian thoughts makes the traditional Chinese EFL education emphasize students' ability in reading and writing while neglecting their ability in speaking and listening. One more reason for the findings that Chinese tertiary students favor group learning least is culture-related. The perceived meaning of group study differs between Chinese and western culture. In Chinese culture a group means a constant involvement for a much longer period of time and defines a certain identity while a group in American culture often refers to a short-term membership, for instance, a short duration of a course (Nelson, 2002). Thus, this particular "cultural background gave group work a minor or a negative preference mean" (Reid, 1987, p.97) to the Chinese EFL students who are uncomfortable with the ad hoc nature of small-group work in ESL classrooms, with groups continually forming and reforming according to the task (Nelson, 2002).

B. Gender Differences and Learning Styles

The findings demonstrated in Table-2 and Table-3 very justify Question Two that the learning styles vary between male students and female students. The male students prefer individual learning, visual learning and group learning, and the female students favor auditory learning, tactile learning, and kinesthetic learning slightly more than the male students.

There are possible social and biological reasons for these gender differences among male students and female students. According to Oxford (2002), these gender differences are possibly due to brain hemisphericity and socialization. Males are considered to process language learning information more readily through the left-hemispheric, analytic mode, but females might more often process language learning data through an integration of left-and

right-hemispheric modes. Socialization is thought to have great influence upon gender differences in language learning styles, because our society is traditionally male-dominated and the female's subordinate role in our society owes a great deal to the different socialization of boys and girls, men and women (Tannen, 1990). For example, achievement, competition, and control of feelings are often stressed with sons in families; while interpersonal skills and expression of feelings are often emphasized with daughters. Thus, males become more independent and creative than females, and tend to learn individually, but females become more careful and patient, and tend to prefer the auditory learning. One more reason for the difference between male students and female students in auditory learning style is that females use strategies that elicit input from others more often than males. Females are more patient and ask three times as many questions as males and focus on the speaker with greater interest, empathy, concern, and politeness than males do.

C.   Academic Major Differences and Learning Styles

The findings displayed in Table-4 and Table-5 are very supportive to Question Three that the English majors differ from the Non-English majors in their learning style preferences. The differences between the English majors and the Non-English majors in their learning style preferences are probably due to the following reasons:

Firstly, English majors and Non-English majors may treat English very differently as a result of their interests and motivations in learning English. English majors are so interested in English and thus are usually more motivated to take English as their major; while Non-English majors may learn English as an auxiliary tool for the need of their future plan or only take it as an extracurricular interest. Therefore, in contrast with the Non-English majors, English majors pay much more attention to the development of the four language skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and try every means to using these four skills, for instance, watching English videos, group work, and so on. Secondly, the undergraduate admissions for Chinese students are through the National Higher Education Entrance Examination (GaoKao) and the score required is above the first division university entry score with an English score 115 or above. For those students who want to enter the Division of English Studies, they must get even higher scores in English in Gaokao than students of other divisions. The relatively higher scores in English for entering the English department mean that the English majors have higher language proficiency than the Non-English majors. In addition, the particular curriculums and syllabus for English majors at UNNC offer them a relatively higher frequency of encountering English. This high frequency of contacting English can assure English majors of getting adequate input and output of English through various kinds of means, for example, English movies, role-play, debates, group projects, and so on.

D.   Grade Differences and Learning Styles

The findings obtained from Table-6 and Table-7 provided a reasonable answer to the proposed research question whether the postgraduate students have different learning style preferences from that undergraduate students. These findings justify Question Four that the postgraduate students do learn differently from the undergraduate students.

There are possibly very complex reasons for the differences between postgraduate students and undergraduate students in their learning style preference. One of the major reasons is the difference between the Chinese education system and the British education system considering the nature of the university—the University of Nottingham Ningbo, China--where the participants were surveyed for the present investigation. As an international university, the UNNC adheres to the British educational model. It is featured with its delivery of courses to students entirely in English, lecture groups and smaller seminar groups, and the same Quality Assurance processes as conducted at the UNUK. It provides its students various language learning facilities and courses through its Centre for English Language Education (CELE), for example, group project, seminar, English opera, film appreciation, speaking contest, and so on. It does not only highlight students' language ability in academic study, but also pays attention to the development of their ability in listening, speaking, reading, and writing to communicate. Under such an education system, students tend to learn in groups through various visual, tactile, and kinesthetic means.

Different from the undergraduate participants who are receiving college education in UNNC in the present investigation, and prior to coming to UNNC for their postgraduate study, the postgraduate students attained their first degree from Chinese universities where the Chinese education system is implemented. The traditional English teaching in China is famous for its examination-orientation. The traditional grammar--translation approach used to be very popular in a majority of English classes in Chinese universities. The grammar--translation approach is teacher-oriented and textbook-based rather than student-centered. Teachers are authoritative in the classroom, and students show their respect to teachers by listening to their lectures very attentively and reading any materials and books their teachers instruct them to do. This examination-oriented English education system emphasizes the students' ability in reading and writing, but ignores their ability in listening and speaking to communicate with others. Therefore, students tend to favor the auditory learning style under the influence of this traditional education system.

VI.   IMPLICATIONS

Through above statistical analysis, several pedagogical implications can be obtained from the present investigation as follows:

A.   Raising Self-awareness and Accommodating Students' Learning Styles

It is pointed out that one of the aims of education is to help students realize that learning is a life-long process, it is very essential for students and teachers to be aware of the findings of the current study (Rossi-Le, 2002). Knowledge of their own learning style preferences can inform students of their habitual learning styles as well as the strengths and weaknesses of the strategies they employ in their study. Sims & Sims (1995) indicate that identifying students' learning styles and providing appropriate instruction lead to more effective teaching and learning. Therefore, it is significant for teachers and students to identify their learning styles and then make appropriate adjustments in their teaching styles and techniques to meet students' learning styles in classroom.

B. Accepting and Integrating Style Differences into Language Instruction

As for the differences displayed among students' style preferences, what teachers can do is to accept these differences instead of labeling students with bad or wrong learning styles, and integrate these differences into their classroom teaching by making their class more inclusive. Considering the gender differences among students' style preferences, teachers can provide a wide range of classroom activities, such as the gender-contrasting activities, to cater for male and female students. The present study also shows that there is difference between undergraduates and postgraduates, which should be taken into account when teachers are considering designing curriculum and providing course choices to students. Under such circumstances, graded courses are highly recommended.

C. Promoting Collaborative Learning

One of the findings the present study demonstrates is that group learning is the least favored learning style among the Chinese college students and that the Chinese EFL students tend to learn individually. As part of the efforts to meet the differences in students' learning style preferences, it is advisable for teachers and educators to promote the collaborative learning in formal instruction. Promoting collaborative learning is significant in that it can not only accommodate the style differences among students, but also contribute to increasing learners' autonomy in their language study. Under the collaborative learning mode, students work in groups rather than work alone towards a common goal (Macaro, 1997). No matter what language levels they are at, they must be responsible for each other; and they are encouraged to fully and actively participate in the group work and become intellectually and emotionally involved with other members to negotiate their comprehensible output for a particular learning task. This kind of group work is helpful for the creation of a friendly environment featured with "low threat, positive regard, honest and open feedback, respect for ideas and options of others, approval of self-improvement as a goal, collaboration rather competition" (Candy, 1991, p.337). This friendly environment is significant in promoting autonomy.

VII. CONCLUSION

According to the above analysis, conclusions with regard to the proposed research questions can be drawn as follows: (1) a wide variety of learning styles is distributed among Chinese EFL students at UNNC, a majority of them favoring tactile, kinesthetic, and visual learning, which means that students at UNNC prefer to learn by reading rather than by listening, and that they endorse the hands-on and kinesthetical activities in class, for example, seminar, research project, role-play, and so on; (2) gender differences do exist in the learning-style preferences between male and female students, but the differences are not statistically significant. (3) English and Non-English majors learn differently and the differences between them in tactile learning and kinesthetic learning are statistically significant. (4) Postgraduate students learn differently from undergraduate students, and the differences were statistically significant between them in their preferences for auditory learning and individual learning.

In a nutshell, this research manifests that the practice of the British educational system in China has the potential to contribute to a diverse learning style distribution and preferences among the Chinese EFL students. Its findings will significantly promote people's understanding of the individual differences among the Chinese tertiary students in EFL classroom and provide very insightful implications for EFL teachers to select appropriate teaching methods and materials in their teaching practice. However, the present study is constrained by two possible factors. Firstly it didn't compare the learning styles of the students under the present context with those under the Chinese EFL context and secondly the imbalanced gender of the subjects may affect the reliability of the findings. Therefore, further studies are invited to examine in what way and to what degree the British educational system influences Chinese EFL students' learning style preferences.

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A Short Analysis of Insertion in Persian

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Abstract—This paper investigates epenthesis process in Persian to catch some results in relating to vowel and consonant insertion in Persian lexicon. This survey has a close relationship to the description of epenthetic consonants and the conditions in which these consonants are used. Since no word in Persian may begin with a vowel, so that hiatus can't be considered immensely in Persian. But there are several reasons to reject such a substantial claim; as the best well-known of them is clitics, such as; plural suffix /-ɑn/, nominalizer/adjectivizer suffix /-i/, and also the bound morpheme "to be" /-ast/. Obviously, these morphemes begin with a vowel because of dependency on their before words, thus as a result it occurs hiatus. In order to resolve hiatus, it should be inserted an epenthetic consonant between them. With respect to the features of this epenthetic consonant, it should be said that it doesn't create any distinctive meaning and so it doesn't place in contrast with any phoneme. Since the speaker has no authority in the choice of this epenthetic consonant, thus it isn't distinctive and just has the structural function, as well as it is still inserted for the context recovery and suitable syllable structure in Persian. Furthermore, this process shows that a consonant insertion in different languages is the phonological pattern used for the world constraint recovery in phonotactics, so that it has a close relationship with syllable structure. Also, the presented study evaluates its analysis within the framework of optimality theory (Prince & Smolensky, 1993). This theory employs a notion of constraint dominance and a mechanism for selecting the optimal output with respect to a set of ranked constraints.

Index Terms—insertion, epenthesis, hiatus, epenthetic consonant, optimality theory, Persian

I. INTRODUCTION

Epenthesis process (henceforth EP), as a morphophonemic process, often occurs in phonology of different languages and it causes to insert a phonemic element within a word or at the two - morpheme boundary. On the other hands, in EP it is inserted a consonant between two vowels in order to resolve hiatus. And sometimes it is a vowel inserted between two consonant to break consonant cluster because there is no initial consonant cluster in Persian syllabic structure (Kambuzia, 2007, pp. 273-274). EP can be detected in different languages. Some linguists believe that EP is the insertion of a vowel or consonant at the initial of a word or between the sounds. It often occurs in language learning when the language that is learned has different combinations of vowels and consonants in the mother's tongue of learner per se. for example Iranians learning English language often pronounce the English word 'espeak' [espi:k] instead of 'speak' [spi:k]. Therefore, it is a vowel inserted at the initial position of a word in Persian language since no initial consonant cluster exists as the aforementioned. Unlike English language, most of other languages like Persian don't use the combinations such as /lm/ or /lp/ as initial consonant cluster, so that the speakers of these languages can epenthesize a vowel between the initial consonant cluster to break it. For instance, Persian speakers pronounce the English word 'Florida' as [feloridɑ].

In general, it must be noted about consonant insertion between two vowels that, should two similar phonological elements situate in contiguity to each other, it produces an ungrammatical structure. In this case, it can refer to a phonological constraint obtained only from a non-linear representation that McCarthy has stated it, the so- called Obligatory Contour Principle (OCP):
"Not two similar elements should be situated in the contiguity to each other."
Since the epenthetic segments do not create meaningful distinction in the language and they aren't in contrast with other phoneme, as if the speaker has no interference in their selection, as well as based on the theory of Prague School Phonologists (PSP), they cannot be called "phoneme", so that it will be argued over the field of phonetics. But in contrast, J.R. Firth, who is the founder of the first linguistics department at the University of London in England and also a person whose name is suffused with the London School, lampoons the theory of PSP. Therefore, he introduces a theory by which language sound elements are divided into two separate parts: one of them is called 'phoneme' and the other is 'prosodies'.

Since the epenthetic consonant situates in the two-morpheme boundary or two-syllable, so that they can belong to the larger units of phoneme which are prosodies or prosodic units. Emerging such consonant to resolve hiatus in Persian is the part of process which phoneticians call it 'epenthesis'.

II. Vowels in Persian Language

Persian language, also known as Farsi, is a member of the Iranian branch of the Indo-European languages and a subfamily of the Indo-Iranian languages. It is the national language of Iran, and is spoken in countries like Afghanistan and Tajikistan, too.

In Persian, words consist of one or more syllables. The syllable consists of one obligatory vowel potentially surrounded by consonants. Therefore, a vowel functions as the syllable nucleus and a consonant occurs at the margins of the syllable. Furthermore, Farsi syllables always take one of these patterns (i.e., V, CV, CVC, CVCC, VC, and VCC) presented in Table1 below:

TABLE 1:
PERSIAN SYLLABLE STRUCTURE

PHONETIC FORM	PHONOLOGICAL FORM	PERSIAN SYLLABLES	MEANING
ʔu:	u:	V	او
bu:	bu:	CV	بو
bar	bar	CVC	بر
sard	sard	CVCC	سرد
ʔɑb	ɑb	VC	آب
ʔabr	abr	VCC	ابر

Vowels like Consonants are the basic elements of each language. Persian language has two sets of vowels. On the other hand, it has a six-vowel system, with three long vowels (/i/, /u/, /ɑ/) and also three short vowels (/e/, /æ/, /o/). The discrepancy between these two sets of vowels is usually appropriated to be a difference in length, so that lax vowels are short and tense vowels are long (Comrie, p. 526). But the shortening and lengthening of vowels in Persian isn't contrastive since they are in contrast together qualitatively and this factor causes the difference between vowels and the difference in length is a kind of redundancy. (Kambuziya, 2009, p.118)

TABLE 2.
PERSIAN VOWELS IN IPA. (1999, P. 124)

	front	back
high	i	u
middle	e	o
low	a	ɑ

III. Significance of the Study

The aim of the presented study is to describe the insertion process (henceforth IP) with the survey of data in Persian language. Based on the Persian Syllabic Structure, the main purposes of this study are several reasons such as resolving hiatus and breaking initial consonant cluster as well as no word may begin with a vowel in surface structure. The presented study tries to illustrate EP in Persian and offers an analysis within the consideration of Optimality Theory (henceforth OT). OT employs a concept of constraint dominance and a mechanism for choosing the optimal output with respect to a set of ranked constraints (for more figuring out of OT, see Prince & Smolensky, 1993).

IV. Theoretical Considerations

OT is one of the constraint–based approaches emerging at the beginning of 1990's by Prince and Smolensky, and also as the most contemporary linguistic consideration advanced to date, with recent extensions to development. Based on this theory, the candidate, which incurs the least serious violations of a set of violable constraints, is considered as a surface structure (output) and in fact it is 'optimal' output. On the other hand, this theory not only focuses on exploring of allowed surface structure but also denies the non – allowed structures. Like other theories, OT has input-output mechanism.

a. Formal model of OT (adapted from Archangeli, 1997):

(3) GEN given an input representation, GENerator provides a set of potential output forms.

(4) EVAL given the candidate set created by GEN, EVALuator chooses the most optimal or harmonic output for the given input representation.

(5) CON a language-specific ranking of a universal set of CONstraints is used by EVAL in determining the optimal output form.

b. Examples of **faithfulness** and **markedness** constraints (McCarthy & Prince, 1995):

(6) MAX segments in the input must correspond to segments in the output. (No deletion.)

(7) DEP segments in the output must correspond to segments in the input. (No insertion.)

(8) IDENT [FEAT] the place, voice, and manner features of segments of the input must surface in the corresponding segments in the output.

(9) *COMPLEX avoid consonant clusters.

As shown in the tableau (10) below, once a candidate incurs a crucial violation, there is no way for it to be optimal.

TABLEAU 10.
PHONOLOGICAL REPRESENTATION OF CONSTRAINTS (BIJANKHAN, 2006, P. 42)

Input	C_1	C_2	...	C_n
Cand			...	*
Cand	*	*!	...	
Cand	**!		...	
.			.	
.			.	
.			.	
Cand			...	

In general, McCarthy (1988) has illustrated OT like the following box chart:
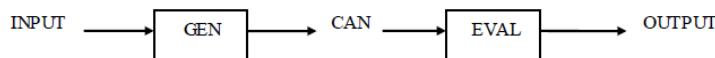

FIGURE 11. The box chart of optimality phonology model (Bijankhan, 2006, p. 35)

Based on this chart, EVALuator receives the candidate set from GENerator, and evaluates it using some constraint hierarchy, as well as selects its most optimal member as the output of the grammar (McCarthy, 2007, p. 4)

As the aforementioned, in this approach the constraints are two groups which are in complementary distribution together and in fact the optimality is the argument about these distinctions that as a result it selects the optimal output:

a. Faithfulness constraint:

Faithfulness constraints such as the aforementioned are central tenets of OT: They have been shown to have cross-linguistic validity in that they account for a variety of independently motivated patterns (McCarthy & Prince, 1995).

b. Markedness constraint:

This constraint referred to structural constraints is equally central to OT and have likewise been shown to account for many phenomena cross-linguistically. These constraints require that output forms be unmarked in structure.

V. INSERTION AND EPENTHESIS

Before describing and noting some points about these two processes, it is necessary to be noted some points about epenthetic consonant, because they have a close relationship with epenthetic consonant. Epenthetic consonant is that one used over the speech chain to prevent hiatus, usually the first vowel places at the end of previous morpheme and the second one occurs at the beginning of the next morpheme. Generally, Insertion process is a concept that adds a new element to a chain based on which a phonological element is inserted inside a word called EP. In such a process, it inserts a consonant intervocalically to resolve hiatus, or in order to break a consonant cluster, it may insert a vowel between two consonant. According to Firth's point of view, an important figure in the foundation of linguistics as an autonomous discipline in Britain, these elements emerged at the border of between two syllables or two morphemes or even between two words belong to the larger units of phoneme, thus they place in the category of prosodies (FIRTH, 1948, P. 135). This process occurs in different languages that the Persian language is one of them. This paper starts its discussion with the insertion of glottal stop consonant [ʔ].

Based on syllable structure of Persian language and IP, as the aforementioned, the glottal stop insertion at the beginning of the words started with a vowel is necessary.

Based on the definitions coming in English resources such as Kenstowicz (1994) and Crystal (2003), IP is exactly in contrast with ellipsis process in which one vowel or consonant is added to the speech chain to produce a simpler model or syllable structure in phonotactics of that particular language.

Sadeghi (2002) says about consonant insertion between two vowels:

One of the morphophonemic rules in Persian is consonant insertion at the two morphemes boundary, if there is a vowel at the end of the first morpheme and at the initial of the second one in morphology process. He poses it as epenthetic consonant.

Najafi (1999) has noted:

In Persian language, it may be used from some epenthetic consonants such as /-g-/, /-d-/, /-h-/, and sometimes /-v-/, /-j-/ instead of glottal stop consonant [ʔ] (p. 81). On the other hand, the use of these epenthetic consonants is based on morphological considerations.

According to the common view, there are nine epenthetic consonants in the language; i.e. [ʔ], [h], [j], [g], [ʤ], [t], [d], [w] and [v] (see Majidi,1990 , pp. 27-45; Sadeghi, 2002; Bijankhan, 2006, pp. 12-15; Kambuziya, 2007, pp. 277-306.)

A. [ʔ] - insertion

Generally, word-initial glottal stop insertion is based on the property of Persian Syllable Structure since no word may begin with a vowel in phonetic form. So, if a word begins with a vowel in phonological form, a glottal stop consonant will fill the onset position. Like the examples below:

(12)

/abru/	⟶	[ʔabru]	'ebrow'
/edʒbɑ:r/	⟶	[ʔedʒbɑ:r]	'obligation'
/oftɑ:d/	⟶	[ʔoftɑ:d]	'fell'
/ɑ:vard/	⟶	[ʔɑ:vard]	'war'
/i:stɑd/	⟶	[ʔi:stɑd]	'stood'
/u:/	⟶	[ʔu:]	'he/she'

In spite of some linguists who believe that in word-initial position the glottal stop is not epenthetic but phonemic (e.g. Windfuhr, 1979, p. 140), others believe that it is always epenthetic regardless of its position and even in Arabic loanwords (e.g. Lazard, 1957, p.6).

B. Glide Insertion

However, if one of the prefixes /be-/ or /na-/ places at the initial of the above words, then EP epenthesizes the glide /-j-/ that agrees in features with the contiguous vowel often a 'high vowel' (Lombardi, 2002, p. 9) to resolve hiatus. And based on it, the glide /-j-/ agrees with the high vowel /i/ in Persian. Hence, should the left vowel in hiatus be /i/, the equal glide inserts discussed as a process the so-called 'vowel raising'. See the examples below.

(13)

/be-j-oftɑd/	⟶	[bijoftɑd]	'fell'
/be-j-ɑ/	⟶	[bijɑ]	'come'
/be-j-ɑvar/	⟶	[bijɑvar]	'bring'
/na-j-ɑmad/	⟶	[najɑmad]	'didn't come'

With respect to these two morphemes *be-* and *na-* , Sadeghi (2002) states that they were pronounced *be:* and *ne:* in PAHLAVI language. Later, the pronunciation of these two morphemes turned into *be-* and *ne-* and then the morpheme *ne-* changed into *na-*. But the pronunciation of the morpheme *ne-* is still current in the most of the areas of Iran like the examples below in LORI dialect in Boirahmad:

(14)

/na-j-ɑmad/	⟶	[nijɑmad]	'didn't come'
/na-j-ɑvard/	⟶	[nijɑvard]	'didn't bring'
/na-j-andɑxt/	⟶	[nijandɑxt]	'didn't shed'

(15) *EMPTY assign one violation mark for any consonant without a place specification.

TABLEAU. 16

/be+oftɑd/	ONS	HIATUS	*EMPTY	DEP
be.jof.tɑd				*
be.ʔof.tɑd			*!W	*
be.of.tɑd	*!W	*		

Glides, on the other hand, are typical hiatus breakers, occurring intervocalically in a large number of languages (e.g. Dutch, Booij, 1995; Korean, Kang, 1999; Czech, Rubach,2000 ; Sinhala, Smith, 2001; Japanese, Kawahara, 2002). Conversely, they seem to be rare as default epenthetic segments in word-initial position. Keep in mind, their usage is discrepancy together. [j] is commonly inserted in the context of a front vowel; [w] is inserted in the context of a back/round vowel. We will exemplify these epenthetic consonants later in this paper.

Generally, The IP of epenthetic consonants can occur in the following ways:

1. The epenthetic consonant /-g-/ only resolve hiatus in the following morphophonologic contexts (Sadeghi, 2002, pp. 34-35; Kambuziya, 2007, pp. 298-300):

a. after the vowel /e/ and before the noun-making suffix –i,

b. after the vowel /e/ and before the plural suffix -ɑn,

c. after the vowel /e/ and before the adverb-making suffix -ɑne,

d. sometimes after the vowel /ɑ/.

The use of epenthetic consonant [g] is shown by the examples below.

(17)

| [suxte] | 'burn' | ⟶ | [suxte-g-i] | 'schorch' |
| [Kohne] | 'old' | ⟶ | [kohne-g-i] | 'ancientry' |

[bande] 'slave' ⟶ [bande-g-ɑn] 'slaves'

[batʃe] 'child' ⟶ [batʃe-g-ɑne] 'childish'

[nijɑ] 'ancestor' ⟶ [nijɑ-k-ɑn] 'ancestors'

With respect to the example [nijakan] that Najafi (1999) has used it as [nijɑgɑn], it can state in which the phoneme /k/ has already been existed as a floating consonant in underlying representation and it refers to its historical considerations. So the historical considerations can be influenced on selecting of epenthetic segment in some cases. Also, it can refer to the following example in which the epenthetic consonant /k/ has been inserted:

(18)

[pelle] 'stair' ⟶ [pelle-k-ɑn] 'stairs'

Furthermore, the historical considerations manifests that some words in Middle Persian have had the consonant [g] as the final segment historically, but later [g] has been omitted and they end in /e/ in Persian language nowadays. For example, [zende] as [zendag]. But, as the aforementioned, by adding plural suffix /-ɑn/, nominalizer/adjectivizer suffix /-i/ and also the adverbializer /-ɑne/ to them, it inserts the so-called epenthetic [g] to resolve hiatus. As a result, it may be concluded that the so-called epenthetic [g] just emerges before three suffixes mentioned above.

2. Also, in Persian language the so called epenthetic [h] occurs only in the fixed forms below, i.e. when pronominal enclitics attach to the propositions *be* 'to' and *ba* 'with', as exemplified below.

(19)

/be-em/ ⟶ [be-h-em] 'to me

/be-et/ ⟶ [be-h-et] 'to you (Sing.)

/be-eš/ ⟶ [be-h-eʃ] 'to him/her

/be-emɑn/ ⟶ [be-h-emɑn] 'to us'

/be-etɑn/ ⟶ [be-h-etɑn] 'to you' (Pl.)

/be-ešɑn/ ⟶ [be-h-eʃɑn] 'to them'

(20)

/bɑ-ɑm/ ⟶ [bɑ-h-ɑm] 'with me'

/bɑ-ɑt/ ⟶ [bɑ-h-ɑt] 'with you' (Sing.)

/bɑ-ɑš/ ⟶ [bɑ-h-ɑʃ] 'with her/him'

/bɑ-ɑmɑn/ ⟶ [bɑ-h-ɑmɑn] 'with us'

/bɑ-ɑtɑn/ ⟶ [bɑ-h-ɑtɑn] 'with you' (Pl.)

/bɑ-ɑšɑn/ ⟶ [bɑ-h-ɑʃɑn] 'with them'

3. Based on morphological considerations, the epenthetic consonant /d/ is attached only in the forms below which just can occur in literary Persian (see Anvari, 2002, pp. 846-875). On the other hands, this epenthetic consonant occurs in the following contexts:

a. after the preposition /be-/ 'to' and before the demonstrative pronouns /ʔin/ 'this', /ʔɑn/ 'that'.

b. after the preposition /be-/ 'to' and before the personal pronouns /ʔu: / 'he/she', /ʔi:šan/ 'they'.

(21)

/be-in/ ⟶ [be-d-in] 'with this'

/be-ɑn/ ⟶ [be-d-ɑn] 'with that'

/be-u: / ⟶ [be-d-u] 'to him/her'

/be-i:šan/ ⟶ [be-d-i:ʃan] 'to them'

4. Sometimes the epenthetic consonant /v/ is used before the conjunction word /-o/ as exemplified below.

(22)

/lɑle-o-zanbaG/ ⟶ [lɑle-v (w)-o-zanbaG] 'tulip and lily'

/sɑrɑ-o-susan/ ⟶ [sɑrɑ-v (w)-o-susan] 'Sara and Susan' (Proper names)

/kɑhu-o- kalam/ ⟶ [kɑhu-v (w)-o- kalam] 'salad and cabbage'

/ʔɑjne-o-ša:mdɑn/ ⟶ [ʔɑjne-v (w)-o-ʃa:mdɑn] 'mirror and candlestick'

/mɑ-o-šomɑ/ ⟶ [mɑ-v (w)-o-ʃomɑ] 'we and you' (PL.)

/mardɑne-o-zanɑne/ ⟶ [mardɑne-v (w)-o-zanɑne] 'male and female'

Eventually [v] - epenthesis is also attached in a few fossilized forms before the attributive suffix /–i/ as exemplified below:

(23)

/kora-i/ ⟶ [kora-v-i] 'spherical'

/sɑri-i/ ⟶ [sɑra-v-i] 'from Sari' (a city in the north of Iran)

5. Should two consonants situate in the two-morpheme boundary sequentially and the vowel coming before them be long, the epenthetic vowel /e/ epenthesizs between them as exemplified below.

(24)

/jɑd-gɑr/ ⟶ [jɑd-e-gɑr] 'memorial'

/šɑd-mɑn/ ⟶ [ʃɑd-e-mɑn] 'happy'

/šɑd-mɑn/ ⟶ [ʃɑd-e-mɑn] 'happy'

/sɑz-mɑn/ ⟶ [sɑz-e-mɑn] 'organization'

/pɑd-gɑn/ ⟶ [pɑd-e-gɑn] 'soldiers home'

/sɑz-gɑr ⟶ [sɑz-e-gɑr] 'compatible'

/mɑnd-gɑr/ ⟶ [mɑnd-e-gɑr] 'persistent'

/sɑxt-mɑn/ ⟶ [sɑxt-e-mɑn] 'building'

/parvard-gɑr/ ⟶ [parvard-e-gɑr] 'God'

/pas-ban/ ⟶ [pɑs-e-bɑn] 'policeman

/pɑd-šɑh/ ⟶ [pad-e-ʃɑh] 'kinG

/Gahr-mɑn/ ⟶ [Gahr-e-mɑn] 'knight'

But the so-called epenthetic /e/ is optional at the two-morpheme boundary, so that some of the above words can be produced with no epenthetic /e/.

Moreover keep in mind, /e/- epenthesis doesn't apply in the following compound words at all, as exemplified below.

(25)

[gerdbɑd] 'tornado'

[mehrdɑd] 'Mehrdad' (proper name)

[mɑhrox] 'Mahrokh' (proper name)

[ʤɑndɑr] 'creature'

[fɑlguš] 'a person who eavesdrop'

[rɑstgu] 'truthful'

[kɑrsɑz] 'knifesmith'

[zargar] 'jeweller'

Obviously, the above words make up of two bases or stems. So, in this case it can be said that the rule of /e/-epenthesis only apply to those words made up of one base and suffix. Thus, it can conclude that the rule of /e/-epenthesis apply with respect to morphological considerations. In general, the rule of /e/-epenthesis will be explained in §6 below.

6. Sometimes /j/-epenthesis inserts after a vowel and before the morpheme /– e/ which is the sign of the so-called *Ezafe* - construction (genitive form) at the two morphemes boundary. On the other hand, if preceding morpheme ends in a vowel, then in this way [j]-epenthesis will be epenthesized and it will resolve the hiatus regardless of the quality of the preceding vowel, and there is no exception to this rule as exemplified below.

(26)

/na-ɑmad/ ⟶ [na-j-ɑmad] 'didn't come'

/xɑne-e-man/ ⟶ [xɑne-j-e-man] 'my home'

/hardo-e-šomɑ/ ⟶ [hardo-j-e-ʃomɑ] 'both of you'

/ʔɑzemɑ-eš/ ⟶ [ʔɑzemɑ-j-eʃ] 'expriment'

/patu-e-maxmal/ ⟶ [patu-j-e-maxmal] 'velvet blanket'

But unlike the above examples, if the preceding morpheme ends in a consonant, then /j/ won't be epenthesized as exemplified below.

(27)

[pesar-e-zerang] 'a clever boy'

[ketɑb-e-man] 'my book'

[ʃeʔ] 'he/she'

[r-e-nimɑ] 'Nima's poetry'

[fandak-e-sigɑr] 'cigarette light'

Najafi (1999) refers to the palatal glide [j] - epenthesis in the word [gu-j-ande] and believes that it inserts to resolve hiatus. But this paper rejects NAJAFI's claim and believes that, in such cases, [j] isn't an epenthetic consonant since /j/

exists in the underlying representation as a floating consonant. Furthermore, [j] or [ʤ] - epenthesis inserts before the plural suffixes [-ɑn,-ɑt] in Persian to resolve hiatus as exemplified below.

a. Plural morpheme [-ɑn].

i: ⟶ ij / + [-ɑn]

(28)

/rumi: +ɑn/	⟶	[rumij-ɑn]	'Romans'
/bɑni: +ɑn/	⟶	[bɑnij-ɑn]	'sponsors'
/ʔirɑni: + ɑn /	⟶	[ʔirɑnij-ɑn]	'Iranians'
/šiʔi: + ɑn/	⟶	[ʃiʔij-ɑn]	'shiahs'
/ʔɑšenɑ: ɑn/	⟶	[ʔɑʃenɑj-ɑn]	'familiars'
/nɑšenavɑ: + ɑn/	⟶	[nɑʃenavɑj-ɑn]	'deafs'
/dɑnɑ: + ɑn/	⟶	[dɑnɑj-ɑn]	'wises'
/binɑ: + ɑn/	⟶	[binɑj-ɑn]	'sights'
/dɑnešʤu: + ɑn/	⟶	[dɑneʃʤuj-ɑn]	'students'
/ʤangʤu: + ɑn/	⟶	[ʤangʤu-j-ɑn]	'fighters'

b. Plural morpheme [-ɑt].

i: ⟶ ij / + [-ɑt]

(29)

/mɑdi:-ɑt/	⟶	[mɑdij-ɑt]	'materials'
/robɑʔi:-ɑt/	⟶	[robɑʔij-ɑt]	'quatrians'
/masnavi:-t/	⟶	[masnavij-ɑt]	'couplet poems'
/maʔnavi:-ɑt/	⟶	[maʔnavij-ɑt]	'noumenon'

With respect to some examples above, also there is an epenthetic consonant in the phonological literature of Persian that is the voiced affricate [ʤ] taking place only before the plural morpheme [-ɑt]. This Arabic plural morpheme is synonymous to the plural suffix [-hɑ] in Persian. See the following examples in this case.

/sabzi:-ɑt/	⟶	[sabziʤ-ɑt]	'different vegetables'
/mive-ɑt/	⟶	[miveʤ-ɑt]	'different fruits'
/torši:-ɑt/	⟶	[torʃiʤ-ɑt]	'a variety of pickles'
/davɑ:-ɑt/	⟶	[davɑʤ-ɑt]	'a variety of medicines'

But Kambuziya (2006) states that since the high vowels [i:, u:] are long in Persian, so if they situate at the end of a word and simultaneously we add them the plural morpheme [-an] , in this case one part of the high vowel turns into its equal glide [j] or [w], the so-called 'devocalization'(p. 254). Thus the high vowels become short. However, should the left vowel in hiatus be /i/ or /u/, the equal glide /j/ or /w/ inserts respectively. See the example below.

(30)

[j]-epenthesis after a front vowel.   { i: ⟶ ij / —— + ɑn }

The following examples have been adapted from Sadeghi, 1986:

/arteʃi: +ɑn/	⟶	[ʔarteʃij-ɑn]	'soldiers'
/rohɑni: +ɑn/	⟶	[rohɑnij-ɑn]	'clergymen'
/dɑneʃgahi:ɑn/	⟶	[dɑneʃgahij-ɑn]	'collegiate'

(31)

[w]-epenthesis after a back vowel: { u: ⟶ uw / —— +ɑn }

/bɑzu: +ɑn/	⟶	[bɑzuw-ɑn]	'arms'
/ɑhu: +ɑn/	⟶	[ʔɑhuw-ɑn]	'deers'
/banu: +ɑn]	⟶	[banuw-ɑn]	'women'

VI. DATA ANALYSIS

In OT there is a principle the so-called input - output contiguity (IO-CONTIGUITY) based on which segments that are contiguous in the input must be contiguous in the output. Furthermore, in this theory, based on the faithfulness constraint, there should be some resemblance between the input and output to prevent from the creation of a structural gap between input and output. In other words, each phoneme at the left edge of the input must be corresponded with the

phoneme at the left edge of the output. So based on this constraint, consonant or vowel insertion intervocalically (like the examples in part B below), or between two consonants (like the examples in part C below) within the words is considered as a violation of this constraint in OT. In the examples below, the vowels located in the contiguity of a consonant (C₁) in the output are still contiguous with the same consonant but the segment at the left edge of the input is not correspondent with the segment at the left edge of the output and so in this case, it has been violated faithfulness constraint. In other words, the contiguity of the segment in the input and the output has not been violated but the correspondence between them has been violated.

a. Glottal stop insertion:

Since no word in Persian language should begin with a vowel, Based on Persian Syllable Structure, it should be inserted a glottal stop consonant /ʔ/ at the initial of words started with a vowel. In other words, so if a word begins with a vowel in Persian language, then the empty onset position should be filled with a glottal stop consonant. For example, an input form /eʤbɑr/ 'obligation' will surface as [ʔeʤbɑr] in Persian. Generally, Glottal stops are frequently found in the world's languages (for an overview, see Lombardi, 1997) to satisfy an onset requirement. Like the following examples shown in tableau (33):

(32)

/anvɑʔ/	⟶	[ʔanvɑʔ]	'types'
/eʤbɑr/	⟶	[ʔeʤbɑr]	'obligation'
/oftɑd/	⟶	[ʔoftɑd]	'fall'
/ɑvard/	⟶	[ʔɑvard]	'bring'
/istɑd/	⟶	[ʔistɑd]	'stand'
/ u:/	⟶	[ʔu]	'he/she'

TABLEAU. 33

/eʤbɑr/	ONS	DEP	IO – CONTIGUITY - VC	IO - CONTIGUITY
eʤbɑr	*!			
ʔeʤbɑr		*		*!

Glottal stops are inserted in otherwise onset less initial or stressed syllables; an input / eʤbɑr / 'obligation' will be realized as [ʔeʤbɑr]. EP can be modeled as a case of constraint interaction, more precisely, as interaction of two basic constraints, one markedness constraints which demands that first syllables have an onset, and a faithfulness constraint which bans epenthesis. These constraints are ONSET and DEP-IO, formalized below:

(34) ONSET syllables have onsets (Prince and Smolensky, 1993)

(35) DEP-IO output segments have a correspondent in the input (no epenthesis; McCarthy & Prince, 1995)

b. In the two-morpheme boundary, after the vowel / e / and sometimes after the vowel / ɑ /, usually it is used from the so-called epenthetic [g]. Like following examples in tableau (37) in which one of the constraints has been violated:

(36)

/suxte-i/	⟶	[suxte-g-i]	'burn'
/kohne- i/	⟶	[kohne-g-i]	'oldness'
/xofte- ɑn/	⟶	[xofte-g-ɑn]	'asleep people'
/ʔɑsude- i/	⟶	[ʔɑsude-g-i]	'convenience'

TABLEAU 37

/suxte+i/	ONS	hiatus	IO – CONTIGUITY - VC	IO - CONTIGUITY
suxte-i	*	*		
suxte-ʔ-i				
suxte-g-i				*

As shown in the tableau (37), a constraint*[ʔ] will prohibit a glottal stop from appearing in the output intervocalically within the word /suxte+i/; the second-least marked segment, dorsal [g], will then come to the rescue.

c. If two consonant locates at the border of two morphemes sequentially, and the vowel coming before those consonant to be long, then it should be inserted the vowel /e/ between those two consonant. As the following examples seen in tableau 4 below in which has been violated from the second constraint from OT's point of view, because under this approach, all elements of the input chain should be existed in the output while it can be seen in the following examples in which there is no correspondence between the chain elements of input and output:

(38)

| /jɑdgɑr/ | ⟶ | [jɑd-e-gɑr] | 'memorial' |
| /šɑdmɑn / | ⟶ | [ʃɑd-e-mɑn] | 'happy'' |

/sɑzmɑn/ ⟶ [sɑz-e-mɑn]   'organization'
/Gahrmɑn /⟶ [Ghahr-e-mɑn]   'knight'
/ ruzgɑr/ ⟶ [ruz-e-gɑr]   'period'
/pɑdšɑh/ ⟶ [pɑd-e-ʃɑh]   'king'

The above examples follow the rule below:

(39)

$$\emptyset \rightarrow e \quad / \quad \begin{cases} \text{V: C(C) + CVC} \\ \\ \text{VCC + CVC} \end{cases}$$
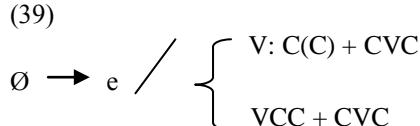
TABLEAU. 40

/jɑd+gɑr/	IO – CONTIGUITY - VC	V:C(C) + CVC	IO - CONTIGUITY
jɑd-e-gɑr			*
jɑd+gɑr		*!	

As shown in tableau (33) above, the candidate [ʔeʤbɑr] has violated the faithfulness constraint because the candidate /eʤbɑr/ has been turned into the candidate [ʔeʤbɑr] and it has been inserted the glottal stop consonant at the initial of it. Furthermore, both candidates [suxte-g-i] and [jɑd-e-gɑr] respectively shown in the tableau (37) and (40) have violated the faithfulness constraint, too.

VII. Conclusion

Based on Persian Syllabic Structure, there are nine epenthetic consonants in this language. On the basis of an Optimality-Theoretical analysis, in this paper we argued that since no word in Persian may begin with a vowel so that it must insert a glottal stop [ʔ] initially. Also, if an open syllable (i.e. the syllable ending with a vowel) places before a syllable starting with a front vowel, it creates a process which is related to hiatus. In Persian in order to resolve hiatus, an epenthetic consonant inserts between those two vowels. The property of this epenthetic consonant is this that it doesn't place in contrast with any other phoneme. Therefore, the presented study states that there are about nine epenthetic consonant, along with [ʔ]- insertion like; [h], [j], [g],[ʤ], [t], [d], [w] and [v] resolving hiatus.

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A Study of the Social Ecological Wisdom in H.W. Longfellow's Poetry

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Abstract—Under eco-criticism springing up as a literary, cultural and social criticism, which aims at exploring the relationships between literature, culture, society and natural environment to find out the ecological wisdom in literary works so as to awaken the ecological consciousness of the contemporaries, the present article mainly focuses on the great American poet and intellectual thinker, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow's poems on slavery to explore his social ecological wisdom. By reading Longfellow in the light of such eco-ethical ideas as everyman being equal: anti-slavery and the harmonious development between nature and human society: anti-anthropocentrism, it is not difficult to discover the legacy glittering with social ecological wisdom in Longfellow's poetry. Such wisdom is highly connected with Longfellow's "environmental niche". Nowadays, with the increasing deterioration and decaying of the environment, and the smoldering social discrimination, the social ecological wisdom implied in Longfellow's poetry is of tremendous significance.

Index Terms—eco-criticism, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, social ecological wisdom, "Environmental Niche"

I. INTRODUCTION

The 20th century has seen a great change in literary criticism due to the rapid development of the world economy, and the gradual change of world pattern and intellectual pattern. Especially in the 1960s and 1970s, the previous dominant formalist literary criticism surrenders itself to cultural literary criticism. Accordingly, the focus and interest of literary study has since swerved from the inner rhetoric literary study to the outer cultural and social contexts related to literature. Thus, cultural study as a promising and flourish trend of thought has joined itself in the repertoire of the social cultural criticism in modern times, where has observed the booming social studies, such as Marxism, Feminism, and post-colonialism.

Eco-criticism has sprung up as a literary, cultural and social study by virtue of the fact that since the 1960s, the Earth, our Mother Nature, has seen devastating changes, and the ecosystem in a vicious circle has been suffering myriads of ecological disasters, natural or human, manufacturing pollution, global warming, expanding population, acid rain, deforestation, desertification, irregular earthquakes and eruption of volcanoes, ozone layer depletion, and melting of polar glaciers, under which circumstance the human beings' dwelling on earth and all creatures at large thus have been in danger and under hazards as well. As a result of the ecological crisis, human beings have come to realize the importance of Mother Nature, and drawn attention to and take measures to put the earth under protection and care, and literary critics have since attempted to dig out the ecological wisdom in literature.

A. A Theoretical Introduction of Eco-criticism

Eco-criticism, as one of the cultural literary criticisms, originated in the USA in the one article named *Literature and Ecology: An Experiment in Ecocriticism* created by American scholar William Rueckert in 1978. He advocated applying the concept of ecology into literary research.[1]XIX By definition, eco-criticism, projecting a vivid view of interdisciplinary study by its academic term, is a literary, cultural, social and artistic study under the circumstance of ecology. The application of ecology to the literary studies is of multiple significance. It is eco-poetics, by attempting to explore literary ecology or applying the concept of ecology to the literary readings, teaching, and writing. But actually, 16 years before him, Rachel Carson, an eco-litterateur, the forerunner of eco-criticism as well as a biologist studying fish and wild creatures published her work *Silent Spring* which was considered as "the beginning of modern environmentalism"[2]25, which contains lots of knowledge of ecology, biology, and environmental science.

Entering the 1990s and 20th century, the development of eco-criticism and ecological literature has met its bloom.[3]7

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[1] Glotfelty, Cheryll & Haroltd Fromm (eds.). (1996).The Ecocriticism Reader: Landmarks in Literary Ecology. Athens & London: The University of Georgia Press.
[2] Maolin Chen.(2009). Poetic Dwelling: An Ecocritical Study of Henry David Thoreau. Zhejiang: Zhejiang University Press.
[3] Renzhe Lan.(2003). Romanticism, Nature and Ecocriticism. *Journal of Sichuan International Studies University*,5, 3-8.

It almost has touched every field and aroused environmental awareness and concern. The ecological issues are related not only to environment, but also to politics, economy, society, and even ethics. The application of ecology, a concept in the realm of natural science, to literary criticism is the realization of the marriage of literature and natural science. Under this marriage of science and humanity comes out a new mode of literary criticism in ecology, which is one of the important features in eco-criticism. In the technology-governed age, eco-criticism proceeds from the concerns of nature, and the ecosystem, and stretches the literary criticism to the range of nature and the ecosystem, which inevitably requires the interactive communication between literature and ecology in natural science and voluntarily arouses an interdisciplinary conversation. In this case, eco-criticism can reach its apogee. Several theories combining and integrating disciplines of the humanities and natural sciences are the important sources for eco-criticism. Edward O. Wilson offers the explanation of all the social behaviors based on the biological aspects of his *Theory of Sociobiology*. According to the *Gaea Theory* of another biologist, James Lovelock, the biosphere of the Earth, actively adjusts the environment, but not passively adapts itself to the environment. Therefore, the Earth has its own physiological course like an individual creature. [4]147

It is far from enough to dissolve the ecological crisis only based on natural science. It should also be participated in and guided by humanities. The mitigation or even phasing out of the ecological crisis requires unleashing the bondage of the narrow anthropocentrism and the deconstruction of traditional disciplines based on mechanism, dualism, and reductionism. Apart from the realization of transcendence between humanity and natural science, eco-criticism should also fulfill the transcendence among humanistic disciplines. The increasingly deteriorative environment boosts the increasing awareness of the protection of the ecosystem, as the concept of ecology has already infiltrated every field of humanities, such as literature, arts, culture, politics, economy, philosophy, ethics etc. Thus, the decaying of the ecosystem has become a common issue that the humanities must confront and deal with.

Literature, one discipline of social humanities and mirroring the relationship among nature, culture and human civilization in the perspective of literary criticism, also shoulders the burdens and responsibilities to tackle the ecological crisis, although the practice seems impractical, and yet it will definitely arouse the people's awareness of protecting the earth, our Mother Nature and casting off the narrow anthropocentrism to achieve a harmonious society.

According to Chen Maolin (2009,p.1), and Lu Shuyuan (2000,p.146), leading scholars in the field of ecological research in literature and art in China, they divide the eco-critic study into the three realms: natural ecology, social ecology, and spiritual ecology. The natural ecology mainly deals with the relationship within nature and between nature and man. The social ecology concentrates on the relationship within society, and between nature and society, which is in the present article called as eco-socialism to some extent. The spiritual ecology mainly focuses on the relationship within human minds among nature, society and spirit.

The present article mainly focuses on the American poet and intellectual thinker, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow's social ecological wisdom by exploring everyman being equal: anti-slavery, and the harmonious development between nature and human society: anti-anthropocentrism in his poems on slavery, although in his poetry he also shows his wisdom of other two realms.

B.   A Brief Introduction of H.W. Longfellow

Life is real—Life is earnest—
And the grave is not its goal;
…
Not enjoyment, and not sorrow,
Is our destined end or way;
But to act, that each to-morrow
Find us farther than to-day.
…
In the world's broad field of battle,
In the bivouac of Life,
Be not like dumb, driven cattle!
Be a hero in the strife!
…
Lives of great men all remind us
We can make our lives sublime,
And, departing, leave behind us
Footprints on the sands of time;
Let us, then, be up and doing,
With a heart for any fate;
Still achieving, still pursuing,
Learn to labor and to wait.

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The excerpt above, taken from Henry Wadsworth Longfellow's poem *A Psalm of Life*, is probably best embodied by what Longfellow fulfilled in his life.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807-1882), a famous American poet, was born to a lawyer family in Portland, Maine, United States. Quite rich as he was, he strived to study hard and fulfill his dream to be admitted to Bowdoin College at the age of 15, in the fall of 1822. Pursuing his literary goals by submitting poetry and prose to various newspapers and magazines, between January 1824 and his graduation in 1825, he had published nearly 40 minor poems. When he graduated from Bowdoin, he was ranked fourth in the class, and had been elected to Phi Beta Kappa, and gave the student commencement address. Like other writers and poets such as Nathaniel Hawthorne, and Edgar Allen Poe in his time, life seemed to play jokes with him. He had experienced two tragedies in his life, which made life and death as important themes for his future poems characterized by his humanity and social ecological wisdom towards the suffering slaves. In 1834, his first wife, Mary Storer Potter died of a miscarriage in Rotterdam, when he journeyed in Europe as a preparation before he took the chair of the Smith Professorship of Modern Languages in Harvard College. "He was deeply saddened by her death, writing 'One thought occupies me night and day... She is dead—She is dead! All day I am weary and sad' [5]". Three years later, he was inspired to write the poem *Footsteps of Angels* about her. The other tragedy is the death of his second wife, Frances Appleton, the daughter of a wealthy Boston industrialist. Perhaps his seven-year Long courtship of Frances Appleton foreshadowed their unhappy ending. In 1861, their happy life came to an end. Longfellow's wife died of burns she received when the envelope of her children's locks and curls, which she was sealing with matches and wax, burst into flame and spread to her dress. Devastated by her death, he expressed his grief in the sonnet *The Cross of Snow* (1879), which he wrote eighteen years later to commemorate her death:

Such is the cross I wear upon my breast
These eighteen years, through all the changing scenes
And seasons, changeless since the day she died.[6]

Longfellow faced the two bitterest tragedies of his life. However, he never succumbed to life and fate. He, the hero still continued striving in life. He undertook the task of translating Dante into English and wrote many lyrics, ballads, and epic poems, such as *Voices of the Night; The Courtship of Miles Standish; Evangeline: A Tale of Acadie, The Song of Hiawatha* etc. He was regarded as the first American to translate Dante Alighieri's *The Divine Comedy*. In his old age, he had received numerous honors. He was given honorary degrees at the great universities of Oxford and Cambridge, invited to Windsor by Queen Victoria, and called by request upon the Prince of Wales. He was also "the first American poet to achieve an international reputation [7]64", "the most popular living author in any genre in nineteenth-century America [8] 64" and enjoyed "a type of fame almost impossible to imagine by contemporary standards [9]64". When he died in 1882, the first American bust of him was put in the Poet Corner of Westminster Abbey.

II. LONGFELLOW'S SOCIAL ECOLOGICAL WISDOM

A. *Everyman Being Equal: Anti-Slavery*

Usually, the concept of everything being equal has been considered as a focus on the relationship between man and nature, while it is also focused on the relationship between human beings, that is, everyman being equal. As is known, human beings and any other creatures are all created equally and human beings have not any privilege or priority and are not superior to the latter. Therefore, human beings should treat everything not out of their own needs and benefits and meanwhile should not put everything of nature including human beings themselves in the conspicuous classification and hierarchy. Thus, the idea of putting human beings in the social hierarchy is an inexactitude. However, in the United States, the unfairness of putting human beings in the social hierarchy rests on the slavery system.

The first slaves arrived in Virginia around 1619, and slavery existed in America for the next 250 years. Africans made up the largest number of migrants to the New World during the colonial era, especially during the eighteenth century. During the four centuries of the Atlantic slave trade, an estimated 11 million Africans were transported to North and South America. In the United States, slaves had no rights. A slave could be bought and sold just like a cow or horse. Slaves had no say in where they lived or who they worked for. They had no representation in government. Slaves could not own property and were not allowed to learn or be taught how to read and write. Beginning in the 1750s, there was widespread sentiment that slavery was a social evil and should eventually be abolished, but even the Emancipation Proclamation of 1863 did not end slavery. Slavery continued in the states that were part of the Union forces. Slavery came to an end in 1865 when the 13th Amendment was ratified after the end of the Civil War. [10]

In his poems of slavery, Longfellow advocates the socially ecological balance within human beings themselves in sublimating the concept of everyman being equal, echoing the Chinese scholar Lu Shuyuan's (2000, pp.146-7) and Chen Maolin's (2009,p.1) idea of social ecology, as one of the three important levels to study ecology in the field of

[5] Anonymous. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Henry_Wadsworth_Longfellow.(accessed 6/ 1/2011).
[6] Ibid.
[7] Gioia, Dana. (2000). Longfellow in the Aftermath of Modernism. In Parini, Jay & Miller, Brett C (eds). *The Columbia History of American Poetry*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[8] Ibid
[9] Ibid
[10] Anonymous. Slavery in America. http://www.uen.org/themepark/liberty/slavery.shtml (accessed 6/1/2011).

eco-criticism, paying attention to the problems and conflicts within human beings. When human history enters a modern time, apart from the conflicts existing between human and nature, it also provokes equally serious problems between human beings themselves. It is the case of the slavery system in the USA in the Longfellow's time, even today still smoldering. The slavery system in essence is the hierarchical domination of the African Americans by the whites out of racial discrimination, and the deprivation of the Negro's human rights. To safeguard human freedom, Longfellow severely attacked the slavery system and his attitudes towards anti-slavery is mainly embodied in his 8 poems on slavery: *To William E. Channing, The Slaves Dream, The Good Part that Shall not Be Taken Away, The Slavery in the Dismal Swamp, The Slave Singing at Midnight, The Witness, The Quadroon Girl* and *The Warning*.

To William E. Channing is a poem Longfellow wrote in 1842 in testimony of his admiration for a great and good man when he heard of the death of Dr. Channing who was an abolitionist of slavery. As for *The Slave's Dream*, he eulogized the hardship, industriousness, and fortitudes of the slaves, and showed his sympathy for their hard and miserable life. He depicted a slavery dreamed a dream where he dreamed his journey back to his hometown in Africa and could have his freedom there, and "He did not feel the driver's whip,/ Nor the burning heat of day". How ironical it is!

In *The Slavery in the Dismal Swamp,* the poet compared the living situation of slaves to the dismal swamp:

Where will-o'-the-wisp and glow-worms shine,
In bulrush and in brake;
Where waving mosses shroud the pine,
And the cedar grows, and the poisonous vine
Is spotted like the snake;
Where hardly a human foot could pass,
Or a human heart would dare,
On the quaking turf of the green morass
He crouched in the rank and tangled grass,'
Like a wild beast in his lair.

The swamp is so dangerous and vile, even the human beings cannot pass. But who built this swamp? That is human beings themselves, more exactly the whites who think they are superior to the blacks. Who can save the slaves in this treacherous situation? Just as Longfellow, frustrated and sanguine, cried out in his poem *The Slaves Singing at Midnight*:

Paul and Silas, in their prison,
Sang of Christ, the Lord arisen,
And an earthquake's arm of might
Broke their dungeon-gates at night.
But, alas! What holy angel
Brings the Slave this glad evangel?
And what earthquake's arm of might
Breaks his dungeon-gates at night?

Paul and Silas in their prison can be saved by god when they pray, but can the slaves be equally saved when they pray too? In *The Warning*, Longfellow gave the whites a warning:

Beware! The Israelite of old, who tore
The lion in his path,—when, poor and blind,
He saw the blessed light of heaven no more,
Shorn of his noble strength and forced to grind
In prison, and at last led forth to be
A pander to Philistine revelry,—
Upon the pillars of the temple laid
His desperate hands, and in its overthrow
Destroyed himself, and with him those who made
A cruel mockery of his sightless woe;
The poor, blind Slave, the scoff and jest of all,
Expired, and thousands perished in the fall!
There is a poor, blind Samson in this land,
Shorn of his strength and bound in bonds of steel,
Who may, in some grim revel, raise his hand,
And shake the pillars of this Commonweal,
Till the vast Temple of our liberties.
A shapeless mass of wreck and rubbish lies.

He satirically and ironically attacked the slavery system and hoped it could be abolished, and admonished that the whites and the blacks should live equally, peacefully and harmoniously, or the whites in the end would destroy themselves in its overthrow by laying their hands upon the pillars of the temple, or if the whites failed to change the situation, the slaves would "raise their hand and shake the pillars of this Commonweal".

B.   The Harmonious Development between Nature and Human Society: Anti-anthropocentrism

As human beings suffer more ecological crisis nowadays than before, one may raise the questions, "What is the root cause?" Is that because human beings use lots of chemical pesticides? Is that because we use biological and chemical weapons during wars? Those are not the root causes. The root cause lies in human beings' sense of superiority, more exactly anthropocentrism, which is fostered by human society. They believe, human beings are more granted rights by god and more superior to any other creatures, the belief of which can be traced back to the western biblical legend of how God created human beings. In the bible, God creates the world by creating the day and night first, then plants and animals, and last human beings. Most importantly and differently, it is well and widely believed God bestows on human beings great priorities and privileges to use and control any other creatures. The belief that the existence of any other creatures rests on serving human beings has since been imprinted and carved in human's minds. [11] 9 Therefore, human beings proudly consider themselves as "the center" of the world. Lynn White, an eco-critic, has pointed out that Christianity not only establishes the dualism, separating human beings and nature, but also insists that the exploitation of nature is the will of God. [12]10 Driven by God's will, western countries have since put nature under control and exploitation out of the benefits and needs of human beings, just as William Rueckert has noted that the tragic flaw of human beings rests on the outlook of anthropocentrism, which guides human beings to conquer, tame, invade and exploit every entity of nature. [13]113

When the history of human civilization wheels into the period of the Renaissance initiated in Europe, which advocates humanism, people enthusiastically cries out "Conquer Nature, Command nature, Control nature". The Three-C belief promotes and justifies human beings to continue exploiting nature with a sense of superiority. As human history moves into modern civilization, with the development of science and technology, people have ushered their unprecedented victory over nature. Victory? No. That is not a victory, for nature, black and blue, has revenged more bitterly on human beings.

It cannot be denounced and doubted that anthropocentrism has played its significant and remarkable role in the progress of human civilization, and yet it also brings human beings lots of detriments, and puts us under an ecological crisis. Nowadays, as the increasing threats to the existence of human beings that ecological crisis brings, the outlook of anthropocentrism has been challenged and criticized, and it also forces people to reconsider the relationship between human beings and nature. Lots of eco-critics (Glotfelty, 1996; Coup, 2000; Wang Nuo, 2003; and Chen Maolin,2009) advocate and consider anti-anthropocentrism as one solution to alleviate or phase out the ecological crisis. Only by abandoning the doctrines of anthropocentrism can human beings survive the crisis and live peacefully and harmoniously on earth. As a new outlook of eco-criticism, anti-anthropocentrism, the denouncement of anthropocentrism justifies the role of nature and regards human beings like any other creatures in nature as parts of the ecosystem on earth. Humans and nature are interrelated and interactive. That means how human beings treat nature is just the way they will be treated by nature.

The perception of anti-anthropocentrism, another ecological wisdom of Longfellow is conspicuously shown in his poems where nature is awesome, august and incontrollable to him. For instance, in *Woods in Winter*, he depicts a doleful and awesome picture of the winter. The original lines run like this:

When winter winds are piercing chill,
And through the hawthorn blows the gale,
With solemn feet I tread the hill,
That overbrows the lonely vale.

The poet seemingly treads the hill solemnly, but in a hidden sense, he is nothing but a week entity in the eyes of nature. Human beings cannot control the piercing chill, cannot change the fate of the lonely vale, even he treads the hill solemnly. Then, he continues:

Where, from their frozen urns, mute springs,
Pour out the river's gradual tide,
Shrilly the skater's iron rings,
And voices fill the woodland side.

In this treacherous changing season, the mute springs come out from the vale like a frozen urn, and pour out the river's gradual tide. Human beings are helpless in front of it but like a skater skates on the ice echoing the scene of winter. Here, it seems Longfellow points out a path for human beings to eliminate the ecological crisis that human beings should adapt themselves flexibly to nature and become friends with nature, just as he concludes at the end of the poem:

Chill airs and wintry winds! My ear
Has grown familiar with your song;
I hear it in the opening year,
I listen, and it cheers me long.

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[11] Glotfelty, Cheryll & Haroltd Fromm (eds.). (1996).The Ecocriticism Reader: Landmarks in Literary Ecology. Athens & London: The University of Georgia Press.
[12] Ibid.
[13] Ibid.

If human beings cast off the skin of anthropocentrism in front of nature, nature will become friends and live harmoniously with them. It will fulfill the balance between nature and human society.

III. THE ORIGIN OF LONGFELLOW'S SOCIAL ECOLOGICAL IDEAS: THE INERASABLE INFLUENCE OF AMERICAN SOCIAL UPHEAVAL IN THE MIDDLE 19TH CENTURY

Like any other creatures, human beings are also living in and getting influenced by the "environmental niche". The term "niche", coined by Charles Elton in the late 1920s, refers to "the place a species occupies in the biotic community" [14]31 or the environmental structure and condition which can maintain the life of a species. [15]204 and "tells us that every entity, whether human or nonhuman, plays its unique role in keeping the integrity, stability and beauty of an ecosphere, and therefore every entity possesses intrinsic worth. [16]31" More often than not eco-critics utilize the theory of "niche" to investigate the development of a litterateur or an artist. The niche to human beings is much more complicated than to any other creatures governed by temperature, moisture, food, light, space, time etc. As a litterateur, he or she should not only be affected by his material and political conditions, but also be influenced by his or her culture, custom, value, and spiritual surroundings. And the latter would affect him or her more than the former. The present part is going to probe into the origin of Longfellow's ecological ideas by sub-exploring the living environment of Longfellow: the inerasable influence of American social upheaval in the middle of 19th century.

Longfellow lived most of his life in the 19th century, where the USA underwent a tough time from an agricultural country to the industrial one. This special time led to the easy burst of every contradictory and triggering force. In the middle of the 19th century, exactly from 1861 to 1865, the USA saw the civil war between the North and the South on the issue of slavery. After the war, America developed at skyrocketing speed and saw the economic boom as well as faced fierce competition. In order to struggle to live, people tried everything they could. Behind the boom were large numbers of bloods, poverty, and misery. Capitalism brought about the financial crisis, the social upheavals, and the increasing unemployment. At the same time, the accomplishment of west movement had enlarged the gap between dream and reality. Nearly the whole society was under the dark cloud of frustration, disillusion, dissatisfaction, and resistance. The social ecosystem of the USA was in disconcerting unbalance, which inevitably would affect the spiritual ecology. That is why Longfellow turned to his poems to mediate on and confess the wrong doings of human beings, destructing the anthropocentrism and show his attitude of anti-slavery. "Longfellow, from the beginning of his career, was vigorous in his condemnation not just of slavery but of racial inequality in general." (Irmscher,2009,p.109) Just as during the 1860s, Longfellow supported abolitionism and especially hoped for reconciliation between the northern and southern states after the American Civil War, he wrote in his journal in 1878: "I have only one desire; and that is for harmony and a frank and honest understanding between North and South"[17]. Meanwhile he called on people in response to the call of nature in his poem *Sunrise on the Hills*:

If thou art worn and hard beset
With sorrows, that thou wouldst forget,
If thou wouldst read a lesson, that will keep
Thy heart from fainting and thy soul from sleep
Go to the woods and hills! No tears
Dim the sweet look that Nature wears.

According to Longfellow, if human beings feel weary, dreary, and sorrowful, and tired of the life in society, the woods which represent nature will embrace our heart from fainting, and our soul from sleep. Thus, we will get the sweetness from nature.

IV. CONCLUSION

Out of the worsening global ecological crisis, and under the influence of the upsurge of environmental preservation movements as well as indifferences among the human beings, such as the still smoldering discrimination towards the blacks in the USA or the contempt on poor people from the riches all over the world, studying the poems on slavery of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow in the eco-critical aspect is highly and significantly relevant. Meanwhile, eco-criticism, as a cultural literary critical school sprouting early in the 1970s, and making its presence felt in literary circles in the 1990s, which is focused on ecological balances with the awakening of ecological consciousness as its central task, and on the study of the relationship between literature, culture, and environment, has also availed us of another way to study him.

Despite the fact that Henry Wadsworth Longfellow in a strict sense didn't really compose what eco-critics call "Ecological Writing", nor was he like the environmentalists calling on people to protect nature and the ecosystem directly, yet it will not be an impediment for us to read him in the perspective of eco-criticism.

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[14] Maolin Chen.(2009). Poetic Dwelling: An Ecocritical Study of Henry David Thoreau. Zhejiang: Zhejiang University Press.

[15] Shuyuan Lu.(2000).Ecological Literature and Art Studies. Xi'an: Shaanxi People's Education Press.

[16] Maolin Chen. (2009). Poetic Dwelling: An Ecocritical Study of Henry David Thoreau. Zhejiang: Zhejiang University Press.

[17] Anonymous. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Henry_Wadsworth_Longfellow#Later_life_and_death (accessed 6/1/2011).

Setting Longfellow in the framework of eco-criticism, this paper has explored his ecological wisdom in his poems on slavery. As a common dweller on earth, he presents myriads of social ecological and ethic illumination and thoughts in pursuit of the ecological balance between nature and society, and even within human beings themselves. Under his ecological wisdom on human society, he concentrated on everyman being equal and his attitude on anti-slavery. He, like his contemporaries Henry David Thoreau, Edgar Allen Poe, criticized the slavery system, and anthropocentrism. The doctrine of anti-slavery and anthropocentrism is not acceptable and agreeable. In addition, the paper also probes into the origin of Longfellow's social ecological ideas in the angles of the living environment of Longfellow: the inerasable influence of American social upheaval in the Middle 19th Century.

Under the circumstance of the deterioration of ecosystem, the attempt to study Longfellow's social ecological wisdom is highly relevant. His social ecological wisdom, which comes to remind human beings of respecting, protecting and caring for other persons as well as nature, will provide a blueprint for human beings to develop a harmonious society, and "live a poetic life[18]" by reconsidering the relationships within human beings, between nature and human beings, between nature and society, and between nature and human spirit. Only in the pursuit of harmonious co-existence in society and the peaceful and symbiotic development of nature and culture, and the balance between nature and human spirit, can the ecosystem operate in the virtuous circle and can human beings live a congenial life and poetically dwell on earth.

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     *All the poems quoted in this article are from *The Complete Poetic Works of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow* by Longfellow, Henry Wadsworth. (1899). Boston and New York: Houghton Mifflin.

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[18] "Living a poetical life" one of the ideas and goals of eco-criticism, originally appeared in the poem of the German poet named Friedrich Holderlin (1770-1843). The original lines go like this: "Full of merits, yet poetically, man/Dwells on this earth." Later, the expression "poetically man dwells" has become well-known through the interpretation and evaluation of Martin Heidegger (1889-1976), a famous German philosopher in the field of existentialism. It has three aspects of its connotation: preservation, freedom, and harmony. That means that "all the natural entities on earth including human beings exist together freely, peacefully, and harmoniously." (Quoted from Chen Maolin 2009, p.2)

Measuring Balanced Bilingual Children with Sentence-embedded Word Translation

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Abstract—This paper reports two studies. The first one investigates how two 10-year-old Taiwanese-Hungarian balanced bilingual twin boys translated sentence-embedded words between their native languages over a six-month period as the physical context around them changed. The second one compares how these two bilinguals and four monolingual children defined words in their native languages. The purpose is twofold: to explore the role of an active language in translation, and to propose a new measurement for bilinguals. The reaction time (RT) and accuracy of their verbal protocols were measured and analyzed. The bilingual children's word translation reveals an active use of metalinguistic skills. The physical context did affect their RT and accuracy in general and in translating concrete/abstract concepts. The two bilinguals defined words as fast and accurate as their monolingual peers in both languages, but different definition aspects were identified from the answers of the two groups. The translation/definition task appears a comprehensive measurement for bilingual and monolingual children with any combination of languages.

Index Terms—balanced bilingual, lexical access, active language, word translation, word definition, metalinguistic competence

I. INTRODUCTION

Translating requires a thorough understanding of the concepts in the source language (SL), and demands the ability of finding appropriate equivalents in the target language (TL). For many foreign language learners, translating between their native language (L1) and the foreign language(s) (L2) is a highly demanding task till a later stage of their learning process. This is dbecause adequate translating requires an individual to transfer texts/utterances equivalently not only at the linguistic level, but at various sociolinguistic levels according to a given purpose with regard to communicative functions, styles, audiences, and other factors (Nida, 1976). For many bilingual children, translating between their two native languages is part of their everyday experience (Grosjean, 1982). Two major translation tasks performed by bilingual children are: translating between the home language and the societal one(s), and translating between different languages spoken within the family. The first task often occurs in immigrant families when the parents are not competent in using the majority language of the host country. In this case, the children receiving mainstream education often translate for their language-minority parents for daily business (Malakoff & Hakuta, 1991).

The second task is usually performed by bilingual children of a multilingual family (MF), in which two or more languages are used on daily base. The languages in the pool include the different native languages of the parents (hence, N1, N2,…, etc.), the societal language (if it is different from the two parents' Ns), and even some other foreign/second languages being learned by family members (hence, F1, F2,…, etc.) (Kao, 2008). When the parents have different Ns, more than one language is used by the core and/or extended families. Consequently, switching and translating between theses languages is common practice in an MF. Those who speak more languages, often assume the role of the translators. MF children monitor and later practice this role from their early ages.

Accessing MF children has become a fairly complex issue in the field of multilingual research and education, since there are so many possible combinations in terms of family/cultural backgrounds, amount and types of exposure to Ns, kinds and natures of Ns, physical environments, and social contexts (Baker, 2011; Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 1999; Grosjean, 1982). We are interested in how balanced MF bilingual children translate between the two Ns, especially when the external linguistic environment (LE) changes. In addition, we also hope to verify the so-called balanced state of a bilingual by analyzing and comparing the verbal performance made by bilingual and monolingual children of similar age. Ultimately, we hope to establish a comprehensive procedure for evaluating bilingual children of any age with any language combination.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Translation, Lexical Access and Bilingualism

Translation studies were traditionally product-oriented, emphasizing the discrepancy between the source texts and the written outcomes by professional translators. Nevertheless, translators and researchers tend to agree that translation competence is the result of a developmental process that never ends. Three developmental translating hypotheses have been proposed and they all took bilingualism into account.

The first hypothesis, initiated by Harris (1977) and Harris and Sherwood (1978), suggests that bilinguals perform translation naturally in everyday circumstances without being trained for. This hypothesis proposes that bilinguals possess an innate sense of translating, which develops continuously as they grow up. However, this hypothesis ignores the fact that not all early bilinguals develop equivalent competence in their Ns as they grow older, and thus it fails to explain how the innate sense of translation stops developing for unbalanced bilinguals (see Kaya, 2007, Lörscher, 1992, and Toury, 1995 for critiques). The second hypothesis, proposed by Toury (1995), approaches translating from a socio-cultural perspective and emphasizes the critical roles of other factors, such as the translator's motivation, personality, purpose of translation, and even responses from the interlocutors. Toury (1995) explained that during the socialization process, bilingual children develop certain strategies to fill the gaps due to their not-yet-perfect language proficiency.

The third hypothesis, proposed by Lörscher (1992), suggests that once "an individual has an even partial command of two or more languages, elementary mediations between them become possible" (p. 150). Lörscher (1992, 1996) found from the think-aloud protocols that the participants translated in two different manners: sign-oriented and sense-oriented. With a sign approach, one transfers SL segments by focusing on their lexical entries, and accesses their lexical correspondences in the TL. Sense-oriented translation, on the other hand, is a process of first separating the SL sense from its sign(s) and then representing the TL sense with a sequence of TL signs. This process requires the translator to search within appropriate situational and contextual sense ranges of the source text, and also to map sense(s) between languages. Interestingly, Lörscher (1992, 1996) found that, primarily, professional translators took the sense-oriented approach, while novice L2 learners used the sign-oriented approach toward translation. As to the bilingual children who had not received much training in translation, the rudimentary mediation was more or less sense-oriented. Lörscher's hypothesis perceives the development of translation competence as a continuum with total sign-oriented approach and total sense-oriented approach at the two ends, and the translator's needs and desires for communication determine the proportion of the two approaches to be used during the process. In other words, bilingual children live and grow with these needs and desires, rather than being born with particular abilities.

Lörscher's sense-vs. sign-translation hypothesis concurs with the two-level translation process proposed by Malakoff and Hakuta (Malakoff, 1992; Malakoff & Hakuta 1991). Malakoff and Hakuta (1991) pointed out that a translator must "apprehend and convey the meaning of the source language text, [and then] must formulate an appropriate target-language sentence structure in which to embed this meaning" (p. 149). Therefore, appropriate translation requires not only one's linguistic knowledge of the two languages, but also one's ability in reformulating a message from SL to TL. Malakoff and Hakuta (1991) suggested that the successful outcome of reformulating between two languages is the result of proper application of one's metalinguistic skills. The concept of metalinguistic competence was clarified by Bialystok (1991, 2001), who defined it as the sense and ability to systematically analyze the structure of a language and to properly control the process of applying the structure in language use. This is a higher domain than oral and literate use of a language in terms of cognitive demands (Bialystok, 2001) and may develop independently in a bilingual's two Ns (Cummins, 1991). Bialystok (2007) also proposed that bilingual children need to develop a cognitive mechanism from their early age to control their attention on the production process of their Ns. Lising (2008) supported the critical role of metalinguistic ability in bilingual translation because translation utilizes all modes of reformulating a message from one language to another. Lising (2008) found that his subjects' reading comprehension on a text increased after they translated it from one language to another.

Psycholinguists have long been interested in how concepts are decoded, processed, and articulated. One influential speech production theory was proposed by Levelt and his colleagues (Levelt, 1989; Levelt et al., 1991; Levelt et al., 1999; Meyer, 1992). Levelt's theory, depicting monolingual lexical access by native speakers, incorporates a three-level feedforward activation network. The three levels from top to down are: (1) 'concept stratum', a single collection place for our conceptualized experiences; (2) 'lemma stratum', the storage place of lexical entries along with applicable inflections; and (3) 'form stratum', representing morphemes and their phonemic segments (Levelt et al. 1999, p. 4). According to this network, when a speaker intends to produce a word, she/he first gets into the conceptual phase in which relevant semantic choices are activated until a selection is made. The selected concept then enters the lemma stratum, where the syntactic features of the lexical entry, such as speech part, gender, and all possible inflections get activated. Having selected the syntactic word, the speaker encodes its morpho-phonological makeup, metrical shape, and segmental makeup before articulation sets forth. Most importantly, Levelt suggested that natural languages are processed along universal constrains. De Bot (2000) adapted Levelt's model for L2 lexical processing and suggested that there should be a separate formulator and a lexicon for each language under one large system which stores all information, with linguistic labels for all the languages. To verify speech production process across languages, Bates et al. (2003) conducted a cross-linguistic study on timed naming 520 selected picture stimuli in seven languages (including Hungarian and Mandarin Chinese), and found that lexical concepts were more or less equally accessible across the seven languages, regardless word structure and frequency.

Kroll and her colleagues proposed a "revised hierarchical model", depicting L2 learners' asymmetric translation performance from L1 to L2 (known as forward translation) versus from L2 to L1 (known as backward translation) (Kroll & Stewart, 1994; Kroll et al., 1998; Kroll & Tokowicz, 2001). This model suggests a triangular connection between L1, L2, and a common concept area. Words in L1 and in L2 are interconnected by lexical links directly, or through the media of concepts, indirectly. Kroll and Tokowicz (2001) suggested that lexical links are stronger from the backward direction, but the conceptual links are stronger from the forward direction. This model is based on comparison between the participants' reaction times (RTs) of naming pictures in both L1 and L2, and their RTs of translating single words in both directions. Many studies had been conducted in similar manner with participants of various L2 proficiency levels, language combinations, and tasks, and generally agreed that as the participants' L2 proficiency level increases, the asymmetry between the forward and backward translation diminishes (de Groot et al., 1994; de Groot & Poot, 1997; Ferré et al., 2006). Research findings also suggest that translation is faster for concrete than for abstract words (de Groot et al., 1994) and that concrete words were easier to learn and less susceptible to forgetting than abstract words (de Groot & Keijzer, 2000). However, counter evidence was found by La Heij et al. (1996), who suggested no difference between the two directions in single word translation. La Heij et al. (1996) proposed that both translation directions were conceptually mediated; only concept activation was easier for L1 than for L2 words.

Note that the participants in these studies were mostly L2 learners with various L2 proficiency levels, learning backgrounds and combination of languages. Since the L2 proficiency was evaluated with different means across these studies, comparing these results is difficult. In addition, psychological experiments of this type usually use single words/pictures without linguistic contexts, or nonsense/pseudo words paired up with real words in the subjects' native language as the stimuli. Though these stimuli are well controllable for laboratory experiments, they do not reflect communication purposes, and restrict the range of applicable source words.

B. Language Modes and External Contexts

In terms of speech production, bilinguals, though possessing the ability of speaking two (or more) languages, have to decide which language(s) to use at a given time with a particular context. Two theories have been proposed to explain the process: Green's inhibitory control model (Green, 1998; 2000) and Grosjean's language mode continuum model (Grosjean, 2000; 2001). Green (2000) suggested that bilinguals do not switch on and off a language randomly, but that their languages have different levels of activation in the lemma system. Whether one language is selected depends on if it plays an active role in the on-going process of language production. The activation levels are controlled by the linguistic resources available. Insufficient resources may result in production errors, switching from one language to another, or mixing the languages available. Grosjean (2001) approached the language production process from a more contextual aspect, defining language modes as "the state of activation of the bilingual's languages and language processing mechanisms at a given point in time" (p.3). Grosjean (2001) proposed that bilinguals make speech production along a continuum with monolingual mode and bilingual mode at the two ends. Bilinguals can decide to move toward the monolingual mode by activating only one of the two languages as the base language; they can also move toward the bilingual mode with both languages activated. An example of activating the monolingual mode is when a bilingual sticks to one language when speaking to a monolingual; the bilingual can also activate both languages when speaking to another competent bilingual with the same Ns.

Green's theory is built upon the linguistic availability in one's lemma structure, while Grosjean's model explains the bilingual behavior of switching languages by the bilingual's perception toward some external contexts, such as physical locations, appropriateness for particular topics, formality, and interlocutors' backgrounds. To verify these two different views, Dewaele (2001) invited 25 adult trilinguals with Dutch as their native language and French and English as their common foreign languages to take part in two types of interview in French: casual conversation and formal oral exam. The results show the formality of the situation was a critical factor for the participants in deciding what language mode to choose. During the formal interviews, fewer code-switches were identified, suggesting a move toward the monolingual mode. This study supports Grosjean's model rather than Green's theory from the findings that language learners consciously monitor and activate certain language(s) according to external contexts.

C. Measuring Bilingualism

How to assess bilingual children and identify their proficiency levels of the claimed Ns has been a concern among educators and parents. Bilinguals are measured for a variety of purposes: placement, distribution, selection, and so forth. In many cases, bilinguals are measured with standardized tests originally designed for language learners (for example, IELTS in the UK, see Baker, 2011). The standardized tests usually measure language skills and predict literacy in one particular language, but may not be suitable for young children, especially who have not developed adequate literacy in their Ns. Neither do these tests take into account the test-takers' various cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

To overcome these disadvantages, some bilingual measurements have been designed and implemented, for example, the revised version of Woodcock Language Proficiency Battery, Bilingual Syntax Measure I and II (BSMI & II), IDEA Proficiency Tests (IPT), the Bilingual Verbal Ability Tests (BVAT), Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey (WMLS, Woodcock & Muñoz-Sandoval, 1993) (see Gindis, 1999; Valdés & Figueroa, 1994 for reviews of these tests). These standardized measurements employ procedures, such as picture naming, verbal analogies, letter/word identification, and

dictation, to evaluate test-takers' oral vocabulary, synonyms, reading, spelling, and other areas related to cognitive academic language proficiency. These standardized tests can be used with very young children; however, they also require strict administrative procedures and are not available for an arbitrary combination of languages (such as Chinese and Hungarian). Recent studies call for alternative measurements, including various kinds of surveys (Baker, 2008; 2011) and discourse analysis on speech/interaction data (Thordardottir et al., 2006; Wei & Moyer, 2008) to better portrait a holistic picture of bilinguals from the aspects of linguistic contexts, social backgrounds, self-perception, and authentic language use.

Laija-Rodr ǵuez et al. (2007) suggested that bilingual measurements must not assess the test-taker's Ns separately, because cross-linguistic factors could influence language production in either direction and thus lead to biased interpretation of the test-taker's real proficiency in the Ns. According to Green (2000), translation is a unique measurement for bilinguals because when translating bilinguals must access the two languages simultaneously, while during the production of one language, bilinguals need to inhibit one of the Ns to avoid code-switch.

III. THE STUDIES

This paper reposts two studies. The first study investigates how two Taiwanese-Hungarian 10-year-old twin boys translated sentence-embedded words in their two Ns in different LEs. We are interested in answering the following questions. How can the translation be adequately assessed and systematically quantified? How well do they translate in each direction in terms of RT and accuracy in general. Does word concreteness play a role in their performance? What impact does the LE have on their translation performance? What do we call directions at all?

The second study investigates how two Chinese and two Hungarian monolingual children defined the same set of words in their native languages, compared to how the two bilingual children defined words. Our two goals are to set a comparison basis for assessing bilingual children and to provide justification for assessing the balanced status of MF children's proficiency in their two Ns.

A. Study One: Bilingual Translation

The participants

The two participants, Levi and Oli (their nick names), are non-identical twin brothers, born in a Taiwanese-Hungarian multilingual family. Before 4 years of age, they lived together with their parents in Taiwan with once-a-year summer visit to Hungary. Their parents adopted the "one-parent-one-language" principle within the family since they were born. Their Taiwanese mother spoke Mandarin Chinese (hence, Chinese) and their Hungarian father spoke Hungarian to them. After 4, they took turn living with their parents in Taiwan and with a host family in Hungary for the purpose of receiving formal education at regular kindergartens and primary schools in both countries. While they were in Taiwan, their active language was Chinese. There was no other Hungarian speaker nearby, so they only used Hungarian with their father. While they were in Hungary, they spoke Hungarian exclusively and maintained their Chinese with their mother via once-a-week Internet conversation. Some special arrangements were made to help the two children cope with the change of schools and living environments with cooperation from the school authorities in the two countries, and from the Hungarian host family. Their school reports show that they possessed native proficiency in both languages across all academic subjects corresponding to their age.

The contexts

The study took place during a period when the children exchanged their base countries. Three test sessions were held with an interval of two months. Session 1 was held when Levi had stayed continuously in Hungary, and Oli in Taiwan, for about one year and ten months. The external LE and the active language for Levi and Oli were Hungarian and Chinese, respectively. Session 2 was held two months after Session 1. The external LE and the active language remained the same for both children. Session 3 took place two months after Session 2. Session 3 was remarkable because it occurred three weeks after the two children exchanged their base countries. Thus, the external LE and the active language for Levi became Chinese and for Oli, Hungarian.

Each of the three test sessions contained two similar tests: a Chinese-to-Hungarian test (hence, C-H test), and a Hungarian-to-Chinese test (hence, H-C test). After conducting the tests, we realized that C-H and H-C do not represent directions themselves due to the subjects' balanced proficiency. The language used in the society provided an LE, which determined the active language of the children. When they translated from the inactive into the active language, we call it a "translating-into" task; for the other way around, we call it a "translating-away" task. For example, an H-C test in Session 1 for Levi was a "translating-away" task, but a "translating-into" task for Oli. Tables I and II summarize the relationship between the external LE and the tasks performed by the two children. The "translating-away" tasks are *italicized* in the tables.

TABLE 1
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE EXTERNAL LANGUAGES USED BY LEVI AND THE TRANSLATION TASKS

Session / Test type	Session 1 External language Hungarian	Session 2 External language Hungarian	Session 3 External language Chinese
H-C Test	*Translating-away*	*Translating-away*	Translating-into
C-H Test	Translating-into	Translating-into	*Translating-away*

TABLE 2
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE EXTERNAL LANGUAGES USED BY OLI AND THE TRANSLATION TASKS

Session	Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Test type	External language Chinese	External language Chinese	External language Hungarian
H-C Test	Translating-into	Translating-into	*Translating-away*
C-H Test	*Translating-away*	*Translating-away*	Translating-into

Instrumentation

To reflect the complexity of translation for communication, we designed a sentence-embedded word translation task, which ensured the initialization of a word within the concept stratum. This design allowed us to use words without ambiguity, caused by one-to-multiple equivalents across languages. Each test contained 18 sentences that were read to the child one at a time and the source word for translation was repeated afterwards. The child then verbally translated the word from the SL into the TL. No graphic or written representations were involved during the tests. If the children did not give any response within the initial 15 seconds, they were encouraged to translate the entire sentence. A brief follow-up interview was conducted after each test session. In the interview, the child was encouraged to explain how he reached some of his answers, and to discuss his problems with the words he was not certain about. The tests and the interviews were audio-recorded for analysis and scoring.

The 18 questions contain two even groups of words: concrete and abstract concepts. Extracts 1 and 2 exemplify an H-C and a C-H test, respectively. All the source words were selected from the textbooks used by the two schools in their previous grades to assure word comprehensibility and frequency for age-matched native children of the two languages.

Extract 1. An example question in H-C Test 3.

Question: A rendőrök kötelessége, hogy a biztonságunkra vigyázzanak. (kötelesség)

Literal meaning: The duty of policemen is to protect our safety.

Source word: kötelesség (duty) Abstract

Extract 2. An example question in C-H Test 2.

Question: 螢火蟲是森林裡的燈籠 (燈籠)

Ying2-huo3-chong2 shi4 sen1-lin2 li3 de0 deng1-long2. (deng1-long2)

Literal meaning: Lighting bugs are the lanterns of the forest.

Source word: 燈籠 deng1-long2 (lantern) Concrete

The Scoring System

Each question was scored in two aspects: the RT and the accuracy of the answer. Following the trend in analyzing natural speech, the RT was measured by 1/100 seconds and was represented by 1/10 seconds accuracy. In the case of no response in the first 15 seconds, the RT was counted as 15 seconds. To measure the accuracy of the answer, a five-point scale was developed, with 5 as the highest and 0 as the lowest score. Each answer was scored using the following five binary categories: (a) part of speech, (b) opposite, (c) self-made, (d) sentence-fit, and (e) specificity.

Category (a), part of speech, adds one point to the score if the answer's speech part corresponds to that of the source word. Category (b), opposite, adds one point to the score if the answer does not involve the antonym of the source word. In this way we penalized opposite meaning, double negation, and avoidance. Category (c), self-made, adds one point to the score if the answer does not contain words made up by the child. Making up words is often the consequence of word-by-word translation, which is frequently found among novice L2 learners (Lörscher, 1992). Category (d), sentence-fit, adds one point to the score if replacing the source word with the answer yields a native-like sentence, even if it differs from the intended answer. Category (e), specificity, adds one point to the score if the answer belongs to the correct semantic class and carries the exact semantic features of the source word. To sum up, categories (a), (d), and (e) are of "rewarding" types, while categories (b) and (c) are of "punishing" types. The two researchers scored the tests independently according to their mother tongues.

B. Study Two: Monolingual vs. Bilingual Definition

The participants and contexts

To set a basis for measuring bilingual children and to evaluate the difficulty levels of the tests, we invited two monolingual Hungarian and two monolingual Chinese children of similar age to perform a definition test (denoted by H-H and C-C, respectively). Levi and Oli also performed the same H-H and C-C definition tests. The two Hungarian children, were Levi and Oli's common friends in Hungary, while the two Chinese children were Levi and Oli's classmates in Taiwan. Thus, there were four participants for the H-H tests, and four for the C-C tests, respectively. The tests were conducted 6 months after Session 3 of Study One and the procedures were audio-recorded for scoring and analysis. The four monolingual children were evaluated as "above-average" students according to their school reports, and thus their average performance was used as the basis for comparison with that of the bilingual children.

Instrumentation and the scoring system

The questions of the three translation tests used in Study One form the definition test, except the target words were to be defined, instead of being translated. Thus, the H-H and the C-C tests contained 54 questions each, with two even portion of concrete and abstract concepts. The sentences were read to the children with the target words repeated at the end, and then the children defined the target words. Each child went through a short training session before the actual

test took place. Their answers were evaluated with a similar 5-scale scoring system with the categories of part of speech, circular (instead of opposite), self-made, class (instead of sentence-fit), and specificity. The RTs were also measured in a similar manner as did for the translational tests.

IV. RESULTS

The quantitative results of Study One are presented in Sections A to D, and those of Study Two were presented in Sessions E and F. Session G reports a qualitative analysis of the two studies based on our observation during the tests and interviews with the children after the tests.

A. RT vs. LE in Translation

To understand the role of LE in the translation process, we grouped the RT results of Oli and Levi based on the "away" and "into" contexts described earlier and present the comparison in Fig. 1. Note from Fig. 1 that Oli and Levi needed longer time to perform the translating-away than the translating-into tests. The longest translating-away time (7.0 sec) and the maximal RT difference (3.0 sec) are observed in Session 2 when the children had been away from one of their LEs for the longest period of time (i.e., two years). It is also interesting to note that the smallest RT difference occurred in Session 3 (0.1 sec), which was held three weeks after they exchanged the LE. Here the active and inactive languages exchanged roles, and their RTs toward the two languages were converging. We may assume that the almost equal RTs to the two Ns in Session 3 indicate a perfectly balanced translating state for the two children.
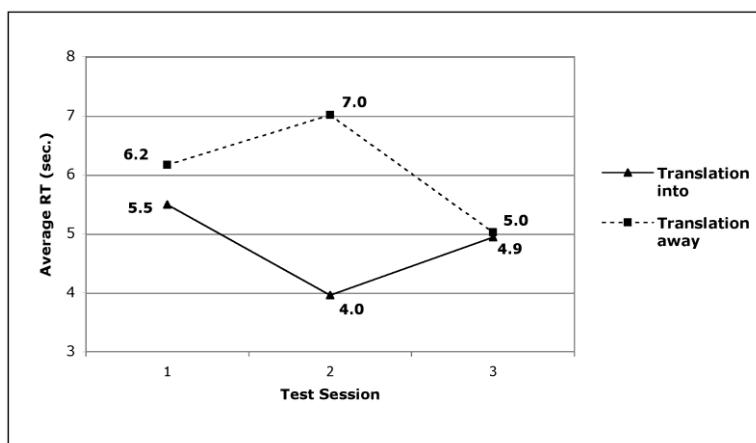
Figure 1. Average RTs in different linguistic environments.

To verify the reason of the RT difference, we asked the two children to comment on their performances. They explained that they encountered more difficulty in searching for appropriate expressions in the inactive language than in the active one, though they knew the meaning of a particular word in SL. Oli emphasized that he forgot how to say the intended word in TL, but he knew what it meant in SL. Moreover, he could adequately translate the entire sentence into TL after he was encouraged to do so in the second attempt. He also said, when translating an entire sentence, the meaning of the forgotten word "suddenly came back" (using his words).

B. Accuracy vs. LE in Translation

In general, the two children produced quite appropriate translation in both directions, regardless the LE (see Fig. 2). They achieved an average score of 4.6 on the into tests and 4.2 on the away tests, which requires sophisticated skills and knowledge in both languages. The difference between the into and the away tests was 0.1 in Session 3, indicating an almost perfect balance. In general, their accuracy pattern is in concert with that of their RT performance. Note that the scores in Session 2 were lower than expected. Certainly, higher accuracies would show even closer relationship with the RT results, but with this small number of tests and participants, weaker characteristics may show up as opposite. We felt that unanswered questions were the main contributors of distortion; however we did not remove questions retroactively.
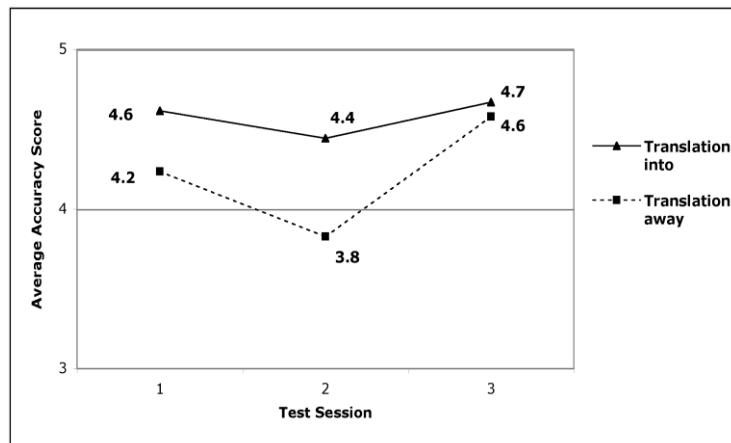
Figure 2. Average accuracy scores in different linguistic environments

C. Accuracy across Five Subcategories in Translation

Fig. 3 presents the results with another type of decomposition by listing the scoring subcategories, namely, part of speech, opposite, self-made, sentence fit, and specificity. The graph displays how much these linguistic areas were preferred by the two children in into/away translation. The average score for an item in the into/away tests is the sum of the average percentage values divided by 100. Similarly, the average accuracy difference is the sum of the average subcategory difference divided by 100. Since here we were interested in the long term behavior in the into and away directions, but not that when LE changed, we averaged out the scores for Sessions 1 and 2, while omitting the scores for Session 3. The two children's performed better in the first four subcategories than in the fifth one. Their accuracy rate is above 90% across the first four subcategories in the into tests, and is above 80% in the away tests. However, the accuracy rate in "specificity" dropped to 80.6% in the into tests, and further down to 68.3% in the away tests. The smallest accuracy difference (6.9%) in "sentence-fit" suggests that they were highly alert to sentence structures. The largest average difference in "self-made" indicates that the bilinguals may frequently turn to this strategy when translating into their inactive language.

Specifying details was the weakest area in both directions of word translation for these two children. A very great gap between the into and away context is also detected in this category. To achieve high accuracy in specificity, one must know many similar concepts within the same semantic class, and then must be able to identify subtle differences between them in both the SL and TL. It seems that such ability was still under development for our two participants.
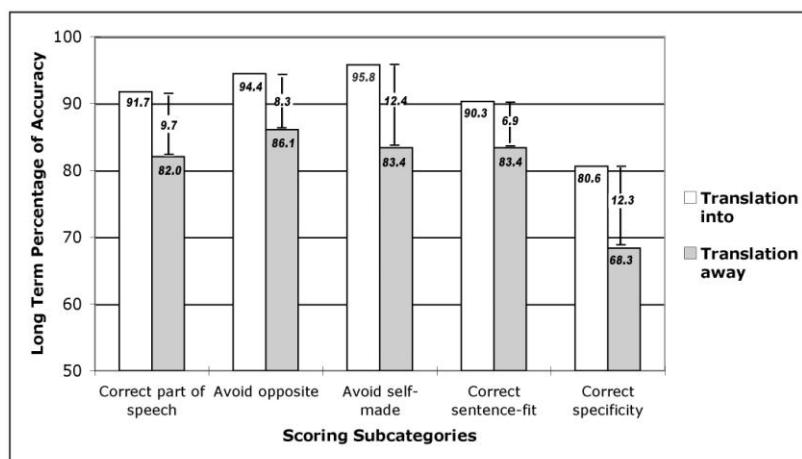
Figure 3. Long term percentage of accuracy for the scoring subcategories in Sessions 1 and 2 together.

D. Accuracy of Concrete and Abstract Concepts vs. LE in Translation

Fig. 4 presents their accuracy scores in translating abstract vs. concrete concepts across the three sessions. They performed better in translating concrete concepts in the into tests in the first two sessions; however, they also suffered bigger declines in this aspect as they were away longer from one LE. This is indicated from a 1.0 gap in translating concrete concepts in Session 2. Interestingly, though they did worse on abstract concepts in Session 1 and 2, the differences between the into and away tests were also smaller (0.3 and 0.2, respectively) than those for the concrete concepts (0.5 and 1.0, respectively). This suggests that abstract concepts, though more difficult to learn and to express, may retain longer and more stably regardless of the LE. This finding is different from the results of de Groot & Keijzer

(2000) who suggested that concrete concepts were easy to learn and could be retained longer for L2 learners. Note that de Groot & Keijzer (2000) gave the retain test to their subject with a one month gap, while the two children in our study left one of their LEs for about 22 months in Sessions 2 and 24 months in Session 3, respectively. The learning approaches for the participants in the two studies are also different. Theirs studied nonsense words paired with L1, but ours studied concepts within meaningful contexts for communication. The two children's performance in both concrete and abstract translation became almost equal in Session 3. This indicates that LE is an influential factor for activating both abstract and concrete concepts.
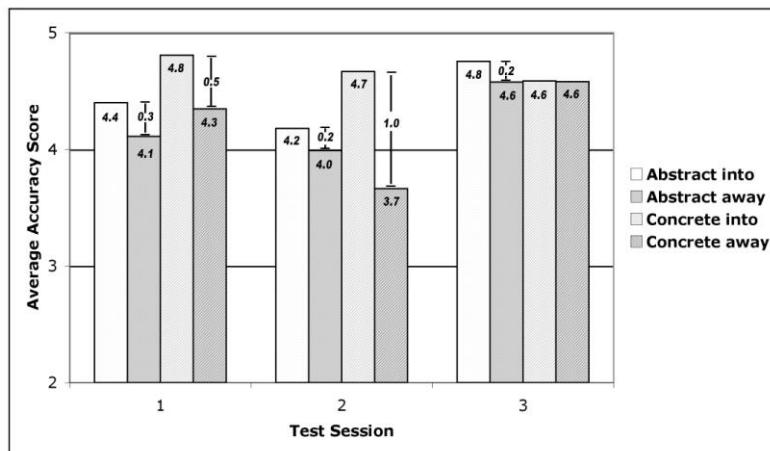
Figure 4. Average accuracy scores for translating abstract vs. concrete concepts in different linguistic environments.

To further explore how translation was performed for abstract/concrete concepts, we decomposed these two areas by the five subcategories in scoring by combining their performance in Session 1 and 2. Fig. 5 shows that concrete words suffer measurably under all subcategories, especially in terms of speech parts (average difference=16.3%) and self-made (average difference=16.2%), but abstract words appear to be much more stable, especially in terms of sentence-fit (average difference=0). This is probably because abstract concepts enjoy more freedom of being substituted by descriptive expressions than concrete concepts do. The big gaps between the into and away tests across all five subcategories in translating concrete concepts suggest that the children suffered from bridging the TL and SL when one of them was not actively used for a long time.
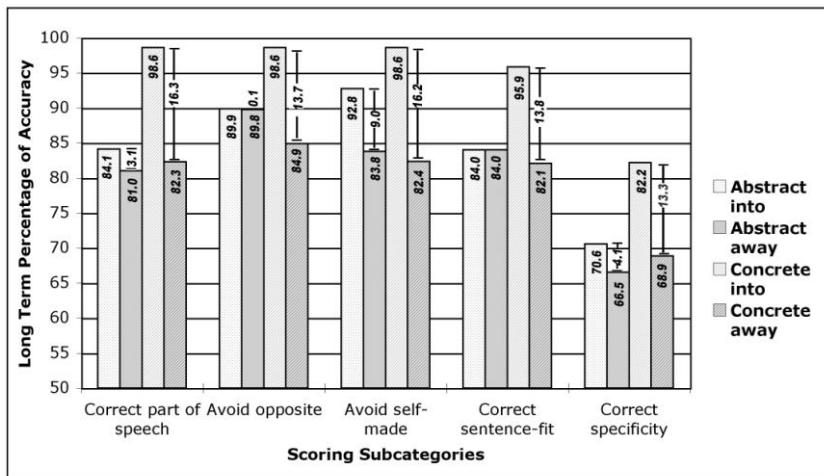
Figure 5. Long Term percentage of accuracy for the scoring subcategories for translating abstract vs. concrete concepts in Sessions 1 and 2 together.

E. RTs and Accuracy in Defining Words between the Monolingual and Bilingual Children

The monolingual children's average RT and accuracy rate in Chinese and in Hungarian help us set the bases for evaluating the bilingual children's language proficiency. The average RT and the average accuracy scores of the monolingual and the bilingual groups are summarized in Table III and IV. In terms of language, Hungarian group performed similarly with the Chinese group (8.2 sec vs. 8.1 sec). The monolingual Hungarian children performed slightly faster (7.7 sec) than Levi and Oli (8.7 sec), while the monolingual Chinese children responded to the questions slighter slower (8.7 sec) than Levi and Oli (7.6 sec). In terms of accuracy, the monolingual Hungarian children achieved the same rate as the monolingual Chinese children did (3.6 and 3.6, respectively). Interestingly, the two bilingual

children achieved slightly higher accuracy rate than the two monolingual groups in both languages (4.1 in Hungarian, and 3.7 in Chinese). Considering the similar RTs and accuracy rates between the monolingual and bilingual groups, we confirm that Levi and Oli possessed native-level language proficiency in Chinese and in Hungarian.

TABLE 3
AVERAGE RTS OF THE MONOLINGUAL VS. BILINGUAL CHILDREN FOR THE HUNGARIAN AND CHINESE DEFINITION TESTS.

Test / Average RT (Sec.)	H-H	C-C
Average of 2 monolingual children	7.7	8.7
Average of Levi and Oli	8.7	7.6
Average of 4	8.2	8.1

TABLE 4
AVERAGE ACCURACY OF THE MONOLINGUAL VS. BILINGUAL CHILDREN FOR THE HUNGARIAN AND CHINESE DEFINITION TESTS.

Test / Average RT (Sec.)	H-H	C-C
Average of 2 monolingual children	3.6	3.6
Average of Levi and Oli	4.1	3.7
Average of 4	3.8	3.6

F. Accuracy across Five Subcategories in Definition

To further analyze how the bilingual children performed differently from the monolingual children in defining words, we decomposed their accuracy scores by the five subcategories, namely, part of speech, circular, self-made, class, and, specificity. Fig. 6 shows that all the children, regardless their language background, were weaker in providing specific details of a word. They could classify concepts (i.e., giving correct class of a word), but their ability in differentiating (or describing) differences among similar concepts of the same class is yet to develop in the cognitive system. However, the bilingual group still outperformed the monolingual group by 9.3% in giving specificity. The bilingual children also performed better than the monolingual children in every other subcategory, especially in the areas of identifying speech parts (7.4%) and avoiding using circular definitions (7.9%). The bilingual children appeared to be more sensitive about the details of concepts and paid more attention to the linguistic functions of a word in sentences. When encountering difficulties in defining a concept, they relied less on the "cheap trick" of giving circular definitions, such as "tall" as "not short", than the monolingual peers did.
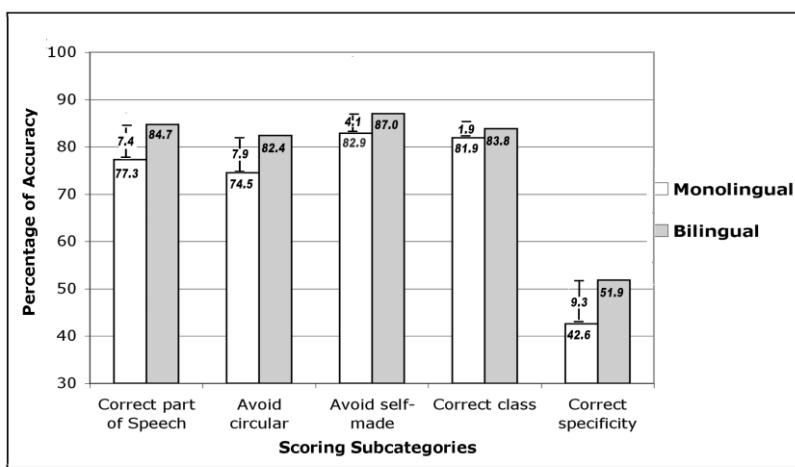
Figure 5. Monolingual vs. Bilingual children's Percentage of accuracy for the scoring subcategories in the definition tests

G. Summary of the Findings

The results of the definition study show that the bilingual children responded as quickly and accurately as the monolingual groups in both Ns. This is an evidence of their balanced state in both Ns. From the subcategories in accuracy, the bilingual children were more aware of the linguistic functions and semantic classification of words and paid more attention to differentiating the details of words than the monolingual groups did. The results of the translation study show that the LE influenced the bilingual children's translating speed and accuracy. When one of the Ns was inactive for a long period (i.e., up to 24 months in our study), their RT and accuracy rate decreased as they translated

away from the active language and performed more stably with translating abstract concepts than with the concrete ones. Finally, the children's balancing state between the two Ns was detected shortly after the LE changed. In other words, the after-effect of the inactive language together with the current active language helped them achieve perfect bilingualism.

<center>V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION</center>

A. Metalinguistic Skills Enhancing Bilingualism

From their performance in defining words, the two bilinguals showed that they had built up a sophisticated classification of concepts not only at semantic, but also at syntactic level. From their word translation results, the two bilinguals showed how they accessed, generalized, bridged, and, most importantly, posed control over their speech production. The bilinguals also rationalized the problematic concepts from available linguistic cues, and found substitutions, such as synonyms, superordinates, hyponyms, and examples, to get their meanings across. These findings support Bialystok's (1991, 2001) claim that bilinguals manage communication in their Ns by applying sophisticated metalinguistic skills which had been developed and practiced since their young age. The bilingual children differentiate themselves from their monolingual peers by showing their metalinguistic competence in language production.

B. Definition vs. Translation as Measurements for Bilinguals

Realizing the close connection between coding translation and definition, we successfully transferred the translation tests into a monolingual definition test. One the one hand, the monolingual test can be used for standardizing the difficulty level of bilingual tests against the knowledge of monolinguals. On the other, the monolingual tests can verify the test taker's state of bilingualism. Compared with the existing measurements for bilingual children, our procedures do not only take the children's two Ns into account, but also access how the two Ns are conceptually bridged and verbalized from the speech protocols. The design of embedding words with sentences reflects how language is acquired and used in real world. Since no written representation is involved, the proposed procedures are suitable for measuring young children. Last but not least, the scoring process takes a reasonable amount of time and can be quantified easily for statistic analysis. Further investigation on the design of test questions, ideal question numbers, the application of different languages, and various difficulty levels may enhance bilingual research, education, and proficiency evaluation.

C. The Role of an Active Language in Translation and Language Learning

Human translation is not a symmetric process even for very professional translators. Study One depicts the possible influence of LE in terms of activating and deactivating one of the Ns for bilingual children. The balanced state was observed three weeks after our participants exchanged the LEs, by the very small differences in RT and accuracy. It is logical to assume that the balanced state will continue for a period of time until the impact of the current LE outperforms the after-effect of the previous LE. The different reactions of the bilingual children to the abstract and concrete concepts lead us to an assumption that abstract concepts may retain longer once they are learned in both language systems, but may require longer processing time. Concrete concepts, on the other hand, receive more obvious influence from the external LE. This assumption requires further verification, since opposite findings had been reported by de Groot & Keijzer (2000).

To explain the asymmetric translating behavior of L2 learners, we propose three concept areas: "exclusive L1", "exclusive L2", and "shared concepts". L2 learners who lack cultural and communication experience, have not yet developed their exclusive L2 concepts, and therefore try to mediate between L1 and L2 via shared concepts only. This may explain the asymmetry between forward and backward translation of novice L2 learners. Continuous L2 development will help to extend exclusive L2 concepts, and so to diminish the asymmetries gradually. Early bilinguals, especially the balanced ones, have been acquiring concepts within meaningful linguistic and cultural contexts. The context-rich learning approach helps bilinguals build up a larger area of shared concepts and allow easier accesses to concepts stored in the system. The language-exclusive and shared concept areas are only speculative proposals here. Analysis of extensive think-aloud protocols of translating processes will shed light on this issue.

D. Perspective Research Directions

The two studies demonstrate that definition building is an integral process for extending a monolingual's semantic range, and defining is an effective concept activator that bridges two languages. The monolingual definition test can be utilized for measuring native proficiency of monolingual children. Further research is necessary on how defining ability can find its role in L2 learning, especially when the active LE does not favor the language taught, such as in an EFL environment. The results indicate that the balancing state occurred around an LE change. The two children's schools also commented upon that their spoken language re-activations were very speedy. Further studies that intensively measure bilingual children's proficiency change during this short period may reveal the nature of the bilingual concept structure and concept retrieval according to location and culture.

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Readability of Texts: State of the Art

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Abstract—**In TEFL, it is often stated that communication presupposes comprehension. The main purpose of readability studies is thus to measure the comprehensibility of a piece of writing. In this regard, different readability measures were initially devised to help educators select passages suitable for both children and adults. However, readability formulas can certainly be extremely helpful in the realm of EFL reading. They were originally designed to assess the suitability of books for students at particular grade levels or ages. Nevertheless, they can be used as basic tools in determining certain crucial EFL text-characteristics instrumental in the skill of reading and its related issues. The aim of the present paper is to familiarize the readers with the most frequently used readability formulas as well as the pros and cons views toward the use of such formulas. Of course, this part mostly illustrates studies done on readability formulas with the results obtained. The main objective of this part is to help readers to become familiar with the background of the formulas, the theory on which they stand, what they are good for and what they are not with regard to a number of studies cited in this section.**

Index Terms—**comprehensibility, text variables, readability, readability formulas, validity of readability formulas**

I. INTRODUCTION

In order to best understand the importance of readability, it is important first to provide a definition for it. According to Richards, *et al.* (1992, p.306), readability means: "how easily written materials can be read and understood. This depends on several factors including the average length of sentences, the number of new words contained, and the grammatical complexity of the language used in a passage."

The creator of the SMOG readability formula, Harry McLaghlin (1969), defined readability as, "the degree to which a given class of people find certain reading matter compelling and comprehensible."

Generally, Dale and Chall's (1949) definition may be the most comprehensive: "The sum total (including all the interactions) of all those elements within a given piece of printed material that affect the success a group of reader have with it. The success is the extent to which they understand it, read it at an optimal speed, and find it interesting."

Therefore, a reader-text mismatch (for example, assigning a selection from the unabridged "Othello" for a 3rd grade reading exercise) can result in the user failing to use or ignoring the text. To avoid mismatch, educators would like a tool to check if a given text would be readable by its intended audience. Inventing such tools has been the primary focus of readability research for the past 90 years (Kondru, 2006).

To this end, readability formulas were originally created to predict the reading difficulty associated with text. To put it in another way, "a readability formula is an equation that gives an estimate of the readability of a text. The estimate is generally in terms of the number of years of education one needs to have to comprehend that text" (Kondru, 2006, p.7). Ability to predict text readability is useful because it helps educators select appropriate texts for students and authors write texts accessible to the audience they target.

All in all, readability studies are concerned with ensuring that a given piece of writing reaches and affects its audience in the way that the author intends. Indeed, as Seaton (1975 cited in Rezaei, 2000) asserts, communication presupposes comprehension, but the increasing variety, volume, and complexity of written materials make understanding more and more of a problem. Therefore, readability studies concentrate on the linguistic factors, in particular, word length and sentence length. In other words, the main purpose of readability studies is, in fact, to measure the comprehensibility of a piece of writing.

II. HISTORY OF READABILITY

As Edgar Dale (1972 cited in Mosenthal & Kirsch, 1998) stated: "Readability is as old as the hills and the written stories that have described them." Of course, the notion of readability that he referred to was, "the ease of understanding based on an author's style of writing and organization of his/her ideas" (p.638).

The earliest investigations of readability were conducted by asking students, librarians, and teachers what seemed to make texts readable. It is convenient to locate the beginnings of the classical tradition of readability assessment in the

1921 publication of Thorndike's *Teachers' Work Book*, which provided a means for measuring the difficulty of words. Thorndike tabulated words according to the frequency of their use in general literature. It was assumed that words that were encountered frequently by readers were less difficult to understand than words that appeared rarely. Of course, familiarity breeds understanding. Thorndike's (1921) book was the first extensive listing of words in English by frequency. Other word lists and reading lessons were adapted to measure word difficulty later on. In fact, the knowledge of words has always been a strong measure of a reader's development in reading comprehension performance. As Chall and Dale (1995, p.84) wrote: "It is no accident that vocabulary is also a strong predictor of text difficulty."

Klare (1968), reviewing the research on word frequency, also concluded:

Not only do humans tend to use some words much more often than others, they recognize more frequent words rapidly than less frequent, prefer them, and understand and learn them more readily. It is not surprising therefore, that this variable has such a central role in the measurement of readability (p.12).

In addition to word factors, sentence length was also studied in the 1920s and became another factor included in the study of readability. Another contemporary of Thorndike, the psychologist Kitson (1921), published *The Mind of the Buyer*, in which he showed how and why readers of different magazines and newspapers differed from one another. He found that sentence length and word length, as measured by syllables, were good indicators of readability. He confirmed his theories through the analysis of newspapers and magazines.

Later, Kitson's claim was confirmed by other researchers and experts. As Catalano (1990), in his study, stated: "Readability and writing experts say sentence length is an appropriate gauge of difficulty because it measures relationships" (p.98).

Though such studies developed no readability formulas, they took the initial important steps which were to lead to the development of readability formulas. Since those early beginnings, the linguistic indicators of word and sentence length have remained the main factors of modern readability formulas which have been used extensively to classify reading materials. As Kirkwood and Wolfe (1980) declared, "Readability formulas contain a measure of vocabulary load and sentence length."

The credit for attempting to devise the first-ever readability formula goes to Lively and Pressey in 1923. They were concerned with the practical problem of selecting science textbooks for junior high school. The books were so overlaid with technical words that teachers spent all class time teaching vocabulary. Lively and Pressey (1923) argued that it would be helpful to have a way to measure the vocabulary burden of textbooks. They related the difficulty of a word to its frequency and attempted to develop a method for measuring vocabulary in textbooks as well as other reading materials to be used for school. Lively and Pressey assumed that the more common the word, the easier it is to understand. The lively and Pressey (1923) method was not a suitable instrument for measuring readability because they could not provide a scale to interpret the scores; but, their study marked the beginning of work on readability formulas that would continue unabated until the present time.

Readability formula is an analytical way to predict readability (Kondru, 2006). There are many readability formulas used to measure the readability level of the written materials, but some of them are better known and more popular. Popular readability formulas are based on extensive research and as Kondru (2006) implied, "their predictions correlate very well with the results of the actual readability measurements of expert judgments, comprehension tests, and the cloze procedures" (p.9).

In this section, some of the popular readability formulas are presented. Perhaps, the most common and the most publicized readability formula was credited to Rudolph Flesch (1948). The popularity of his formula made Flesch a leading authority on readability. Flesch Reading Ease Readability Formula (1948) is also used in Microsoft Office Word. Today, readability evaluation can be performed by computer. As such, most grammar or editing software today can determine the readability level of written materials. After Microsoft Office Word finishes the spell- and grammar-check, it can display the information about the readability level of the passage. Each readability rating is based on the average of the number of syllables per word and words per sentence. Flesch Reading Ease Readability Formula rates texts on a 100-point scale; the higher the score, the easier it is to understand the document. Most standard passages have approximately a readability score of 60 to 70.

The Flesch Reading Ease Readability Formula is:

$$206.835 - (1.015 \times ASL) - (84.6 \times ASW)$$

Where, ASL is the Average Sentence Length (the number of words divided by the number of sentences), and ASW is the Average of Syllables per Word (the number of syllables divided by the number of words).

As it was mentioned, in Flesch formula, the score ranges from 0 to 100, with 0 corresponding to the highest reading difficulty and 100 corresponding to the lowest reading difficulty. Table 1 provides interpretation of the Flesch Reading Ease Score.

TABLE 1:
FLESCH READING EASE SCORE

Reading Ease Score	Description	Predicted Reading Grade	Estimated Percentage of U.S. Adults
0-30	very difficult	college graduate	4.5%
30-40	difficult	college grade	33%
50-60	fairly difficult	10th-12th grade	54%
60-70	standard	8th-9th grade	83%
70-80	fairly easy	7th grade	88%
80-90	easy	6th grade	91%
90-100	very easy	5th grade	93%

Another popular readability formula is the Dale-Chall (1948 cited in DuBay, 2004) Formula. The original Dale-Chall Formula was developed for adults and children above the 4th grade level. They designed it to correct certain shortcomings in the Flesch Reading Ease Formula. It was a sentence-length variable plus a percentage of hard words—words not found on the Dale-Chall long list of 3000 easy words, 80 percent of which are known to fourth-grade readers.

The Dale-Chall Raw Score is given by,

Raw Score= 0.1579 PDW + 0.496 ASL + 3.6365

Raw Score=reading grade of a reader who can answer one half of the test questions on a passage,

PDW=Percentage of Difficult Words (words not on the Dale-Chall word list), and

ASL=Average Sentence Length in Words.

Raw Score is converted to school grade intervals using the conversion scheme shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
DALE-CHALL RAW SCORE TO GRADE INTERVAL CONVERSION

Raw Score	Grade Interval
4.9 and below	4th grade and below
5.0 - 5.9	5th – 6th grade
6.0 - 6.9	7th – 8th grade
7.0 - 7.9	9th – 10th grade
8.0 - 8.9	11th – 12th grade
9.0 - 9.9	Grade 13 through 15 (college)
10 and above	Grade 16 and above (college graduate)

After that, in *The Technique of Clear Writing*, Gunning (1952) published a readability formula developed for adults, the Fog-Index, which became popular because of its ease of use. It uses two variables, average sentence length and the number of words with more than two syllables for each 100 words.

Grade Level= 0.4 × (Average Sentence Length + Number of hard words)

Where:

A hard word is defined as a word that is more than two syllables long.

The Gunning's Fog-Index is shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
GUNNING'S FOG-INDEX

	Fog-Index	Estimated Reading Grades
	17	College graduate
	16	College senior
	15	College junior
	14	College sophomore
Danger line	13	College freshman
	12	High school senior
	11	High school junior
	10	High school sophomore
Easy	9	High school freshman
Reading	8	Eighth grade
Range	7	Seventh grade
	6	Sixth grade

The publication of the Flesch, Dale-Chall, and Gunning formulas conveniently marks the end of the first 30 years of classic readability studies.

DuBay (2004) claimed:

The authors of these formulas brought the issue of readability to public attention. They stimulated new consumer demands for documents in plain language. Finally, they stimulated new studies, not only on how to improve the formulas, but also on the other factors affecting reading success (p.25).

The new readability was a period of consolidation and deeper study. Investigators sought to learn more about how the formulas work and how to improve them. In the 1960s, several other developments accelerated the study of readability. One of the earliest investigations of that era was conducted by Fry (1968).

Fry (1968) created one of the most popular readability tests that used a graph. It was suitable for all ages, from infant to upper secondary. Estimation of text readability using the Fry Readability Graph is described in the following algorithm:

1. Select samples of 100 words from the text.

2. On the y (vertical) axis of the Fry Graph, plot the average sentence length of the sample.

3. On the x (horizontal) axis of the Fry Graph, plot the average word length.

4. The zone on the graph that includes a point (corresponding to a sample) shows the grade score associated with that sample. Take grade scores associated with at least three points on the graph and average them to get the average grade level associated with the entire text. Scores that appear in the shaded areas are invalid.

The Fry Graph is shown in Figure 1.
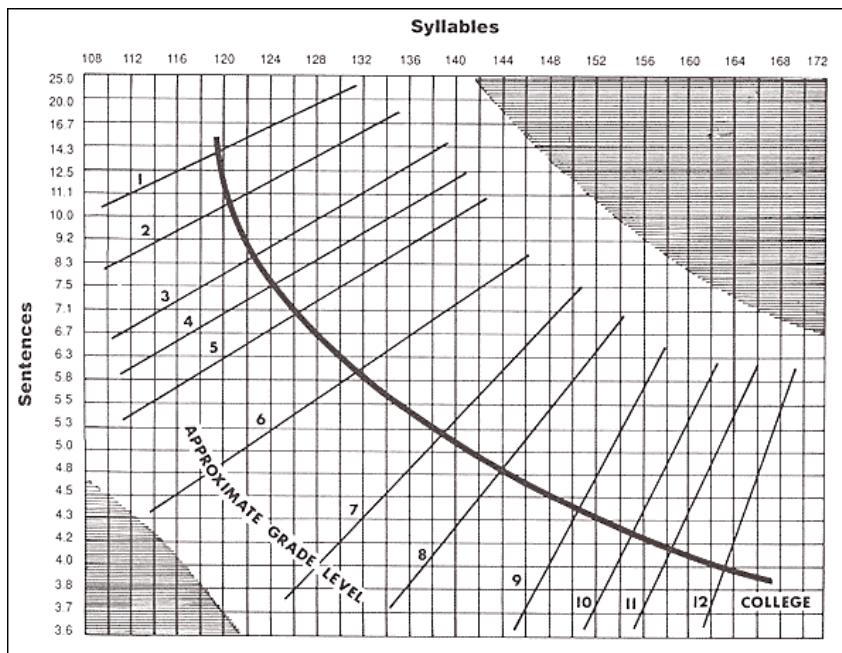
Figure 1: Fry Graph for estimating Reading Ages (in years)

After that, G. Harry McLaughlin (1969) published his SMOG (Simple Measure Of Gobbledygook) formula in the belief that word length and sentence length should be multiplied rather than added. By counting the number of words of more than two syllables (polysyllable count) in 30 sentences, he provided this simple formula:

SMOG Grading = 3 + square root of polysyllable count

Another known readability formula, the Flesch-Kincaid Formula (1975 cited in Greenfield, 1999), is a recalibration of the original Flesch Formula. It rates text on a U.S. grade school level. For example, a score of eight means that an eight grader can understand the document. For most documents, the writers aim for a score of approximately 7.0 to 8.0.

The formula for the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level Score is:

$(0.39 \times ASL) + (11.8 \times ASW) - 15.59$

Where:

ASL is the Average Sentence Length (the number of words divided by the number of sentences), and ASW is the Average of Syllables per Word (the number of syllables divided by the number of words).

It converted the Reading Ease Score to a U.S. Grade School Level. In general, as Graesser *et al.* (2004, p.199) declared: "a text should have more than 200 words before the Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level can successfully be applied."

Finally, one synthesis of the advances in readability studies has been the creation of Coh-Metrix (Graesser, McNamara, Louwerse, and Cai, 2004), a computational tool developed at the University of Memphis that measures cohesion and text difficulty at various levels of language, discourse, and conceptual analysis. This tool was designed with the goal of improving reading comprehension in classrooms by providing a means to improve textbook writing and to more appropriately match textbooks to the intended students (Graesser *et al.*, 2004; McNamara *et al.*, 2002). Coh-Metrix enhances conventional readability measures like Flesch-Kincaid and Flesch Reading Ease by providing detailed language and cohesion features, which will eventually match this textual information to the background knowledge of the reader (McNamara *et al.*, 2002). The system investigates lexicon, pattern classifiers, part of speech taggers, syntactic parsers, shallow semantic interpreters, and other components that have been developed in the field of computational linguistics (Jurafsky and Martin, 2002). After the user enters an English text, Coh-Metrix returns measures requested by the user. It analyzes text on over 200 measures of language, text, and readability including co-

referential cohesion, causal cohesion, density of connectives, latent semantic analysis metrics, and syntactic complexity. In addition, a facility allows the user to store the results of these analyses in data file (such as text, Excel, and SPSS).

Moreover, there are many other readability formulas devised to measure the readability level of text. Klare (1974) reported more than 40 different ones, most of which did not become widely adopted by the field. However, the differences in formulas are generally in weight assigned to different variables as well as the presence or absence of word lists (Wait, 1987). In other words, as Alderson (1986 cited in Rezaei, 2000, p.21) pointed out, "the rationale, construction and validity of these formulas are not very much different."

III. THE PROS AND CONS

The following part addresses itself to the pros and cons views toward the use of readability formulas.

Cons View: Even thought readability formulas are being used more widely than ever before in schools, libraries, newspapers, business, and government, there are critics who attack their use.

As it was mentioned earlier, readability formulas were originally created for testing the readability level of school textbooks. Therefore, at the outset, they were mainly applied to evaluate the readability of textbooks. Given the influence readability formulas had over the reading materials offered to children and young adults in schools and libraries, a closer examination of the principles that underlie them was in order. Educators and researchers asked themselves: Do these principles really enable readability formulas to offer a sound, scientific way of evaluating the difficulty of texts?

To this end, many of the critics were concerned about the limitation of the formulas and argued for their disuse. One of the first studies conducted in this respect was by Kirkwood and Wolfe (1980). They found that because readability formulas are composed of the variables of words and sentence length, they correspond to the surface structure of a passage rather than the deep syntactic and semantic structure. Readability formulas do not address the interaction between the reader and the texts. Therefore, they are not consistent with the psycholinguistic theory of reading.

In addition to what Kirkwood and Wolfe (1980) stated, Bertram and Newman (1981) discussed three different weaknesses of readability formulas. The first concern involves the belief that most formulas consider only sentence length and word difficulty. Thus, they ignore factors such as cohesion, complexity of ideas, and required schemata. The second flaw is the lack of accountability of readers' specific factors such as interest and purpose for reading. The third concern is the lack of statistical back-up for most readability formulas.

Smith (1988) seriously overstated the case when asserted that, "readability formulas based on word counts and sentence length have been generally discredited" (p.239).

In another study, Bailin and Grafstein (2001) re-examined the linguistic criteria that form the basis of readability scores and argued that the criteria commonly used in readability formulas do not constitute a satisfactory basis for assessing reading difficulty. In fact, the developers of readability formulas treated the issue of readability as if it were a monolithic phenomenon. Their underlying assumption was that how easy a text is to read is always based on the same criteria that is measurable by a statistical formula, and that it is reducible to a score returned by that formula. Bailin and Grafstein (2001) believed, on the other hand, that there is no single, simple measure of readability. They emphasized that how easy a text is for an individual to read is the result of the interaction of a number of different factors, reflecting properties both of texts and readers and the interaction between them.

Another problem with the formulas underlying principles is that they consistently failed to tell us about text comprehension. Chall (1958) and Klare (1963) defined readability in terms of writing style. They agreed that readability is the result of writing style that is legible, interesting and comprehensible. Moreover, Richards *et al.* (1992, p.306) defined readability as, "how easy written materials can be read and understood." The definition of readability as seen by Chall (1958), Klare (1963), and Richards *et al.* (1992) focused on comprehension. A fundamental assumption of the psycholinguistic model of reading is that comprehension is the primary goal of the reader (Smith, 1982), but "readability formulas do not address the phenomenon of comprehension" (Wait, 1987, p.13).

In this respect, Dreyer (1984) claimed that, "the focus of readability formulas on number of syllables and mean sentence length ignores the textual features that affect comprehension" (p.335). In particular, readability formulas disregard what linguists refer to as whole-text aspects (Schriver, 1989). Whole–text aspects are concerned with the positioning and organization of sentences and paragraphs in texts and with how information flows through the text.

In addition, a critical position argued that readability formulas do not measure a number of factors associated with readability and that they do not measure understandability or comprehension (Jones & Shoemaker, 1994).

It appears then that readability formulas due to their underlying principles are imperfect predictors of text readability and understandability or comprehension. Other limitations of the formulas will be described later on.

Educators and authors are often charged with the formidable task of selecting and writing reading material for individuals of widely diverse reading skills. What should an individual in a particular grade read? How difficult or easy should the texts be? Which texts should be suggested to advanced readers? Which texts should poor readers in a particular grade be encouraged to read? Of course, these are not easy questions and it is no surprise that many educators and authors have welcomed and endorsed tools that claim to use objective criteria to make selections and recommendations. However, some critics argue that readability formulas cannot prove to be valuable tools for producing, revising, and selecting written materials.

Frase, Rubin, Starr, and Plung (1981) found that readability formulas fail to meet expectations of expanded use due to their ignoring or violating much current knowledge about reading, shaky statistical basis, and inappropriateness as practical tools for matching children and texts or for providing guidelines for writers. Accordingly, the results demonstrated that in most uses, readability formulas violate the basic assumptions on their applicability.

Davison (1981 cited in Hewitt & Homan, 2004) contended that if a text is being rewritten or revised to match a particular level of reading ability, the changes may be made based on readability, not content. Davison stated that changes should be made because of inherent difficulty or problems of ambiguity not just to influence the score a text might receive from a readability formula.

Powell, Barry, and Redish (1981) shared the same concern expressed by Davison, when stated, "despite its aid, a readability formula cannot place good training in how to write clear, well-organized, audience-focused material" (p.43).

Davison and Kantor (1982), who studied specific changes in SRA laboratory materials, found rewritten materials sometimes more difficult to comprehend than the original text. They believed that rewritten materials were most successful when the writer was not trying to fit the text to a formula.

Wright (1982), using readability formulas in his study, rewrote biology materials in an attempt to reduce reading difficulties of 265 ninth and tenth graders. After four weeks of reduced materials, no significant differences in achievement were apparent.

Besides, some credible organizations like the International Reading Association and the National Council for Teachers of English had put out warnings on readability formula use. They did not just question the use of readability formulas but actively disparaged their use. For example, Goodman (1986 cited in Fry, 1989) speaking for the Reading Commission of NCTE stated:

Readability formulas used in selecting and rewriting materials do not produce appropriate, readable texts. In fact, tinkering with texts to produce acceptable levels may turn them into texts which are harder to read. That's why Sheila Fitzgerald as President of NCTE and Bernice Cullinan as President of IRA have issued a joint statement calling for the abandonment of use of readability formulas in preparing and choosing school texts (p.292).

So, it seems that although writers can fit their text to formula variables, this alone does not make material more readable.

While it is evident from the above inventory of the literature that readability formulas based on their underlying assumptions are discredited, it is certainly expected that classical readability assessment has come under increasing criticism. Educators and researchers asked themselves: Do they predict precisely enough how readable a given piece of writing will be for a given audience? Do they evaluate precisely enough how well the reader will understand the ideas in the texts? Are they an effective measure of text-readability for EFL learners? These questions are inextricably linked with the concept of validity. Thus, educators and researchers tried to re-evaluate the validity of readability formulas.

One of the first studies conducted in this respect is by Froese (1971). In his study, the validity of the Dale-Chall readability ratings for sixth-grade science textbooks when compared to an independent criterion of language difficulty expressed in cloze units was examined. Three hundred and sixty six sixth-graders participated in this study. Finally, he concluded that the Dale-Chall readability formula is not a valid measure of sixth-grade science textbook materials when the cloze procedure is used as a criterion.

In another study, Rezaei (2000) re-considered the validity of one popular readability formula — the Fog-Index of Readability. To do so, first some reading passages were selected and a number of multiple-choice items were devised for each passage. The text was administered to the participants and the data were collected. Then, the passages were respectively made more difficult or easier by increasing or decreasing the number of sentences so that the readability of the passages was changed. The second version of the text was also given to the subjects and the results were compared with those of the original version. Finally, the analysis of data obtained from the revised test revealed that the participants in the study did not find the passages significantly different. As a result, Rezaei (2000) concluded that this formula is not at all sensitive to difficulty/ease level of reading passages when their readability index is changed up to a certain degree.

Ardoin, Suldo, Witt, Aldrich, and McDonald (2005) in their study, re-examined the validity of eigth readability formulas — Spache, Dale-Chall, Fry, Flesch-Kincaid, Fog, Powers-Summer-Kearl (PSK), Smog, and Forcast — to determine how well they predict passage difficulty in R-CBM research. Curriculum-based measurement in reading (R-CMB) is an assessment procedure in which students read passages and the number of words read correctly in one minute (WRCM) is recorded. R-CBM was placed on the approved list by the Reading First Assessment Committee (Kame'enui, 2002 cited in Ardoin, *et al.*, 2005) meaning that it meets or exceeds standards of psychometric accuracy. R-CBM is an invaluable tool for many practitioners while its gold standard for determining passage difficulty is the readability formulas. Ardoin *et al.* (2005) investigated the validity of eight formulas most commonly employed in R-CBM research. The study was based on the premise that as grade levels assigned to passages by readability formulas increase, students' WRCM should decrease. Results indicated a modest relationship between reading fluency and passage difficulty as indicated by the eight readability formulas. Ardoin *et al.* found that the formulas most commonly employed in R-CBM research were the poorest predictors. It follows from what Ardoin *et al.* found that efforts beyond the use of currently published readability estimates are needed in order to procure equivalent forms for R-CBM research.

Reviewing the research on readability formulas, one might conclude that the domain and discourse of readability research has been almost entirely limited to native language reading, and mostly native English. At the same time, the newer theories and discoveries about the complex interacting factors operating on reading difficulty, furnish ample reasons to be suspicious of the validity of readability formulas derived from a native English population sample for use in an EFL context. In this case, Drury (1985) remarked that, "traditionally used readability formulas have drawbacks, especially when used with non-fluent users of English" (p.11).

Carrell (1987) elsewhere discussed both the importance of an accurate readability measures for EFL learners and the fault of shallow-based readability formulas such as Flesch Reading Ease formula, Fog-Index of readability, and Fry Grade Level. According to Carrell (1987), shallow-based readability formulas work to a degree for first language learners because they are developed from statistical formulas and intended for large samples of text. Carrell's major criticisms of using traditional readability formulas for L2 texts were their failure to work for smaller student populations, reader abilities, and text passages.

Indeed, only a few research articles have appeared dealing specifically with English L2 readability. The most significant research on EFL readability to date has been done by Brown (1998). In order to test the reliability of traditional readability formulas for second language learners, Brown (1998) used cloze procedures on fifty randomly selected library passages and over 2300 Japanese EFL students. Finally, he realized that readability formulas developed for L1 readers were likely not appropriate for L2 readers. Brown (1998) not only researched the effectiveness of L1 readability formulas for L2 readers, but also developed and designed an alternative L2 readability measure. Brown's criticism of L1 readability formulas for L2 readers was based on the idea that L1 readability formulas did not account for reader-based variables such as: language differences, education, age, or learning styles. He contended that readability formulas designed specifically for L2 readers should include the type, function, and frequency of words as well as word redundancy. Brown's EFL Readability Index was a small subset of variables that included the average number of syllables per sentence, the average frequency that the cloze item tested appeared elsewhere in the text, the percentage of words over 7 letters, and the percent of function words in the text. This EFL Readability Index, while not a precise estimate of readability, did have a high degree of association and accounted for more variance in L2 learners than traditional readability formulas.

Brown's EFL Readability Index is:

$$38.7469 + (.7823 \times \text{syllable/sentence}) + (-126.1770 \times \text{passage frequency}) + (1.2878 \times \text{Percent Long Words}) + (.7596 \times \text{Percent Function Words})$$

One more criticism of the formulas must be treated here, and that is the discrepancy between the scores of different formulas. This problem had long been perplexing. Critics have often cited such discrepancies as indications of the lack of precision of the formulas. Kern (1979) argued that, "the discrepancies among the Kincaid and Caylor formulas deprived them of usefulness."

Chen (1986), in his study, compared the results of the readability formulas over the same textbooks in order to offer guidance for use of the formulas. Eleven frequently recommended elementary social studies textbooks were included in his study. An Nth name sampling technique was employed to randomly select thirty 100-word passages from each textbook. Then, seven readability formulas — Dale-Chall, Flesch, Fry, Fog, SMOG, Spache, and Power-Sumner-Kearl — were applied to the passages. The results showed (1) there was no universal agreement among the formulas as to the rank ordering of textbook difficulty, and (2) there were wide discrepancies among formulas that resulted in the same textbook being rated several grade levels apart. Hence it appears that the range of scores provided by different formulas remind us once more that they are not perfect predictors.

Pros View: Although critics have been arguing that readability formulas are not accurate or useful measures of the difficulty of texts, it does not mean that they do not measure anything. However, some educators and researchers not only do not defend the misuse of the formulas, but also employ them in order to control for their passage difficulty. Klare (1980) considered readability formulas; though far from perfect, far more accurate than human judgment. Of course, research in this area may yield fruitful results and as Bailin and Grafstein (2001, p.299) stated, "may well allow us to assess the difficulty of at least certain aspects of texts present for certain readers."

Existing readability formulas are based on countable aspects of the text such as average sentence length and average word length. While critics referred to these principles as the most important cause of formulas' limitations, Klare (1974) stated:

Unless the user is interested in doing research, there is little to be gained from choosing a highly complex formula. A simple 2 variable formula should be sufficient, especially if one of the variables is a word or semantic variable and the other is a sentence or syntactic variable (p.63).

Kintsch (1979), who is not particularly a fan of traditional readability formulas, shared the same concern when found that most of text difficulty could be accounted for by two factors, reinstatement searches, and traditional word frequency.

The two specific characteristics that are evident in the various readability formulas are: (1) the emphasis on how easy a text is to understand, and (2) the emphasis on quantification. These emphases have made readability a particularly

attractive concept for educators. The attractiveness of using formulas to measure readability lies in the belief that, in principle, they objectively and quantifiably evaluate the difficulty of written material without measuring characteristics of readers. Moreover, a readability formula can return a numerical score, giving the user the sense of knowing the precise level of difficulty of a text (Bailin & Grafstein, 2001).

Focusing on the issue of formulas' underlying principles, DuBay (2004) remarked that, "the variables used in the readability formulas show us the skeleton of a text" (p.61). He maintained that it is up to us to flesh out that skeleton with tone, content, organization, coherence, and design. In fact, readability formula has made us very aware of what we write at the level of words and sentences (Hargis, 2000).

Besides, readability formula can predict comprehension, oral reading errors, and inclination to continue reading. As Klale (1948 cited in Fry, 1989) stated, "their prediction ability is at least as good as reading tests, IQ tests, or more other psycho educational measures" (p.294).

Another limitation of readability formulas, in the opinion of some critics, is that they are not valuable tools for producing and revising written materials. In contrast, McClure (1987) emphasized that, "a readability formula is an evaluation tool, not a reading or writing tool" (p.12).

Fry (1989) neatly stated, "Readability formulas are not writability formulas" (p.293). He believed that they are not and have never been intended to be writer's guides. In his opinion, critics, bad writers, and lazy editors might blame readability formulas for poor quality textbooks, but this is not the formulas' fault.

Besides, some other reading researchers and technical communicators paid attention to the efficiency of readability formulas. Since the goal of technical writers is accurate and efficient communication, readability is one of their biggest concerns. Thus, various readability formulas have become the subject of technical writers' interest (Sharma, 1982).

For example, Powel, Barry, and Redish (1981, p.43) argued, "When used with understanding, readability formulas can be helpful to writers." Powel *et al.* (1981) asserted that through counting adaptation to the needs of publishers and educators, readability programs have become user-oriented and can be run on a variety of computers and in many other high-level computer languages. Powel *et al.* also maintained that as the current national trend toward writing for easy understanding builds momentum and extends to the technical fields, computerized readability analysis can be a convenient and vital aid to the generation of clear, understandable written material.

Connaster (1999) considered readability formulas as the subject of technical writers' interest because they are used to equalize the reading difficulty of texts used in experiments.

One more criticism of formulas must be addressed, and that is related to their validity. Unlike critics' viewpoint, there is much evidence, both old and new, that readability formulas are indeed valid. Fry (1989, p.295), who is particularly a fan of readability formulas, reported some of the validity measures that formulas are correlated with as follows:

1. comprehension assessed by traditional multiple choice questions,
2. comprehension assessed by cloze passages,
3. oral reading errors,
4. readership (a journalism concept pertaining to the number of readers for a particular article),
5. subvocalization,
6. eye-voice span,
7. function chaining (how many words a typist continues to type after the copy page is covered),
8. controlled subjective judgment, and
9. concurrent validity (formulas correlate with each other).

Focusing on the issue of validity, some researchers and educators examined the appropriateness of traditional readability formulas for second language learners.

Hamsik (1984) conducted the first validation study to examine whether readability formulas developed for the measuring of reading difficulty for native English readers are applicable to the measuring of ESL readability. The specific purpose of her study was to determine if four widely used readability formulas—the Flesch formula, the Dale-Call formula, the Fry Graph, and the Lorge formula—measure readability difficulty for ESL students. The subjects were forty Intensive English Center students at intermediate to advanced levels of English reading proficiency as measured by the TOEFL. From data analysis, it was found that a correlation does exist between the rank order of the passages as measured by the cloze scores of the EFL students and by the readability formulas. Furthermore, this correlation was meaningful. According to the data of the sample, it now seems possible to state that the four mentioned readability formulas do measure readability of text for ESL students. So, they can be used to select materials appropriate to the reading level of ESL students.

Elsewhere, Brown's (1998) aforementioned study had been criticized by Greenfield (1999), who, in an attempt to replicate Brown's study, used a corpus of 31 academic texts that had been evaluated for textual difficulty by administering cloze tests to L1 speakers (Bormuth, 1971 cited in Greenfield,1999). Using this corpus, and comparing L2 learners' performance to L1 readers' performance under a constant passage set, Greenfield found that traditional L1 readability formulas such as Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level formula had strong correlation to L2 cloze test performance. Using statistical methods similar to Brown's, Greenfield also constructed an EFL Readability Index that was similar to traditional L1 readability formulas, but scaled for EFL learners. Greenfield's formula, called the Miyazaki EFL Readability Index is:

$164.935 - (18.792 \times \text{letters per word}) - (1.916 \times \text{words per sentence})$

As stated before, some critics pointed to the discrepancies between the scores of different formulas as indications of the lack of precision, whereas DuBay (2004) asserted what these critics ignore are, "the correlations of the formulas with comprehension texts" (p.60). He maintained what is important is not how the formulas agree or disagree on a particular text, but their degree of consistency in predicting difficulty over a range of graded texts.

IV. CONCLUSION

If any conclusion is possible to draw from the studies reviewed on readability formulas, it is that there are two opposite views toward the use of readability formulas. Both of these two views have been advocated by different researchers and there is enough empirical evidence for each to be true. Thus, it can be stated that the formulas have both advantages and disadvantages.

Advantages of using readability formulas:

a) By definition, readability formulas measure the grade-level readers must have to read a given text. The results from using readability formulas provide the writer of the text with much needed information to reach his target audience.

b) Readability formulas do not require the readers to first go through the text to decide if the text is too hard or too easy to read. By readability formulas, one can know ahead of time if his readers can understand the material. This can save time, money and energy.

c) Readability formulas are text-based formulas; many researchers and readers find them easy to use.

d) Today, readability formulas can be performed by computer. As such, most grammar or editing software today can determine the readability level of written materials.

e) Readability formulas help writers convert their written material into plain language.

Disadvantages of using readability formulas:

a) Unfortunately, readability formulas are not of much help if one wants to know how well the target audience understands the text.

b) Due to many readability formulas, there is an increasing chance of getting wide variation in results of a same text.

c) Readability formulas cannot measure the context, prior knowledge, interest level, difficulty of concept, or coherence of text.

In connection to the effect of readability level on comprehension, TEFL educators and researchers interested in seeking the truth through research should re-evaluate the validity of readability formulas.

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On the Arbitrary Nature of Linguistic Sign

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Abstract—Saussure is universally recognized the "father of modern linguistics". Saussurean linguistics marks the beginning of modern linguistics and the arbitrary nature of linguistic sign is called by Saussure "the first principle of linguistics". This paper approaches arbitrariness by (1) clarifying the definition of arbitrariness by Saussure, (2) discussing whether onomatopoeic words and interjections are counter-evidences of arbitrariness, (3) defining the two conditions under which Saussure put forward the principle and (4) finally elaborating on the explanatory power of arbitrariness from three different perspectives. The paper concludes that arbitrariness is the fundamental principle of linguistics, for it underlies many important distinctions (concepts) in modern linguistics and accounts for many linguistic phenomena.

Index Terms—Saussure, arbitrariness, conventionality, variability, invariability, productivity
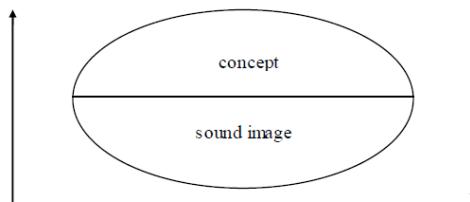
I. INTRODUCTION

Ferdinand de Saussure is universally recognized the "father of modern linguistics" since he helped to set the study of language and even human behavior in a broad sense on a new footing. He is frequently quoted in the field of linguistics, semiotics and literary theory. Saussure is remembered mainly for his two great contributions to modern linguistics. One is that he points out the direction for linguistic study and clarifies the task of linguistics by defining language as a system of entities (or units) and their relations. The other is that he distinguishes between some important concepts, i.e. langue vs. parole, synchronic vs. diachronic, syntagmatic vs. paradigmatic, etc. In a certain sense, many researches in modern linguistics are intended to reveal the true nature and significance of these terms.

Although the position of Saussure in modern linguistics and semiotics is unquestionable, some of his ideas in general linguistics are far from being unanimously accepted. One of them is the arbitrary nature of language, the so-called "first principle of linguistics". There has been endless meditation over this principle in the academic circle. With the emergence and development of functional linguistics, cognitive linguistics and other linguistic disciplines, this principle has been much scrutinized and has met with unprecedented challenges. The present paper tries to clarify the concept of arbitrariness from different perspectives and defend the belief that arbitrariness is the first (basic) principle of linguistic signs by elaborating on the relationship between arbitrariness and other important concepts in Saussurean linguistics.

II. ARBITRARINESS: THE FIRST PRINCIPLE OF LINGUISTIC SIGN

In order to understand arbitrariness, we should first of all have a deep understanding of what a linguistic "sign" is. According to Saussure, a linguistic sign is a combination of a "concept" and a "sound pattern" in our associative mind. The "concept" is not an "object" although they are closely related in that when we talk about an object, it always arouses a reflection of something in our mind; and when we have something in mind, it always refers to something in the world. But "concept" is a more appropriate term since it can refer to not only the tangible physical objects in the real world but also those imagined objects or abstract ideas, such as "God", "beauty", "value", etc. The "sound pattern" is not actually a physical sound but "the hearer's psychological impression of a sound, as given to him by the evidences of his senses". (Saussure, 2001, p.66) These two elements are both psychological in nature, so "the linguistic sign is, then, a two-sided psychological entity". (Saussure, 2001, p.66) The following diagram is used to illustrate sign.

Subsequently, Saussure uses "signification" and "signal" to replace "concept" and "sound pattern" respectively and put forward his theory of arbitrariness:

The link between signal and signification is arbitrary. Since we are treating a sign as the combination in which a signal is associated with a signification, we can express this more simply as: the linguistic sign is arbitrary.

There is no internal connexion, for example, between the idea 'sister' and the French sequence of sounds *s-o-r* which acts as its signal. The same idea might as well be represented by any other sequence of sounds. This is demonstrated by differences between languages, and even by the existence of different languages. The signification 'ox' has as its signal b-o-f on one side of the frontier, but o-k-s (Ochs) on the other side. (Saussure, 2001, pp.67-68)

We can give more examples of this kind. In English, the concept DOG has the sound sequence /d g/ as its signal but is represented by /gou/ in Chinese. According to Saussure, there is no logical basis for the choice of a particular signal to refer to a particular signification. It is not the inherent physical properties of a signal that makes it suitable for the representation of a signification (concept) and it is not the characteristics of a signification that makes it choose a particular signal to represent it. So the linguistic sign is arbitrary, for there is no intrinsic connection between signal and signification, or the connection between a sound pattern and the concept the sound pattern refer to is arbitrary. In Saussure's terms, the so-called arbitrariness of a linguistic sign simply implies that it is "unmotivated": that is to say, the signal is "arbitrary in relation to its signification, with which it has no natural connexion in reality". (Saussure, 2001, p.69)

To sum up, three basic points are included in the definition of arbitrariness by Saussure: (1) a linguistic sign consists of two elements, a signal and a signification; (2) the signal and the signification are both psychological, so a sign is a two-sided psychological entity; (3) the connection between the signal and the signification is arbitrary or unmotivated.

One caution should be mentioned here that arbitrariness does not mean the free choice of a signal by the speaker. Arbitrariness is closely related with conventionality of language, by which we mean that all the members of a speech community agree to use a particular signal to refer to a particular signification. Once the relationship between a signal and a signification is established, it is not subject to any personal influence. It is obligatory for the speakers of a particular speech community to follow in order to communicate with others and function in the society.

Arbitrariness is not confined to the relationship between the signal and the signification. The signal and the signification themselves are arbitrary in nature. This is not directly mentioned by Saussure in his *Course in General Linguistics* but is implied by his elaboration on the value of the signal.

We say that the signal and the signification are arbitrary in that there is no one-to-one relationship between them within one language or across different languages. More specifically, different sound patterns or signals can be used to symbolize the same signification; different concepts or significations can be symbolized by the same signal. Examples of this kind are abundant in all languages. For example, "elevator" and "lift", "fall" and "autumn" and "sideway" and "pavement" mean exactly the same except that they are used in different regions. One single signifier /h ǒ/ in Chinese can mean "river" (河), "dried" (涸) and "and" (和)。In the same way, different languages may employ different signals to symbolize the same concept (signification), for example,

Chinese	English	French
河流	river	fleuve
鸟	bird	oiseau
树	tree	arbre
书	book	livre

In addition, sometimes two or more different significations (concepts) may be symbolized by one signal in one language but by different signals in another language. English and French offer us many examples in point.

French	Chinese	English
mouton	绵羊	sheep
mouton	羊肉	mutton
mouton	羊皮革	sheep
porc	猪	pig
porc	猪肉	pork
porc	猪皮皮革	pig

(cited from Pei, 2006, p.197)

All these examples show that different languages make use of different signals to categorizing the world in different ways. Not only are the signals chosen by a particular language arbitrary but also the significations, the result of categorization, are arbitrary.

Actually, the arbitrary nature of signal implies the linguistic relativity by Sapir and Whorf. Every language has a definite number of sounds and rules for their combinations, which are used to (categorize) cut up the world in different ways. We live in the same world, but the languages we happen to speak categorize the world in different ways. We have to observe the world through the categories defined by our languages and consequently form our unique worldviews.

III. Onomatopeic Words and Interjections: Counterevidence of Arbitrariness

In any language, two objections may be brought against the principle that linguistic signs are arbitrary. One is onomatopoeic words and the other is exclamations.

Onomatopoeic words came into being by imitation of natural sounds. They are echoic words whose sounds suggest

their senses. These words help us form mental pictures about the people, things or places that are described. Onomatopoeic words can be divided into two groups: primary onomatopoeic words and secondary onomatopoeic words. The former means the imitation of sound by sound. Specifically, the sound is truly an "echo of the sense": the reference itself is an acoustic experience which is more or less closely imitated by the phonetic structure of the word, such as *bang*, *crash*, *bump*, *bubble*, *gurgle*, *growl*, etc. By secondary onomatopoeic words we mean that certain sounds and sound-sequences are associated with certain senses in an expressive relationship. In other words, these sounds do not evoke an acoustic experience but a movement or some physical or moral quality, usually unfavorable. These onomatopoeic terms have certain elements in common. Bloomfield (2000, p.245) states that there is a system of initial and final root-forming morphemes, of vague signification, with which the intense, symbolic connotation of such terms is associated. For example, *gr-* is associated with oppressiveness, as in *groan*, *growl* and *grumble*; *sl-* is associated with the action of sliding, as in *slide*, *sloppy*, *slope*, and *sly*; *sn-* expresses three different kinds of experience, "breath-noise through nose" as in *sniff*, *snuff*, *snore* and *snort*, "short quick separation or movement" as in *snip*, *snap* and *snatch*, and "creeping" as in *snake*, *snail*, *sneak* and *snoop*; *-are* may express "big light or noise" as in *blare*, *glare*, *flare* and *stare*.

However, onomatopoeic words are only closest but never exact imitation of natural sounds in that each language has a definite number of speech sounds and phonotactic rules (rules for the forming of legitimate combinations of sounds). They are subject to the phonetic and phonological restriction of language. It is theoretically impossible for the existence of exact onomatopoeic words. For the same referent in the actual world, different languages may employ different sounds patterns to represent it, such as a French dog's *ouaoua*, a German dog's *wauwau*, an English dog's *wow-wow* and a Chinese dog's *wang-wang* ("汪汪"in Chinese characters) This does not mean that the dogs in these four different countries actually call differently, but only that each language can only select from the repertoire of sounds available to itself the sounds similar to the call of a g dog and combine them according to the phonotactic rules specific to itself. The result is only approximate imitation of dog's call. In addition, as Saussure stated, "in any case, once introduced into the language, onomatopoeic words are subjected to the same phonetic and morphological evolution as other words." (Saussure, 2001, p.69) A possible result may be that with the development of language, a word of onomatopoeic origin may gradually become unmotivated. A good case in point is the French word *pigeon*.

Similar considerations apply to exclamations. They are generally regarded as spontaneous expressions called forth by nature. But it is doubtful that there is a necessary link between the exclamatory signal and its signification and as the case with onomatopoeic words, different languages employ different exclamatory words to express the same feeling.

In short, onomatopoeic words and exclamatory words are marginal phenomena in that they are limited in number and their symbolic origin is to some extent disputable. They do not undermine the validity of the arbitrary nature of language. On the contrary, they provide more evidences for the arbitrary nature of language.

IV. TWO PREREQUISITE CONDITIONS FOR ARBITRARINESS

Arbitrariness is called by Saussure the first principle of linguistic sign. This statement has aroused much debates and misunderstanding. To truly understand arbitrariness, we should look at under what conditions Saussure put forward this principle.

A. *Arbitrariness in Relation to the Distinction between Synchronic and Diachronic*

The first condition is the distinction between synchronic linguistics and diachronic linguistics. We should confine arbitrariness to the synchronic sphere. "The sole object of study in linguistics is the normal, regular existence of a language already established". (Saussure, 2001, p.72) By this statement, Saussure confines his study of langue to the sphere of synchronic linguistics.

Saussure was not the first to put forward the creative idea of arbitrariness. In the 19th century, Whitney (1875, p.282) stated the arbitrary nature of linguistic sign. However, Whitney was after all a linguist in the 19th century when historical linguistics was at its hey day, so he regarded the historical comparison of different languages and the discovery of their genetic relationships as the goal of linguistic study. Once language was approached from a diachronic approach, the arbitrary nature of language was out of effect. Grimm (1851, p.41) once stated that the origin of any element in a language was motivated and any letter was created to mean something so that no letter was redundant. It seemed that Grimm expounded a thought of extreme teleology, but the idea conformed to our common sense: historically speaking, there should be no linguistic sign of absolute arbitrariness and the relationship between the pronunciation (or the sound) and meaning (or the concept) of a word could not be arbitrarily established. Why is the animal DOG called /dɔg/ by our ancestors but not by any other name? There should be some underlying reason. But the motivation has gradually lost with time going by. Nowadays, no trace of motivation exists for the word *dog*. The loss of motivation does not mean that there was no motivation when the sigh was first created. For we language users, it is enough for us to master the rules of linguistic signs in order to use a language. It is not necessary for us to know where the linguistic signs are from. For linguists of synchronic linguistics, the object of their study is the formation and operation of the linguistic signs and therefore they do not need to investigate the origin of these signs. It is only necessary for linguists of diachronic linguistics to not only investigate the origin of linguistic signs but also adhere to the conviction that the relationship between the sound and the meaning of the linguistic sign is motivated.

We only speak of arbitrariness synchronically.

B.   Distinction between Absolute Arbitrariness and Relative Arbitrariness

Saussure draws a distinction between intrinsic arbitrariness and relative arbitrariness. That is, he does not deny the existence of motivation in language. He says, "not all signs are absolutely arbitrary", and "the sign may be motivated to a certain extent." (Saussure, 2001, p.130) For example, the word *twenty* is absolutely arbitrary or unmotivated while *twenty-one* is relatively arbitrary, for the former is unanalyzable and therefore evokes no association with other words but the latter evokes the words of which it is composed, *twenty* and *one*, and those of the same numerical series: *twenty-two*, *twenty-three*, *thirty-two*, etc. Taken individually, *twenty* and *one* are on the same footing, that is, absolutely arbitrary. However, once these two individual words are established in English as two legal signs to represent two relevant numbers, the meaning of their combination *twenty-one* is deducible and thus motivated to a certain extent. Actually, any word composed of more than one morpheme can be interpreted based on its morphological structure. That is to say, there exists motivation for polymorphemic words, "but motivation is always more marked if the syntagmatic analysis is more straightforward and the meaning of the constituent units more obvious". (Saussure, 2001, p.130) Some formative elements are transparent enough, such as suffixes *er* and *ian* in such words as *teacher* and *musician*; others are of indefinite meaning, or altogether obscure, such as *ceive* and *tain* in *receive*, *deceive*, *conceive* and *contain*, *maintain* and *retain*.

Can we deny the arbitrary nature of linguistic sign just because of the existence of motivation? Absolutely no. Actually, we can see from the examples mentioned above that a poly-morphemic word is motivated only in terms of the syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations between the constituent morphemes. This is a "post-linguistic" phenomenon. (Gao, 1995, p.23) That is, we can regard such words as the result of using the linguistic elements already available, but not the core elements of a language. For example, the word *teacher* is motivated in that we can deduce it meaning from its constituent elements *teach* and *–er*. But *teacher* is the result of combining two elements *teach* and *–er* and its meaning is deduced from the syntagmatic relation between its two constituent elements. It is "post-linguistic". Without the two arbitrary elements *teach* and *–er*, there would be no motivated *teacher*.

Linguistic sign is arbitrary in nature.

We can see that only under the two conditions mentioned above is it theoretically possible and reasonable to propose arbitrariness. Without these two conditions, arbitrariness can not stand.

V.   Explanatory Power of Arbitrariness: Arbitrariness in Relation to Other Concepts in Saussurean Linguistics

We say arbitrariness is the first principle of Saussurean linguistics, for it is the foundation stone for Saussurean linguistics and modern linguistics. This principle underlies many important distinctions (concepts) in the theoretical system of modern linguistics and accounts for many linguistic phenomena. Zhang Shaojie (2004, p.2) says "actually, arbitrariness is the starting point for understanding Saussure's linguistic thoughts, for all his linguistic theories are based upon the arbitrary nature of language". Here due to the limit of space, we only look at the explanatory power through three perspectives: arbitrariness in relation to the invariability and variability of the linguistic sign, arbitrariness in relation to the creativity of language and arbitrariness in relation to semantic gaps and exceptions in linguistic regularity.

A.   Arbitrariness in Relation to the Invariability and Variability of the Sign

As is known to all, a language is always an inheritance from the past and every society has no choice but to accept it. Any given linguistic state is always the product of historical factors. This accounts for the invariability of the linguistic sign. But linguistic signs do change. The passage of time, on the one hand, ensures the continuity of a language, and on the other hand, works in the opposite direction. We have seen that linguistic signs in any language have changed with some rapidity. So variability and invariability are both characteristic of the linguistic sign.

Then how can we explain the variability and invariability of the linguistic sign? Saussure relates these two characteristics of the linguistic sign both with the arbitrary nature of language. As for the invariability of the linguistic sign, Saussure thinks that the arbitrary nature of the linguistic sign is the underlying reason since this very nature "tends to protect a language against any attempt to change it". (Saussure, 2001, p.73) In order to change something, there should be some issue to discuss and "there must be some reason for discussion." (Saussure, 2001, p.73) Saussure cites monogamy and polygamy to make an analogy. We can adduce reasons for or against the statement that monogamy is better than polygamy, that is to say, we have some basis to discuss this matter, but for a language, a system of arbitrary signs, this basis is lacking and, therefore, there is no ground for discussion. No reason can be given for preferring *mother* to *mère*, *brother* to *frère*, etc.

As for the variability of the linguistic sign, Saussure thinks that the arbitrary nature of language provides the theoretical possibility, for "since linguistic sign is arbitrary, a language as so far defined would appear to be an adaptable system, which can be organized in any way one likes, and is based solely upon a principle of rationality". (Saussure, 2001, p.78) Language is both a product of historical factors and a social fact. As a product of historical factors, language records the life of its speakers in the past by means of its signs and the rules for their combination; as a social fact, language has to be adapted to the new situations and conditions of the present life. In order to better serve as a tool for human existence, we have to change linguistic signs.

Arbitrariness well explains the invariability and variability of a linguistic sign.

B.   Arbitrariness in Relation to the Creativity of Language

The arbitrary nature of language can explain how linguistic rules come into being, or more specifically, why language is creative. The origin of a linguistic sign, that is, the combination of a sound pattern and a concept, is unmotivated. But once it is created and accepted by the speech community, it becomes creative. It can be used to form new signs. *–Gate* as a suffix is good example in case. *Watergate* was originally the name of a complex building in Washington D.C. It is just because the democratic party planted a bug at Watergate that *–gate*, which was originally having nothing to do with political scandal, began to be unexpectedly associated with political scandals. Several new words containing this suffix have been created, such as *Winegate*, *Ricegate*, *Debategate*, *Zippergate*, etc. Interesting enough, this suffix has been borrowed into Chinese and become very productive. Nowadays, almost every kind of scandal can be called ×××门, such as "艳照门", "兽兽门", "挤奶门", etc.

We can see that any linguistic rule is formed by analogizing an arbitrary linguistic model, thus the result of rational analogy of an arbitrary model. In turn, the linguistic forms resulted from the analogy are the materials from which to summarize linguistic rules. The rules summarized are obligatory for the speakers of a speech community and therefore are used to create more linguistic forms. However, we should not forget the arbitrary nature of language, which is the fundamental principle underlying all linguistic signs.

C.   Arbitrariness in Relation to Semantic Gaps and Exceptions in Linguistic Regularity

By comparison of two languages, such as English and Chinese, we can easily find that there are always some semantic gaps in one language, that is, there is a word in one language which corresponds to a particular concept but such a word does not exist in another language. For example,

English	**Chinese**
a ¢ book	一本书
a ¢ tree	一棵树
a ¢ dog	一条狗
a pack of wolves	一群狼
a flock of pigeons	一群鸽子
a herd of cattle	一群牛
English	**Chinese**
¢	果
fruit	水果
nut	坚果

Besides, there are always exceptions for any linguistic rule, which has by no means uniformity. For example, in English some sentence idioms do not conform to grammatical rules, that is, they are grammatically unanalysable. For example, *diamond cut diamond* (two parties are equally matched) is grammatically incorrect, for normally the verb *cut* should take the third person singular *–s* as the subject *diamond* is singular. Meanwhile there exists a structurally similar idiom *like cures like*, in which *–s* cannot be deleted. *As sure as eggs is eggs* (quite certainly) may serve as another example. The verb *is* in the idiom should be *are* to agree with grammar. However, we use it as it is. It is grammatically wrong, but idiomatic and widely accepted. In Chinese, if we eat in a canteen, we can say "吃食堂"but we never use similar structures such as "吃宾馆", "吃家里" even if we eat in a hotel or at home.

The phenomena of semantic gaps and exceptions in grammatical rules mentioned above can be only based on the arbitrary nature of language. Objects come into being prior to the linguistic signs, and linguistic signs come into being prior to the linguistic rules. The so-called grammatical rules, linguistic regularities and motivations of linguistic signs are just the stagnant summarization of the probabilities of linguistic facts. This is why we have some semantic gaps and exceptions of linguistic regularities. The legitimate existence of semantic gaps in a language is made possible by the fact that the signal and the signification have no intrinsic connection. It is just because the linguistic signs come into being prior to the linguistic rule, it is possible for the exceptions to exist. Without the arbitrary nature of the linguistic sign, there would be no reasonable ground for the existence of semantic gaps and exceptions in linguistic regularities.

The grammatical rules are just like the meteorological regularities we summarize, to which there are always exceptions. We can not conclude that meteorological phenomena are regular just because we can summarize some meteorological regularities. Exceptions of linguistic regularities are just like the weather not correctly predicted. If the regularity exists before the fact, there would be no exceptions. The existence of linguistic exceptions is a ready counter-evidence that our linguistic signs are motivated.

In conclusion, arbitrariness is the fundamental principle of linguistics. Only when we have a deep understanding of arbitrariness can we understand other important concepts in linguistics and some linguistic phenomena.

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The Correlation between General Self-Confidence and Academic Achievement in the Oral Presentation Course

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Abstract—The study was particularly aimed at investigating the correlation between general self-confidence and academic achievement in the oral presentation course. Participants were 53 undergraduate female English majors, from Taibah University. Data was collected through a General Self-Confidence Questionnaire (GSCQ) and final evaluation grades in the Oral Presentation course. SPSS was used for analyzing data. The results revealed a positive, significant correlation between general self-confidence and academic achievement. Those who scored high in GSCQ also had high scores in the oral achievement test. Language instructors were recommended to enhance building up their students' self-confidence in order to develop their oral performance achievement.

Index Terms—oral performance, academic achievement, general self-confidence

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning is a complex process (Young, 1999). It is influenced by cognitive and affective factors which constitute the main source of individual differences in foreign language learning (Tallon, 2009). According to Brown (2000) and Skehan (1989) the affective domain is the emotional side of human behaviour and it involves a variety of personality aspects such as emotion, motivation, attitude, anxiety, personality and self-confidence. Among these, self-confidence is one of the most influential variables which affect learning. It is one of the central drives in human beings and can exercise a determining influence on a person's life, for good or bad. Dörnyei (2005, p.211) stated that the concept of self- confidence is closely related to self-esteem, both share a common emphasis on the individual's perception of his or her abilities as a person. Glenda & Anstey (1990) explained that many researchers used the terms self-confidence, self evaluation, self worth, self appraisal, and self satisfaction interchangeably. Basically, it is a psychological and social phenomenon in which an individual evaluates him/ herself according to some values which may result in different emotional states, and which become developmentally stable, but are still open to variation depending on personal circumstances (Reasoner, cited in Rubio, 2004).

Carver et al. (1994) defined it as 'individual's overall evaluation or appraisal of themselves, whether they approve or disapprove of themselves, like or dislike themselves (Higgins, 1996, p.1073). Corsini (1994) viewed it as the way one feels about oneself or the 'sense of personal worthy and competence that people associate with their self concept' (p. 289). Cummings and Dunham (1989) defined it as the degree to which an individual believes him/ herself to be capable, significant, and worth (pierce & Gardner, 2004). Coopersmith (1981) added that it is 'a set of attitudes, judgments that a person brings with him or herself when facing the world. It includes beliefs as to whether he or she can expect success or failure' (as cited in Harris, 2009,p.9). In general, it refers to attitudes and beliefs towards the self.

General self-confidence is developed during the age of childhood and emerges from the accumulation of inter and intrapersonal experiences (Harris, 2009; Brown, 1994). The literature on the sources of building general self-confidence points to self-confidence being derived from several factors. The most important factors are: (1) personal experiences; successful experiences increase the development of high self-confidence, while the experiences of failure have the opposite effect, (2) social messages received from others. Community, home, school, and peers are important for self-confidence growth. Sending positive messages for others is thought to be detrimental to the development of high self-confidence, whereas exposure to negative messages decreases the level of self-confidence (Glenda & Anstey, 1990; Pierce et al., 1989; Brockner, 1988; Bandura, 1982).

Self-confidence is a personal factor that pays a supportive role in the achievement of foreign language learning. Some studies claim that no language learning activities will be carried out successfully without it (Huitt, 2004& Khodadad, 2003, cited in Hayti 2008,; Brown, 1994). It may facilitate or debilitate academic achievement. Foreign language learners who possess general self-confidence perform well and most likely believe themselves to be capable learners. When there is low self-confidence, on the contrary, 'learners suffer from uncertainty, insecurity, fear and social distance'. (Rubio, 2007, p.7).

Among the four language skills, the achievement of oral performance is thought to be highly correlated with self-confidence. FL learners can't speak the language or express themselves freely and fluently without some degree of it (Brown,1994). Thus the main objective of this paper was to examine the correlation between general self-confidence and learners' academic achievement on an oral presentation test.

A. Statement of the Problem

A major challenge of foreign language instruction is to promote learners' oral communication abilities since the fundamental goal of language teaching is the production of competent speakers of the target language. In Saudi Arabia, English is taught as a compulsory knowledge subject for about seven years in general education. The only way to learn English in Saudi Arabia is in classrooms where the majority of language teachers are native speakers of Arabic. Learners spent most of their time doing grammar and vocabulary drills instead of oral practice. Developing oral communicative skills, which require learners to practice in real-life situations, is totally ignored. Moreover, learners have little opportunities to apply what they have learned in class in the outside world. As a result, they graduate from high school unable to express themselves or engage in conversation. (Rabab'h, 2005). In most Saudi universities, English language departments accept high school graduates without taking into consideration their proficiency levels in English, which in turn doubles the efforts necessarily exerted by language instructors to help them master the speaking skill.

Oral Presentation is one of the courses introduced to English majors in order to enhance their speaking abilities. Learners described it as one of the most stressful courses they have ever had. Possessing general self-confidence is thought to be helpful to learners. Self-confidence plays an essential role in affecting learners' readiness to communicate.

This paper investigated the correlation between learners' general self-confidence measured by questionnaire scores and their academic achievement on an oral presentation test, measured by test scores. The researcher selected the oral presentation course because affective variables related to second language acquisition are easier to observe in interpersonal oral communication than when reading or writing in a second language (Guiora, Brannon & Dull, 1972; as cited in Nogueras, 1996).

B. The Significance of the Study

The current study may add information to the existing literature on how affective variables could influence the process of second language learning in a country like Saudi Arabia where opportunities to use English outside the classroom are few. It may help curriculum designers, language instructors and parents appreciate the importance of self-confidence in the production of second language, if the results of the study reveal some association between the two variables.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

To most instructors, developing learners'oral communication skills is the most challenging task in language teaching. Although practicing different communicative activities is the best way to help learners speak the language fluently, competence in the L2 may not be enough. Dörnei (2001) pointed out that learners need not only to be able to communicate but also be willing to communicate. MacIntyre et al. (2001), as cited in Brown, 2007, p.157, defined willingness to communicate as "the intention to initiate communication, given a choice".

Self-confidence is the most essential factor that determines learners' willingness to participate in oral activities in language classrooms (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu,2004). In other words, we can say that where there is self-confidence, there will be good communication. On the other hand, lack of self- confidence is thought to be the most dangerous barrier for effective communication. A number of studies have been carried out on the effects of self-confidence on learners readiness to participate in classroom communicative activities (Molberg, 2010; Al-Sibai,2005; Gregersen& Horwitz 2002; Brown, 1994).These studies revealed that self-confident learners usually take risks at speaking another language even if they do commit mistakes. They engage in different oral activities regardless of the topic discussed and the number of students in class. They learn from mistakes, work hard and eventually, they increase their language proficiency. On the other hand, low confident learners usually look away from instructor to avoid being called on. They feel uncomfortable when using the language orally because they are concerned about being criticized or disapproved of. As a result, they tend to perform less successfully (Al-sibai,2004).

The relationship between general self-confidence and academic achievement has been documented in literature. It is a controversial relationship and different studies showed conflicting results A significant number of studies reported the positive correlation of self-confidence with grades in language courses. Likewise, as high self-confidence may develop the learners'desire to communicate and help improve language proficiency, it may generate good school performance. The correlation between self-confidence and academic achievement is a dynamic one. As levels of self-confidence rise, academic achievement increases. As learners suffer from low self-confidence, academic achievement decreases. (Fook et al.,2011; Aryana, 2010; Harris, 2009; Fathi-Ashtiani et al., 2007; Al-Hattab,2006; Mahyuddin et al.,2006;Yamini & Tahriri,2006 ;Al-Enezi,2005; Eldred et al., 2004; Lloyd & Sullivan, 2003 ;Lockett & Harrell, Schmidt & padilla,2003; Walter,2003 ;Bankston & Zhou, 2002 ; Lavoie,2002; Lawrence,1996; Brown,1994; Alatorre, 1993). Self-confidence had, in particular, an impact on learners' oral performance. It was linked to the output they produced, thus affecting L2

communicative competence. The fear of speaking is related to low levels of confidence and resulted in lower performance (Molberg, 2010; Yahia & Nordin,2006 ; Chang,2004; Heysook & lee,2003; Gregersen& Horwitz 2002; Cheng,1999).

Contrary to the results of the above studies, some more recent studies indicated a modest or low correlation between self-confidence and academic achievement such as (Elrafei,2008; Pullmann & Allikk, 2008; Nagar et al., 2008), and the results of other studies revealed that no correlation was found between the two variables (Ahmed et al., 2011; Zahra,2010; Kaur et.al.,2009 ;Naderi et al.,2009; Yahaya & Ramli, 2009; Zubrick et al., 2006; Bodkin-Andrews et al.,2008; Miraei,2005; Craven & Marsh, 2004; kimura,2002).

In conclusion, it clearly appeared from the review of this survey that there is contradiction between the results of the previously mentioned studies. The possible explanation is that the above studies were conducted in different countries on different samples, gender, levels and used different scales. It was also obvious that there did not exist much research literature on the correlation between general self-confidence and academic achievement within a Saudi context. The studies conducted on Saudi learners were very few such as Al-Hattab (2006), Al-Sibai (2005). The current paper, therefore, aimed at investigating the correlation between general self-confidence and academic oral presentation achievements of female English majors, to find out if general self-confidence had an influence on learners' oral performance.

III. METHOD

A. Research Design

A descriptive – correlation design was employed to find out the relationship between general self-confidence and academic achievement. The descriptive design was employed to describe the current status of the subjects in the study. The correlation study, on the other hand, was carried out to investigate the existence, or non existence of the relationship between the variables of the study in order to make predictions or suggestions (Fook et al.,2011,p.33).

B. Participants

The participants of the study were (53) undergraduate Saudi students majoring in English at Taibah University. They were female and the range of their age was from 20 to 22. They have learned English from the intermediate stage onward as a school subject like ordinary Saudi students of the same age. They joined the English Department without having much experience in speaking to native speakers / each other in English. Moreover, they had few opportunities to practice English outside the classroom walls. The English Department introduced them to some courses to help improve their speaking abilities; one of the most important was Oral Presentation. All participants enrolled in the *Oral Presentation Course* in the academic year of 2011. The main objective of this course was to teach learners how to construct, compose, present and deliver information through oral interaction in more fluent and correct English.

C. Data Collection

Data related to the objective of the study was collected from the General Self-Confidence Questionnaire constructed by Al-Enezi (1999). It was administered to participants in the first term of the academic year 2011. It consisted of 25 statements about GSC, and learners were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement. The responses were scored on a five-point Likert scale response format, ranging from 'No' to 'too much'. According to the rating system of the questionnaire, the minimum score was 25 points and the maximum score was 125 points. On this questionnaire, a high score reflected a high level of GSC, whereas a low score indicated a low level of GSC.

Additionally, for the purpose of the study, academic achievement was assessed in terms of the instructors' final evaluation 'grades'. Learners' grades were obtained from the course instructor as an indicator of their achievement. In the oral presentation test, learners were tested individually. Each learner was given complete freedom to deliver a presentation about any topic and some time to prepare for the presentation. This task was supposed to be performed in front of the instructor and colleagues. Each participant was given ten minutes to deliver her presentation. The instructor evaluated according to the following criteria: fluency, accuracy, organization, conveying facts, delivery, using non-verbal language and social skills.

D. Data Analysis

The data acquired from the learners' scores on the self-confidence questionnaire and oral test was analyzed using SPSS (version 18.0). Descriptive statistics were calculated for better understanding of the scores obtained from the study instruments. To examine the relationship between the study variables, correlation analysis, ANOVA, T-test were carried out. The results obtained were displayed below.

IV. RESULTS

The results of the computed descriptive statistics of the general self-confidence questionnaire revealed that the mean score of the participants was (92.41), and participants' standard deviation was (16.786). See table (1).

TABLE (1)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Sum	53	59.00	155.00	92.4151	16.78648

It appeared from the results reported in table (2) that the mean score of the participants on oral presentation test was (81.84) and the standard deviation score was (4.89).

TABLE (2)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
OPT	53	70.00	93.00	81.8491	4.89268

To examine the correlation between general self-confidence and academic achievement scores, correlation analysis was conducted. The Pearson correlation coefficient, presented in Table (3), was r (.707**). The Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was also employed to determine the correlation between the two variable. The results presented in Table (4) revealed that the correlation coefficient was (.806**).

TABLE (3)

		GSC	OPT
GSC	Pearson Correlation	1	.707(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	53	53
OPT	Pearson Correlation	.707(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	53	53

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

TABLE (4)

			GSC	OPT
Spearman's rho	GSC	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.806(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	53	53
	OPT	Correlation Coefficient	.806(**)	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	53	53

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The findings above indicated that the participants' scores on the general self-confidence questionnaire correlated positively with oral test scores. It appeared that general self-confidence could affect the quality of oral performance.

The participants were divided in two groups according to the scores they acquired on the general self-confidence questionnaire: the higher self-confidence group and the lower self-confidence group. The ANOVA analysis was run, using self-confidence as the independent variable (high & low) and oral performance as the dependent variable. The results of the analysis revealed that self-confidence had a significant effect on the participants' oral performance $F(20.82) = P<0.01$.

Further, correlation analysis was employed to examine if there was a significant correlation between possessing high levels of self-confidence and high scores in the oral presentation test. The results, reported in table (5), showed a statistically positive correlation at the level of $P<0.01$. The positive correlation showed that the higher the participants' level of general self-confidence, the higher were their oral presentation scores and conversely participants with low self-confidence had lower scores. In other words, the participants' level of general self-confidence was a significant predictor for their academic achievement.

TABLE (5)

group_s		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Spearman's rho
grpou p _	59-79	13	1.1538	.55470	.15385	.749(**)
	107-155	13	3.4615	.66023	.18311	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The findings mentioned above highlighted the importance of self-confidence in speaking a foreign language. Self-confident learners are ready to speak in public. They work hard, perform well and accordingly, achieve academic progress. On the contrary, the issue of developing oral communication skills becomes problematic when learners suffer from a lack of self-confidence. Low confident learners feel uncomfortable, afraid and frustrated in the classroom. As a result, they tend to perform with less effectiveness and satisfaction, which is affecting their academic achievement in general.

V. CONCLUSION

The study examined the correlation between general self-confidence and achievement in the oral performance test of undergraduate female English majors. The results indicated a positive significant correlation between the two variables. The more self confident learners were, the higher were their scores in the oral test. Highly self-confident learners were ready to try to speak in front of others. Lack of general self-confidence, on the other hand, resulted in lack of interest to strive for high quality oral performance. Less confident learners were not certain of their abilities. They tended to try less which in turn leaded to low levels of achievement. The findings of the study also highlighted the importance of promoting general self-confidence among language learners in order to develop their oral proficiency. Therefore, language instructors are recommended to focus on building their students' self-confidence through creating a supportive classroom environment that encourages them to speak and participate in oral activities without fear. They can help learners recognize their fears and help them learn to deal with them. They can support positive thinking and fight negative views and beliefs. During oral activities, they should maintain a relaxed and humorous atmosphere; design interesting activities give more time and opportunities and concentrate on the positive.

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A Contrastive Study of L1 and L2 Acquisition

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Abstract—**This study aimed to give a comprehensive and all out analysis of the processes and aspects involved in first and second language acquisition and learning since this may cause a better selection of the teaching materials, methodologies, techniques and also a more efficient deployment and implementation of them in second or foreign language learning classes.**

Index Terms—**affective variables, behaviorism, psychomotor variables, cognitive variables, acquisition/learning, input**

I. INTRODUCTION

Numerous studies have focused on finding the nature of the first and second language acquisition. The reason is clear, because they are wondering if a second language learner can learn the second language as effortlessly and perfectly as they did their first language. Why after having spent so many hours and effort in language learning classes, they find themselves unable to carry out a simple everyday conversation in l2. The results of these studies also have valuable implications for language teachers which can help them to design their syllabuses, teaching processes and classroom activities. These results also enable the language teacher to understand his/her students' learning processes.

This study tries to review the issues in l1 and l2 contrastive studies and tackle the similarities and differences in the process of learning these two from different angles.

II. CONSIDERATIONS IN COMPARING AND CONTRASTING L1 AND L2 LEARNING

The contrast and comparison between L1 and L2 acquisition can be carried out in terms of psychomotor, cognitive, affective, linguistic and neurological variables. Psychomotor variable concern muscle control, and in regards to first and second language acquisition relate to the development of speech muscles that allow one to control complex sounds determining pronunciation and accent. Cognitive variable concern an individual's course of intellectual development, and hold several areas to compare first and second language acquisition. For example, an adult learning a second language could benefit from grammatical explanations and deductive thinking, whereas a child learning a first or second language would not. Affective variable concerns emotions. Linguistic variable concerns the differences and potential dissonance between the first and second language.

The point is that the above mentioned variables differ between children and adults, Brown (1994). So it is easier to compare young children learning an l1 and young children learning an l2. However the story is different in some countries like Iran where students start receiving their formal English language education in junior high school. As Brown (1994) believes the distinction should be made before and after puberty. This states the critical period hypothesis introduced by Lenneberg (1967) which holds that language acquisition should take pace during a critical period which ends at about the age puberty. It is then believed that any language learning which occurs after the age of puberty is slower and less successful than normal first language learning which of course not absolutely necessarily true. (Crashen, 1975; Lenneberg, 1967).

What follows is a brief discussion of each of the above mentioned variables which influence the process and nature of learning an l2 and accordingly the mechanism of the l1, l2 learning contrastive studies.

A. Neurological Changes

Research shows that as the brain develops, certain functions are assigned or so called lateralized to either hemisphere, it is believed that logical and analytical functions are located in the left hemisphere while the right hemisphere controls functions related to emotional and social needs. Language function appears to be controlled mainly in the left

hemisphere. Lennenberg (1967) believes that this process happens gradually starting from the age of two and continue to the age of puberty. Now the point as Scovel (1969) puts it is that, while the brain functions, one of which is the language are assigned to the hemispheres and due to the plasticity of the brain prior to puberty, a child can learn a second language in addition to his/her mother tongue. This completion of the lateralization process as he says is the cause of the difficult the l2 earners may have after the age of puberty in having full command of the second language they are learning.

B. Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis

There is a distinction between learning, the explicit, conscious knowing about the language that occurs through instruction and classrooms practices and the acquisition of the language which is the way a child get the language, Krashen (1982). Though an adult can learn and acquire a second language if he is put in the write setting, however according to what Krashen says, learning cannot be turned to acquisition.

C. Physical Changes

A neurologically related issue is the psychomotor or the control over our articulatory muscles. This gives us the accent we have in our speech which include (*throat*, *larynx*, *mouth*, *lips*, *tongue*, and other muscles).

According to Brown (1994), the development of the child's speech muscles is a large contributing factor to the attainment of native-like pronunciation. This control over articulatory muscles is at first basic and then develops to handle more complex sounds which may last more than the age of 5 to be completed. Now the point is that due to the muscular plasticity of children they can acquire a better pronunciation of a second language than an adult earner.

D. Cognitive Changes

Piaget (1929), in Larsen freeman 1991), outlines the cognitive devilment of a child b his age:
- The sensorimotor stage from ages 0 to 2
- The preoperational stage from ages 2 to 7
- The operational stage from ages 7 to 16

The cognition develops faster up to age of 16 and then it gets slower. After the age of puberty and the maturation of the cognition, adults have the advantage of solving the problems by using their cognitive abilities and general information processing. Skehan (1988). And this is why they may benefit from deductive learning of language structures and grammar. Meaningfulness in such learning is possibly far more important for adults than for children, Ausubel (1964).

E. Affective Changes

The development of cognition in adult comes along with some affective obstacles on the way of learning a second language. One of them is *inhibition.* A child is highly egocentric, meaning his identity is highly flexible and pliable. As he grows up, he becomes more and more aware of himself and develops a more solid self-identity and after the age of puberty he tries to protect this identity. In case of language he develops a *language ego* with reference to the language he learns, Brown (1994).

The point here is that learning a new language for an adult means adopting a new ego along with an existing one related to the mother tongue. This feeling of clinging to the first ego causes an inhibition on the way of learning the second language.

Another affective factor casing difficulty for the learners is attitude. Since young children are not yet cognitively developed to raise a solid attitude toward a certain races, cultures, ethnic groups, and languages. The attitude that is established when the child grows up and if it is positive it can enhance the process of second language learning and vice versa, Ellis (1994). Stephen. Affective variables can act as a mental block, also termed affective filter, and prevent comprehensible input to be absorbed. When the learner is unmotivated and lacks confidence the affective filter goes up. When the learner is not anxious and wants to be a member of the group speaking the target language the filter goes down. He adds that children are at an advantage when learning a first or second language because their affective filter is low while adults are likely to have a higher affective filter due to events that occurred in adolescence McLaughlin (1987).

Along with the above mentioned, the social factor also influences the learning of the second language. A language is mostly acquired in a natural context and the social group in which the child is growing and yet in cases like the Iranian learners the context of learning of L2 differs from that of L1 since English is not spoken as a medium of communication outside of the confines of the classrooms and yet it is not taught along with the first language in the formal educational system. These social and educational differences play important roles in the learning process.

F. The Behavioristic View

These have been said, many studies that characterize the features of l2 acquisition are based on the issue of inter-language. Selinker (1969, cited in McLaughlin, 1987) defines Inter-language as the interim grammars constructed by second language learners on their way to the target language. Inter-language is the learner's developing second language knowledge and has some characteristics of the learner's native language, of the second language, and some

characteristics which seem to be very general and tend to occur in all or most Inter-languages. It is systematic, dynamic and constantly evolving. The phenomena that can be spotted in most language learners whose l2 learning have not simultaneously occurred with their l1 learning which is also the case of many Iranian English learners. However for a better and more informed analysis, let's take a look at some common arguments mentioned by Stern (1970) about teaching second language acquisition based on the processes of the first language acquisition.

- In language teaching we must practice and practice again and again. Just like a child learning his mother tongue, repeats things over and over again. During the language learning stage, he practices all the time. This is what we must do while learning a foreign language.

- Language learning is mainly a matter of imitation. You must be a mimic just like a child. He imitates everything.

- First we practice the separate sounds, then words, then sentences. This is the natural order and then is right for learning a foreign language.

- Watch a small child's speech development. First he listens and the he speaks. Understanding always precedes speaking. Then this must be the right order of presenting the foreign language.

- A small child listens and speaks and no one would dream of making him read or write. Reading and writing are the advanced stages of language development. The natural order for first and second language learning is listening, speaking, reading, and writing. You did not have to translate when you were small. If you were able to learn your own language without translation, you should be able to learn a foreign language in the same way

- A small child simply uses language. He does not learn a formal grammar. You don't tell him about verbs and nouns. Yet he learns language perfectly. It is equally unnecessary to use grammatical conceptualization in teaching a foreign language.

The statements above, represents the behavioristic view of language learning. All that have been discussed above were among the differences and similarities between a young child L1 learner and an adult L2 learner themselves. However there are aspects other than the learners that vary in the process of these two groups' language learning that will be tackled here.

III. INPUT

One of the big differences between a child learning an L1 in a natural setting and L2 learners in the classroom is the input they receive. Both in quality and quantity.

A. Quantity of Input

A child receives a torrent of L1 on a daily basis in a natural way while an L2 learner's exposure to the language he is learning is much more limited. In case of EFL setting like Iran it is even more marked. Students receive official English education when they start high school and are limited to one to three sessions 50 – 90 minute sessions per week and yet in most cases the English classes are held using L1. The importance of input has always been, marked by different theories and ideologies. The behaviorists believe that there is a one to one relationship between input and output which is learning. To get good results learners need to receive proper feedback which is the input. Stephen Krashen (1982) has put forward the Input Hypothesis which reveals the importance he places on input. He argues that the learner needs to receive comprehensible input to acquire language. The input a first language learner receives is simple and comprehensible at the beginning and gets slightly more complicated. Krashen believes that input should be slightly above the level of the language learner (i+1). Only in doing so can the second language learner move forward. He argues that the second language learner should be exposed to the target language as much as possible and that the lack of comprehensible input will cause the language learner to be held up in his development, Ellis (1994). Children are exposed to a day to day interaction and conversation that is tailored to the level of the understanding of the child. Most of this interaction is verbal at first so it is believed that this kid of constant verbal interaction is crucial for language learning since it helps to make the facts of the second language salient to the learner. The intersectional modifications that exist in the interaction of a native speaker with a non-native speaker make the input for the NNS comprehensible, Lightbown & Spada, (2006)

B. The Quality of Input

As slightly mentioned above many scholars marked the importance of the comprehensible input which is the input a bit above the learner's level of competence is necessary to learn the second language though a problem with this i+1 is that it cannot be clearly defined. However Long (1983, cited in Ellis (1997) put emphasis on the interaction and the negotiation of meaning. By doing so the input is further modified adequately for the level of the learner. Another perspective on the role of interaction in language learning has been drawn from (Vygotsky's 1978, cited in Ellis, 1997) zone of proximal development theory. He maintains that children solve problems with the guidance of caretakers, who provide scaffolding; children then internalize these solutions.

Another point with the quality of the input received by the two groups of learners is the topics of the interaction. For a child the topics come from the immediate surrounding environment could then be further linked to things the child did before. This way the child can make associations between the input and the context of its use. Both the topic and the environment mostly are of the child interest. However in a classroom on the other hand, it is quite difficult for the

teacher to always come up with something so interesting or so relevant that every student wants to find out more about it, Macnamara, (1975). He goes that it has been my experience that the topic is seldom generated by the students themselves. When the given topic is so far removed from their own cultural experiences, even those cognitively matured adult learners could face difficulty in comprehending the meaning at the onset.

Cook (1969) goes deeper in to the child's nature of interaction with others while learning his mother tongue and says, In an L1 learning situation, the child's response to modified speech triggers additional, even better adjusted input from the caretaker through intimate, supportive, personal interaction. The child supplies content words, and the caretaker empathetically constructs them into a sentence with the grammatical items missing in the child's utterance, and also expands the original sentence into a contextually meaningful form for the child. Different kinds of modifications are deployed in these interactions such as repetitions, clarification requests, comprehension checks, expansions, from others Larsen-Freeman and Long, (1991), however it is often impossible for the teacher to interact with each student on a person-to-person basis for a length of time even in a case of extended classroom interaction, the modifications are mostly limited to grammatical error corrections, cook (1969).

All in all it seems that as far as the above mentioned aspects of input are concerned the children have an advantage. However the question that weather or not they can transfer their L1 learning experiences to L2 learning is a matter of their age and the critical period hypothesis which was already discussed.

IV. IMPLICATIONS FOR THE TEACHERS

In traditional classes in our country Iran teachers should raise the amount of input the students are receiving now. They should also try use English as the medium of communication inside the classrooms and incorporate the needed modifications to make the input comprehensible to the students. It is also implied from the L1 learning analysis that L2 learners should be encouraged to choose their own topics which they are interested in and the size of the classrooms should be smaller so that the teacher and students have the chance to spend more time having extended interactions around these topics.

Since in most Iranian English classrooms the focus is on conscious attention to language forms and the cognitive development of the students is used to learn the grammar and lexicon faster but the problem is that they will be forgotten easily and students cannot use what they have memorized through rote learning consciously, in practice. In this light, teachers should decrease on mechanical pattern drills and adopt a more communicative approach and activities that include increased and comprehensible input in L2.

As far as the learners are concerned they should be provided with an un threatening learning environment like that of a child as much as possible. They also should be given this view that English is a world language and should be presented with examples and well-known figures whose first language is not English to alleviate this extreme tendency toward the English speaking countries' cultures.

Another point is that since pronunciation is closely related to language ego Guiora, et al., (1972) it is better than learners start learning the L2 from earlier age for they are mentally and cognitively and emotionally more pliable and adaptable. Like a child learning his L1 in a fully contextualized setting, it is recommended to provide enough context and extra linguistic clues while teaching the language to learners in classes especially to younger learners of English.

V. CONCLUSION

Complex processes are involved in L1 and L2 learning and understanding and investigating these processes will help teachers to be more aware and involve the recommended language teaching tips though they shouldn't adhere to only a certain claim or factor. They should understand, analyze, synthesize and even criticize before trying to implement any of the suggestions made for teaching. They also should decide on a language theory so they adhere to it and combine it with their language teaching in classrooms.

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A Tentative Analysis of English Film Translation Characteristics and Principles

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Abstract—**Film is a kind of audio-visual art, where dialogues work together with visual images, sound tracks and music. Film translation, as a kind of mass multimedia translation, is a new field of art and translation. Based on detailed analysis of the characteristics of film translation compared with general translation, two prevalent methods of film translation: dubbing and subtitling, and the constraints of each method, this paper attempts to categorize some feasible principles and requirements that account for successful film translation, which can be used to guide film translation practice.**

Index Terms—**film translation characteristics, constraint, translation principle**

I. INTRODUCTION

Among the international exchange, film culture, especially film, has been promoted to be one of the dominant forms of culture in modern society. Extended beyond the field of art, it has become a part of people's lives and exerted a strong influence on the formation of people's language, living patterns and even values.

In order to appreciate the perfect original English film works, we have to resort to the translated ones. With such a big market and so huge an audience, film translation is undoubtedly one of the commonest forms of translation in our contemporary society.

Comparatively speaking, film translation is less studied both at home and abroad. In China, translators just carry out the studies of film translation according to their own intuition and experience in this field. Though several translators have proposed some theories of English-Chinese film translation, the research so far is neither systematic nor comprehensive; it remains one of the areas that need urgent research in translation studies.

"Film translation" has also been called "screen translation". But the term "screen translation" emphasizes the channel of the medium where the translation product appears, namely the TV, cinema, or video screen; while "film translation" emphasizes the dimensions of the communicative mode. Unlike communication through books, radios, telephones, or sign language, film communication implies that both the acoustic channel through air vibrations and the visual channel through light waves are simultaneously utilized. It stresses the need to accommodation in the process of translation the requirements of both these channels.

II. CHARACTERISTICS OF FILM TRANSLATION

A. Multimedia

Film, is a kind of multimedia, both a visual medium and an aural one. In general translation, the readers see it with their eyes, but read it in mind. They get messages only by a visual channel. The audience of film watch what characters are doing and hear what they are talking about, messages reach the audience through visual and acoustic channels. Obviously, fascination of dubbed film lies in harmonious cooperation between visual and acoustic channels, which demands the target language should cope with the original images in the film as naturally as possible.

What's more, films and TV plays are supposed to act directly on the sense of sight of the audience, not on the sense of hearing. As Martin points out, "Picture is the basic element of the language of film." "However… it is normal and unquestionable that in the film utterance forms a constituent element of the reality and play a fundamental role in achieving realism… In fact, utterance is a component of the visual picture and therefore, it is subject to the movement of the pictures."(Martin, 1977, p. 149) We can notice that the translation of utterance should be synchronized with the settings of the scenes, the identity of the characters, their movements, gestures, facial expressions, pauses and lip movements; in that pictures transfer the major part of the messages and pictures play the much more important role.

B. Spoken Language & Easy Understandability

English feature films are an entertainment more than a holy art. Once they indulge in self-admiration, they come to a dead end. As a mass art, feature films are due to win the audience. An excellent film should be a dignified compromise between market and art so as to offend neither the mass nor the critics.

Film translation primarily deals with spoken language, rather than written language. English films are means of entertainment, so it is the translator's duty to enable the audience to get entertained in the easiest way. The audience

may be experts of English culture or merely laymen; they may be Doctors or just beginners. They have different ages, genders, levels of education and backgrounds, etc. They consequently have varied understanding abilities and appreciation values. To cater so many different tastes, popular films assure well-chosen themes, closely-knit plots, attractive frames and most importantly, easily understood dialogues.

With dialogue being the major component of the script, colloquialism is the top priorities for a translator of film translation.

In addition, extra-linguistic features such as facial expressions, gestures, stance and paralinguistic features such as pitch of the voice, rapidity of speech, pauses and hesitations should also be taken into account in film translation.

C.   Transience

In film, utterances are spoken which are difficult to trace. In general translation, to be more specific, fiction readers may turn over pages to ransack any useful clues with ease and in no hurry when failing to grasp the intended meaning. However, if the audience miss what they are hearing, especially important sentences or words, they will be lost in the dark, because they has nowhere to turn to, and no time to think with new messages surging over them. The "shots" of films last only seconds and usually cannot be replayed, which makes it impossible for the audience to refer back to the previous parts of the story to recollect or reflect upon the information as a reader does with a book. The transience of pictures demands the translator convey as much message as the duration of each "shot" allows, and at the same time as intelligible enough for the audience to absorb immediately as possible. What's more, no notes can be allowed on the screen as other translators do in a book to explain potential linguistic obscurities and cultural specifics. The translator is forced to lighten the burden on the audience, which keeping the original message intact.

D.   The Feedback Effect

Apart from having to face the time-and-space constraints of the film media, the film translator never escapes the fact that there is always someone, in most cases at least a large minority of his viewers, who understands very well what is said by the people on the screen (Gottlieb, 1997). Subtitling is seen as overt translation, laying itself bare to criticism from everyone with the slightest knowledge of the source language (Gottlieb, 1994). The viewers' reception of a subtitled program is based on the interactive subtitles-picture, with the dialogue playing a pivotal role. In a number of cases, such feedback is felt by translator and viewer as negative. However, in other situations the feedback from the original version is of a positive nature. Movies, being poly media, presents the translator with many deictic solutions to potentially ambiguous utterances: the subtitler can actually see or hear how a certain linguistic feature should be interpreted.

E.   Complicated Procedure

Compared to general translation, film translation has a more complicated procedure. General translation follows the traditional translation pattern:

Author→ the original → Translator → Translated Text → Receptors

The author and the original are the focuses in this procedure. The translator, as the first receptor of the original, reads thoroughly the original text, and then represents it to the receptors in the target language. The translated text will undoubtedly affect the receptors' evaluation and understanding of the original one. So receptors' reception to the translation servers as feedback that the translator can never afford to neglect. Author, translator and receptors are the subjects affecting the whole procedure. And the original and translated texts are the tool and vehicle of their mental emotional communication.

The procedure of film translation is more complicated as follows: [Dubbing]

[Author] → the original→ Translator → Translated Screenplay→

Dubbing Director (Dubbing Actors) →Dubbed Screenplay→ Audience

Actually the scriptwriter replaces the author, who is ignored by the audience and by translation researchers. No one has ever thought of checking on his life story and his accustomed styles as they do in general translation, fiction translation. Usually film scripts are translated as if independent of any writer. Film script translation has to be tested for its harmony with visual frames. In the later stage of production, dubbing actors and director join in the procedure. Dubbing director is the one in charge of guiding dubbing actors to a correct and faithful performance. The translated script undergoes considerable changes in this stage. Finally, the new soundtrack in the target language is dubbed onto the film. Thus we can sense that film translation is, by all means, of more complicated creation, which consists of more components and elements.

F.   Little Chance of Retranslation

As we all know, a good classical novel has always been viewed as the most valuable cultural heritage. People in different times can possibly read out of it endless new meanings. That's why it is often the case that an old novel has more than one translated versions, still with more to come in the future. However, a feature film is seldom translated twice. Feature film translation bears resemblance to fast food, quickly consumed and quickly forgotten.

III.   CLASSIFICATION OF FILM TRANSLATION

Dubbing and subtitling are the most prevalent methods of film translation used to make foreign-language programs available to the domestic market according to different communication channels.

A.   Dubbing

Dubbing or lip-sync dubbing as a specific technique attempts to cover entirely the spoken source text with a target text adjusted to fit the-visual-lip movements of the original utterances. (Karamitroglou, 2000)

Dubbing, which is sometimes called (post-) synchronization, is the replacement of the dialogue and narration in a foreign language into the language of the viewing audience, the target language. Dubbing is the method in which "the foreign dialogue is adjusted to the mouth and movements of the actor in the film, and its aim is seen as making the audience feel as if they were listening to actors actually speaking the target language.

Dubbing involves a translation of speech into writing. It is the oral translation of spoken language. Dubbing also requires the substitution of the voice of each character on the screen by the voice of an actor, that's why some highly invested films invite pop stars to be the dubbing actors to attract the audience's interest. With dubbing, the translation is covert and the audience hears the target language dialogue, and is completely shielded from the foreign tongue.

Before the 1940s, with dubbing, all the original soundtracks in the film have to be erased, which with no doubt decrease the audience's illusion of authenticity. But Dr. Fotios Karamitroglou, a member of ESIST (the European Association for studies in Screen Translation) says that with the help pf digitalization, dubbing seems to have a better future. Firstly, the ability to have the voices of the original actors on separate tracks allows us to retain the original background sound, as well as the music and effects, and opt for smooth blending with the original images. Secondly, since lip-sync has been regarded as a most difficulty in film translation, dubbing is also enhanced by our recently acquired ability to interfere with the original image. (Karamitroglou, 2000) The procedure that the Japanese animators follow to change the lip movements of their drawing in order to synchronize them to a French script has already drawn the attention of advertising companied\s as well as individual film producers.

B.   Subtitling

As explained in the New Oxford Dictionary of English, "subtitles are captions displayed at the bottom of a cinema or television screen that translate or transcribe the dialogue or narrative" They are "the words printed or superimposed on a film in foreign\indistinguishable regional language in order to translate what is being said on the sound track." We can find that subtitles are pasted to the original visual images and sometimes cause minor losses of the integrity of original pictures.

Subtitling can be defined as the translation of the spoken (or written) source text of a film product into a written target text which is added onto the images of the original product, usually at the bottom of the screen (Karamitroglou, 2000). The concept is sometimes used synonymously with "captioning" (to add caption at the foot of the screen). (Minchiton, 1987, p.282)

According to the positions in the film, subtitles can be categorized into three types. Those appearing at the beginning of the film include the film title, director, leading actor(s), or actress(es), major production members and they are called "open credit titles"; those appearing after the main feature film include detailed cast and production members, sponsors and many other production information and usually called "end credit titles"; the rest of the main subtitles cover the main feature film and they are called "the main subtitle". According to specific functions in the entire film, main subtitles can be further categorized into spoken subtitles, film subtitles with music, graphical subtitles, etc.

C.   Comparison of Dubbing and Subtitling

1. Authenticity. Among all kinds of film translation, dubbing is the one that interferes the most in the structure of the original. Many critics raise objections as to its authenticity.

However, subtitling involves the least interference with the original; in other words, it is the most neutral, minimally meditated method. Therefore, it is subtitling that contributes to experiencing the flavor of the foreign language, its mood and the sense of a different culture more than any translation mode. Plainly speaking, the audience enjoys the whole original film including sound and image, with the help of subtitles.

Dubbing is known to be the method that modifies the source text to a large extend and thus makes it familiar to the target audience through domestication. Its aim is to make the audience feel as if they were listening to actors actually speaking the target language. subtitling, i.e. supplying a translation of the spoken source language dialogue into the target language in the form of synchronized captions, usually at the bottom of the screen, is the form that alters the source text to the least possible extent and enable the target audience to experience the foreign and be aware of its "foreignness" at all times.

2. Cost. Because of the technical difference between dubbing and subtitling, the difference in cost is huge: subtitling is 10-15 times cheaper than dubbing. (Luyken et al., 1991) On the whole, it can be stated that especially in Western European countries dubbing is preferred in larger and more affluent countries, which can expect high box office receipts, whereas subtitling is used in small countries, whose audiences comprise more restricted markets. According to Minchiton, "Dubbing is much more expensive and time consuming than subtitling." (Minchiton, 1987, p.279)

3. Non-verbal information. It is frequently the case that there appear some non-verbal signs, e.g. notices, tokens, trademarks or road signs in the background during the course of a film. All these seem to give away dubbing which

attempts to function as the original. At this time, subtitling can be useful to explain the meaning of the sign and to help them to accomplish their functions (maybe very essential functions) within the entire plots by inserting a subtitle with the target language equivalent (e.g. in capital letters or italics to differentiate it from spoken utterances)

IV. CONSTRAINTS OF FILM TRANSLATION

In the process of translation, many factors contribute to the realization of an optimally approximated translation. Film translation, is no exception, which imposes a variety of constraints on the translator. Unlike other types of translation, film translation does not allow free condensation or deletion. It has stricter demand on completeness and logic. A movie is always originally film art concentrated in about two hours, as well as a closely woven fabric from which nothing can be removed. All frames are linked with each other, parts of plots echoing from afar. One part missing, the whole is hit.

Film translation, is also called "film synchronization" by some experts. They take into account the more specific question of synchrony, as well as technical constraints that the manipulation of film materials implies. When dealing with the translation of the original film script, Mayoral, Kelly and Gallardo (Mayoral, Kelly and Gallardo, 1988, p.359) put forward the following types of synchrony:

Synchrony of time: agreement in time of different signals that communicate a unit of information.

Spatial Synchrony: the signals occupy neither more nor less space than that which corresponds to them.

Content Synchrony: the meanings transmitted by different signals contradict neither each other nor the whole message.

Phonetic Synchrony: synchrony of sound signals of spoken dialogue with the visible speech movements on the screen.

Character Synchrony: the harmony between the image of the character and his or her voice and words.

Obviously, subtitling is mainly conditioned by synchrony of time and spatial and content synchrony, while dubbing also must take into account the phonetic and character synchrony.

The following is the specific constraint study of the two classes of film translation.

A. Constraints in Dubbing

Unlike the audience of the original, dubbing audience see the visual part of the original, but hear the dubbed dialogue in their own native language, with the make-believe acknowledgement that the language are just the kind the characters are speaking. So lip synchronization is usually seen as the strongest constraint on accurate translation. The script translator modifies each utterance in order to match it with the lip movements of the person seen on the screen.

Indeed it is difficult to find target language words to match the source language lip movements. Lip synchronization can be better performed with a more pragmatic plot-oriented translation. If translation aims at conveying the general tone of each scene rather than locating meaning in each sentence, there will be more freedom to find appropriate words for lip synchronization.

What's more, there should be a strict equivalence of extra-linguistic features of voice, especially gender and age. Other markers of speech such as personality, class and ethnicity are most difficult because these features are not universally available or comparable. Dubbing should also be consistent with the performances; so another requirement is the compatibility of the dubber's voice with the facial and body expressions, such as pause, stress and gesture, visible on the screen.

B. Constraints in Subtitling

The ideal in subtitling is to translate each utterance in full, and display it synchronically with the spoken words on the screen. However, the medium imposes serious constraints on full text translation.

1. Space limitations

No matter how big the size of the film screen, subtitles can only occupy the space of at most two lines at the lower part. However, the subtitles should be enough to transfer the necessary message and information. Each subtitle should be able to accommodate a satisfactory portion of the (translated) spoken text and minimize the need for original text reduction and omission. It is reported that, for ideographic language subtitling, such as Chinese, Japanese and Korean, each line allow no more than 18 characters. Overspreading of more characters would reduce the legibility of subtitles.

2. Constraints on duration

The presence of subtitles should be consistent with the visual images, and they should also be long enough for average viewers to catch the meaning. At the same time, they should not be too long on the screen; otherwise, the viewers will be annoyed.

Guardini holds that the time of presentation of subtitles is dictated by a) the duration of the utterance in the original version; b) the reading speed of the audience; c) the visual information given on the screen, which also needs to be perceived clearly by the viewers; and d) the editing style adopted in the film. To make addition, it also depends on the quantity and complexity of the text, the speed of the dialogue and the necessary intervals between subtitles.

According to Karamitoglou, the reading speed of the "average" viewers (aged between 14—65, from an upper-middle socio-educational class) for a text of average complexity (a combination of formal and informal language) has been proven to range 150—180 words per minute, i.e. between 2.5—3 words per second. In all the

above-mentioned situations, the duration time should not be added in order to avoid the acoustic re-reading of the subtitles, especially by faster readers. In cases where the text is lexically and syntactically easy to process or the past pace of the film action dictates a reduction in the duration of the subtitles, the duration time could be calculated and shortened down to the maximum of the reading time (3 subtitled words per second or 1/3 of second per subtitled word). (Karamitoglou, 2000) As a result, the translator often presents the source language dialogue or narration in condensed form. Loss or change of meaning also happens because the written text cannot transfer all the messages and information of the spoken language in limited time. Thus this is one of the exploration-needing problems.

In all, film synchronization is by no means of an easy thing. It is complicated because of not only traditional requirements, but also the special technical constraints in multi-media translation domain should be considered for integrality.

Nowadays as the digital technology develops so quickly, almost all foreign language film products have diverse choices of different soundtracks. We can choose either one soundtrack for dubbing or another for subtitling, or even mixed soundtrack for both effects at the same time. In this case, in this dissertation, I will take film translation as a certain translation to meet both requirements, so I will take the constraints and characteristics of both translation modes into consideration along side.

V. SPECIAL PRINCIPLES FOR FILM TRANSLATION

A. Synchronization (for the Company of Other Integral Parts of Film Elements)

Film is a kind of art in nature, and it is also the translator's task to represent the artistic constituents in the original to the target audience. Some experts call film translation "film synchronization". Here we make emphasis on its extralinguistic and paralinguistic factors in film dialogue. We take into account lip rounding, timing, pause, gesture, facial expression and even sometimes picture order to achieve synchrony of spoken language with the visible speech movements and shifts of pictures on the screen. There must be a general match between the characters' visual presentation and their verbal expression. At this time, rearrangement and reduction are very useful strategies.

B. Colloquialism and Naturalness (for the Realness of Art and the Authenticity of Life)

Nearly all the languages in film are colloquial languages in forms of either monologue or dialogue. And of course, there are some exceptional cases, for example, some written forms of the texts such as wills, contracts, formal announcements and so on. Thus the orality is the priority in film translation. High degree of parallelism, the loose paratactic sentence structure, the predominance of co-ordination and the paucity of subordination are found to be characteristic of unplanned spoken discourse.

Translated speech should be as natural as possible, this is the basic thing for the audience to understand and also appreciate the film in the same way as the original audience does. In translated version, we'd better choose high frequency words or phrases, short sentences. By naturalness, we mean the translated dialogues should be also accorded with the audience's speaking habits. The addressees should be "speaking in the target language" naturally just as the audiences do.

C. Legibility (for the Target-audience Orientation)

Translators should attach great importance to the forms understood and accepted by the audience for which a translation is designed. We are not content merely to translate so that the average receptor is likely to understand the message rather we aim to make certain that such a person is unlikely to misunderstand it. Because of film dialogue's transience feature, we also emphasize easy understandability—read or hear on the basis of soft touch. The translated version must re-construct an acoustically coherent and complete film discourse. The translated dialogues must be suitable for film performance, comprehensible to the contemporary audience.

As far as this paper is concerned, to put all the principles into full, translators could adopt translation strategies flexibly according to different circumstances. Different strategies such as imitation, expansion, condensation, rearrangement, paraphrase and reduction could all be adopted as long as they are helpful.

VI. CONCLUSION

With the enlargement of cultural exchange, more and more English films have been introduced into China. Film, as a special audio-visual art of mass media, establishes a multi-channel and multi-code type of communication.

Since film is kind of film art form, taking into consideration the characteristics of film translation will be most helpful for film translation study. Compared to general translation, film translation has its peculiar characteristics. In details, the characteristics of film translation are: multimedia, spoken language and easy understandability, transience, the feedback effect, more complicated procedure and little chance of retranslation.

Film translation, according to actual method, can be divided as dubbing and subtitling. And each has its own characteristics and constraints. As for dubbing, the target audiences hear another verbal system rather than the original dialogue, they take the acknowledgement that the characters are just "speaking" the language like the target audience themselves. Facial and body expressions, such as lip movements, gestures, pauses, stress, even the gender and age of

the voices, should be thought about in dubbing. As for subtitling, the main constraints are space limitation and limitations on duration.

In view of these analyses, this paper probes into the special requirements of film translation, and tentatively proposes special principles to obtain success of film translation—Synchronization, Colloquialism and Naturalness and Legibility

However, there is still much to be done for further development of the theory of film translation about both the principles and concrete strategies. In order to put these principles into employments, many specific strategies should be appropriately chosen and flexibly adopted according to different circumstances so as to get more appropriate and artistic translated versions of foreign films.

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A Review of the History of Translation Studies

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Abstract—This paper aims at a general review of the history of translation studies and the prevalent approaches from antiquity to the present in the west, in the form of a historical survey in which key theoretical developments are taken into account, focusing on approaches that have been developed during the twentieth century. Without a doubt, It is James Holme's seminal paper "the name and nature of translation studies" that draws up a disciplinary map for translation studies and serves as a springboard for researchers with its binary division of Translation Studies into two branches: "pure" and "applied." Its growth as a discipline goes back to the 1980s. As time elapses, translation studies, by achieving a certain institutional authority and coalescing with many a resurging disciplines and trends as cultural studies, linguistics, literary theory and criticism, brings a renewed aspect to translation theory.

Index Terms—history, approaches, trends, theories

I. INTRODUCTION

Behind the field of translation lies the names and theories emerging at diverse periods. There are changes taking place in the history of translation; however, such changes differ from one place into another. For example, those flourishments in the western world are far removed from the eastern part. Two of the pioneers of the field are Horace and Cicero (first century B.C) whose discussions of translation practice pertains to word-for-word and sense-for-sense translation. Subsequently, such basic trends affect later progressions and advances in the field, exerting a crucial influence up until the twentieth century.

II. A REVIEW OF THE DISCIPLE: THEORIES IN ANTIQUITY

As it is conspicuous, translation theory is much sparse in antiquity, and the theories that emerge at the time are unsystematic remarks, mainly situated in the discipline of rhetoric. In fact, the very pioneers of the field are luminary Roman commentators, such as Cicero, Quintillian, who deem translation as a pedagogical exercise whose debate on translation practice pertains to word-for-word and sense-for-sense translation. Cicero (first century B.C), in composing Latin versions of speeches by the Greek orators, writes:

I did not translate as an interpreter, but as an orator, keeping the same ideas and the forms, or as one might say, the figures of thought, but in a language which conforms to our usage and in so doing, I did not hold it necessary to render word-for-word, but I expressed the general style and the force of language (Cicero 46 BCE/1960 CE, p. 364).

Another period is brought about by St. Jerome (fourth century B.C) whose approach to translating the Septugint Bible into Latin would affect later translations of the Scriptures (Munday, 2001, p. 7). He negates the word-for-word approach, for by closely following the form of the original, the sense of the original is masked and an absurd translation is created. In vindicating his own strategy, St. Jerome (395 CE/ 1997, p. 25, in J. Munday, 2001, p. 20) writes:

Now, I not only admit but freely announce that in translating from the Greek- except in the case of the Holy Scripture, where even the syntax contains a mystery- I render not word-for-word, but sense-for-sense.

In the seventeenth century, influential theories emerge; the most obvious is that of John Dryden (1631-1700) whose trichotomy on translation types (metaphrase, paraphrase and imitation) makes big strides. He (1680/1992, p.17), as quoted in Venuti (2004, p. 17-18), negates metaphrase (word-for-word) for lacking fluency or easy readability and imitation as well, that adapt the foreign text so as to serve the translator's own literary ambitions, instead he is in favour of paraphrase or translation with latitude, which seeks to render meanings.

At the outset of the nineteenth century, the Romanticism discusses the issue of translatability and untranslatability. In 1813, the German translator Friedrich Schleiermacher writes a seminal paper on "*The Different Methods of Translating.*" He moves beyond word-for-word, literal, sense-for-sense or free translation. He argues the real question is how to bring the ST writer and the TT reader together, he writes:

Either the translator leaves the writer alone as much as possible and moves the reader towards the writer or he leaves the reader alone as much as possible and moves the writer towards the reader (Schleiermacher, 1813/1992, p. 41-2, In Munday, 2001, p. 28).

His preferred strategy is the first. To achieve this, the translator has to render in such a way so as to procure the same impression as the original reader would have. This cannot be done but by having recourse to an "alienating" rather than "naturalizing" method of translation, ensuring that the language and the content of the ST are in translating language (ibid: 43).

A.   1900-1930s

During the 1900s to 1930s, in translation theory the crucial trends are rooted in German literary and philosophical traditions and hermeneutics. It is considered that language is not communicative, but constitutive in its representations of thought and reality. For translation, taking this into account, it is viewed as an interpretation which necessarily reconstitutes and transforms the foreign text. For scholars as Schleiermacher and Bolt, translation is a creative force in which specific translation strategies serve a variety of cultural and social functions, paving the way for the construction of nations, literatures and languages (in Venuti, 2004, p. 74)

At the outset of the twentieth century, these ideas are rethought from the viewpoint of modernist movement. What is of significance in this movement is the "autonomy" of the translation, its "status" as a text in its own right, derivative but independent as a work of signification. Walter Benjamin in his 1923 essay, "*The Task of the Translator*" argues that the aim of a translation should not be to confer to the readers an understanding of the meaning or information content of the original. It is the hallmark of bad translations. Translation exists separably but in conjunction with the original, coming after it**,** giving the original 'continued life' (Benjamin, 1968/2000, p. 16). According to him, the hallmark of a good translation is that it should 'express the central reciprocal between languages' (ibid. 17). This reciprocal relation points toward the "kinship" of languages and that the task of the translator can be more significant than the writer of the original. He believes that the translator, through the decade barriers of his language releases the "pure language." For him, pure language is a force hidden within certain texts, a poetic potential, a kernel that is striving to beyond the immediate shell of words. It is the task of the translator to reach out to and release that potentiality. This pure language is released by the co-existence and complementation of the translation with the original (ibid. 22). For this pure language to shine through, the strategy of literalism should be exercised:

A real translation is transparent; it does not cover the original, does not block its light, but allows the pure language, as though reinforced by its own medium, to shine upon the original all the more fully. This may be achieved by a literal rendering of the syntax which proves words rather than sentences to be the primary elements of the translator (Benjamin, 1968/2000, p. 22).

Another theorist who is more in line with the German interest is Ezra Pound. In Pound's view, the "autonomy of translation" takes two forms. A translated text might be interpretive, written next to the foreign poem and composed of linguistic peculiarities that direct the reader across the page to foreign textual features, or a translation can be original writing in which the TT literary standards are an impetus to rewriting the ST poem so as to seem a new poem (1934: 55). This second stance is in line with the translation of Khayyam by Fizgerald. Pound's standards are modernist; he adopts the first so as to recover foreign poetries to advance these values in the TT.

At the end of the 1930s, translation is viewed as a separate linguistic practice, a literary genre apart, with its own norms and ends (Ortega y Gasset, 1992, p. 109). Ortega, in his paper "*The Misery and the Splendor of Translation*" argues for the importance of the German translation tradition. By "Misery", Ortega means the impossibility of the task, for in the two intended languages, there are differences not only linguistically, but also culturally and mentally. On the other hand, what he means by "splendour" is the act of overcoming such differences and by so doing the TL reader is forced out of his/her linguistic habits and would move within the linguistic habits of the foreign author (Ortega y Gasset, 1992, p. 108).

B.   1940-1950s

In the 1940s to 1950s, the prevalent concept is "translatability". During this decade, the main issue to be tackled by linguists and literary critics is that whether the differences that separate the languages and culture can be brought back to friendship via translation or not. To achieve this, the impediments to translation are jotted down, to see whether they are surmountable or not, and translation methods are formulated. Ideas are formed by disciplinary trends and change to a great extent, ranging between the extremes of philosophical skepticism and practical optimism (in Venuti, 2004, p. 111).

The figure skeptical of translatability is Willard Quine. He develops the concepts of "radical translation," and "indeterminacy of translation" (Brower, 1959, p. 148; Quine, 1960). "Radical translation" describes the situation in which a linguist attempts to translate a completely unknown language, which is unrelated to his own, and is therefore forced to rely solely on the observed behavior of its speakers in relation to their environment. Any hypothesis of translation could be defended only by appeal to context: to seeing what other sentences a native would utter. But the same indeterminacy will appear there: any hypothesis can be defended if one adopts enough compensatory hypotheses regarding other parts of language (*Word and Object* 1960).   He Questions the empirical foundations of translation by pointing to a semantic "indeterminacy" that cannot be resolved even in the presence of an environmental "stimulus" (ibid. 172). Quine (1960) tells a story to illustrate this indeterminacy, in which an explorer is trying to puzzle out the meaning of the word "gavagai". He observes that the word is used in the presence of rabbits, but is unable to determine whether it means 'undetached rabbit part', or 'fusion of all rabbits', or 'temporal stage of a rabbit', or 'the universal 'rabbithood'.

In contrast, Quine admits that translating in fact occurs on the basis of "analytical hypothesis," derived from segmentations of foreign utterances which are equated with words and phrases in the translating language (Brower 1969: 165), by means of which, linguists can create dictionaries, manuals and grammars by relying on them. Despite these

tools, he believes that between the intended stimuli and meaning there can be no out-and-out correlation (ibid: 154-155). Quine's work leads to a more pragmatic view of translation, in which meaning is viewed as conventional, socially circumscribed and the ST is reproduced in the receiving culture according to the terms and values embedded in the TL (ibid: 171).

However, Heidegger's approach to language is literary. Bringing back Schleiermacher's concept as "bringing the domestic reader as much as possible to the foreign text", Heidegger adopts a "poetizing" strategy that does violence to everyday language by relying on archaism, which submits to etymological interpretations (Heidegger 1975: 19).

When literary criticism considers the question of translatability, it accentuates the impossibility of reproducing a foreign literary text in another language which is sedimented with different literary styles, genres and traditions (in Venuti, 2004, p. 112).

On the other side of the extreme lies "optimism," occupied by linguistic analysis. The question of translatability is taken into account by linguists. They analyze specific translation problems and subsequently describe the methods that the translators have developed to solve them. This optimism emanates to a certain degree from a theory of language that is communicative of meaning, not constitutive of it, conceived along empiricist lines as referential (ibid: 113).

Chaim Robins, in his essay "*The Linguistics of Translation*" affirms that translation involves two distinct factors, a "meaning," or reference to some slice of reality, and the difference between two languages in referring to that reality" (1958, p. 123).

Another figure who theorizes about the problem of translating between different realities is Eugene Nida (1945). Nida by working on the translation of Bible comes to this conclusion that solutions to translation problems should be ethnological, contingent upon the translator's acquisition of sufficient "cultural information." He brings up a cultural word in the Bible like "desert" which should, according to him, be rendered as "abandoned place" so that the "cultural equivalent of the desert of Palestine" is established (1945: 197). By adopting such a procedure, though it is a paraphrase, the linguistic and cultural differences will boil down to a shared referent, causing the concept to be comprehensible in the translating language.

Roman Jakobson's study of translatability gives a new impetus to the theoretical analysis of translation since he introduced a semiotic reflection on translatability. On the basis of his semiotic approach to language and his aphorism 'there is no signatum without signum' (Jakobson, 1959, p. 232), he suggests three kinds of translation:

- Intralingual (within one language, i.e. rewording or paraphrase)
- Interlingual (between two languages)
- Intersemiotic (between sign systems)

Jakobson claims that, in the case of interlingual translation, the translator makes use of synonyms in order to get the ST message across. This means that in interlingual translation, there is no full equivalence between code units. He conceives of meaning not as a reference to reality, but as a relation to an endless chain of signs. According to his theory, 'translation is a process of recoding involving two equivalent messages in two different codes' (ibid.:233).

And finally, the concept of translatability is drawn on by Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet (1958). Unlike Jakobson who negates empiricist semantics, these two figures say that descriptions of translation methods   involve some reduction of linguistic and cultural differences to empiricist semantics: according to them "Equivalence of message," ultimately relies upon an identity of situations, where the term "situations" indicate an undefined "reality." (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995, p. 42).

They provide six translation procedures. "Borrowing, calque and literal translation" are implemented in situations where the translation is "direct". By "direct" they mean "the possibility of transposing the SL message element by element into the TL. The other three are "transposition, modulation and equivalence." These three procedures are applied in situations where the translation is "oblique". These latter procedures are applied when certain stylistic effects cannot be transposed into the TL, because of structural or metalinguistic differences, without upsetting the syntactic order, or even the lexis (Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti, 2004, p. 128).

C. 1960-1970s

In the 1960s to 1970s, the main prevailing concept in translation studies is "equivalence." When this concept is applied to translation, translation is viewed as a process of communicating the ST via the creation of a relationship of identity with the ST. George Mounin (1963) negates the concept of "relativity" that made translation not feasible, and instead draws on the concept of "equivalence", arguing that it hinges upon the "universals of language and culture (p. 38)." In this period, it is believed that there are identifiable units in a text which are stable and invariant, with defined units and categories of language which can be broken down. There are some scholars who theorize about this concept as Werner Koller and Eugene Nida.

koller (1979a, p. 185), in answering what this concept means, enunciates five types of equivalence (ibid: 99-104):

1. "Denotative equivalence" or equivalence of the extralinguistic content of a text. It is called "content invariance."
2. "Connotative equivalence," depending on the similarities of register and style. Koller refers to this as "Stylistic equivalence."
3. "Text-normative equivalence," relating to text types, with different kinds of texts behaving in different ways.
4. "Pragmatic equivalence," or "communicative equivalence," oriented towards the receiver of the text or message.

5. " Formal equivalence," relating to the aesthetics and the form of the text.

Nida argues that there are two different types of equivalence, namely *formal and dynamic equivalence*. Formal correspondence 'focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content', unlike dynamic equivalence which is based upon 'the principle of equivalent effect' (Nida, 1964, p. 159). Dynamic equivalence is defined as a translation principle according to which a translator seeks to translate the meaning of the original in such a way that the TL wording will trigger the same impact on the TL audience as the original wording did upon the ST audience (Nida and Taber, 1982, p. 200).

During this period, a distinction has to be made between pragmatic equivalence (a translation which considers the receptor language reader and hence comprehensibility) and formal equivalence (in which the linguistic and cultural aspects of the ST are transparent in translation). There are some figures that move along this line (in Venuti 2004: 147). One is Eugene Nida, as discussed above. In 1997, there is a similar opposition by Newmark, distinguishing between "semantic and communicative" translation, the former being source-oriented and the latter target-oriented (Newmark 1998a: 47) and Juliane House between "overt and covert" translation. An 'overt translation' is a TT that does not purport to be original. It is a translation in which the addressees of the TT are quite "overtly" not being addressed (House 1997: 66). However, a 'covert translation' is the one which enjoys the status of the ST in the TL culture. The ST is not linked particularly to the ST culture or audience; both ST and TT address their respective receivers directly (ibid. 69). The function of a covert translation is "to recreate, reproduce and represent in the TT the function the original has in its intralingual framework and discourse world." (ibid. 114). House's distinction considers how much the ST hinges upon its culture for comprehensibility. If the significance of the ST is indigenous, then an overt translation is needed by relying on supplementary information, whether expansions, insertions or footnotes (in Venuti, 2004, p. 148).

Inevitably, upon considering the concept of equivalence, the term "shift" comes to the fore. This concept is defined by Catford (1965). He (1965) defines it as "departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from SL to TL, departures that can occur at linguistic level as graphology, phonology, grammar and lexis (p. 73). Yet, he concludes that translation equivalence does not entirely match formal correspondence and such deviations occur (ibid. 82).

Ultimately, functionalists, in the case of literary texts, negate the concept of equivalence and instead draw on the TL reader. Etmar Even-Zohar and Guidon Toury (1978) argue that literary translations are facts of the target system. A literary work is not studied in isolation but as part of a literary system, which itself is defined as "a system of functions of the literary order which are in continual relationship with other orders (Tynjanov, 1927/71, p. 72). Literature is part of the social, cultural and historical framework, and the main notion is that of "system", in which there is an ongoing dynamic of mutation and struggle for the primary position in the literary canon (in Munday, 2001, p. 109).

Itamar Even-Zohar sees the position of translated literature in the literary polysystem of a society as a primary one when it actively participates in modeling the center of the polysystem. Hence, translated literature fulfills the needs of a young literature to put its renewed tongue in use in as many literary genres as possible in order to make it functional as a literary language and useful for its emerging public. When a SL Literary system is young and in the process of being established, a young literature cannot create major texts in all genres until its polysystem has crystallized, then it greatly benefits from the experience of other literatures, and translated literature becomes, in a way, one of its most important systems and translation, in this case occupies a primary position and as he says, to achieve this, the translation strategy should be to produce a TT that is a close match in terms of adequacy, reproducing the textual relations of the ST. In contrast, if the SL literary system is rich, then translation occupies a peripheral or secondary position and translation can be produced non-adequately by exploiting the existing target culture models for the TT   (Even-Zohar 1978: 117, in Munday, 2001, p. 110).

During this decade, with the expansion of translation research, bringing this field into a new academic discipline was the main point. At the time, Nida (1964) called his theories a "science of translating," but the seminal paper "*The Name and Nature of Translation Studies*" by James Holmes (1972) paves the way for the development of the field as a distinct discipline. Not only does he define a name for the field, but also describes what translation studies cover. He distinguishes between "pure-research oriented areas of theory" and "applied areas" like training and criticism (Holmes, 1988b/2000, p.176).

In 1975, the key advance of hermeneutics of translation is George Steiner's influential *After Babel*. It opposes modern linguistics with a philosophical approach. Steiner, unlike linguistic-oriented theories that considered translation as functional communicative, goes back to German Romanticism and the hermeneutic tradition. He defines the hermeneutic approach as "the investigation of what it means to "understand a piece of oral or written speech, and the attempt to diagnose this process in terms of a general model of meaning" (Steiner, 1975/98, p. 249). For him, the aim of language should not be to communicate meaning, but it should be constitutive in reconstructing it (p. 205). He argues that "great translation must carry with it the most precise sense of the resistant, of the barriers intact at the heart of understanding (ibid. 375).

The hermeneutic motion consists of four parts: 1) initiative trust; 2) aggression; 3) incorporation (or embodiment); 4) compensation (or restitution).

D.   1980s

In this decade, Susan Bassnett's Translation Studies is published. In her book, diverse branches of translation research are combined, marking the resurgence of translation studies as a separate field overlapping with linguistics, literary

criticism and philosophy. At the same time, problems of cross-cultural communication are in focus. The approach she takes to theoretical concepts is historical and understands practical strategies in relation to specific cultural and social situations. However, what she accentuates most is the relative autonomy of the translated text (as quoted in Venuti, 2004, p. 221).

In this period, translation is viewed as a an independent form of writing, distinct from the source text and that texts originally written in the translating language (ibid. 221)

The issue of equivalence, as it was prevalent in the previous decade, loses it significance. William Frawly negates the concept of equivalence and argues that translation is a form of communication, there is information only in difference, so that translation is a code in its own right, with its own rules and standards, though they are derivative of the matrix information and target parameters (1984, p. 168-169).

The autonomy of translation as "functional", is viewed by other scholars in consequence of the social factors involved in directing the translator's activity. Justa Holz-Mäntärri (1984), instead of using the term "translation", uses the term "translational action" to encompass diverse forms of cross cultural communication, not only translating, paraphrasing and adapting but also editing and consulting (p. 43). In such cases, the TTs are produced in consultation with the client's needs to serve a particular purpose in the receiving culture. Here, the question of equivalence is out of question, and it is the translator who should decide how to produce the text so as to fulfill the client's needs.

The aspect of functionality bears great impact on Hans Vermeer's work. Vermeer (1989) accentuates on the "skopos" or aim of the translator as a crucial factor. Although this theory predates Holz-Mäntärri's theory of translational action, it is part of that same theory, as it deals with a translational action which is ST-based, which has to be negotiated and performed, which has a purpose and result (Vermeer, 1989/2000, p. 221). Skopos theory concentrates mainly on the purpose of the translation, which determines the translation methods and strategies that are to be employed in order to produce a functionally adequate result. This result is TT, which Vermeer call *translatum*. Hence, two main points for the translator to keep in mind is knowing why an ST is to be translated and what the function of the TT will be (ibid. 222).

Vermeer's approach resembles the contemporary trends in literary history and criticism, i.e, reader-response theory, where the translations are prepared in accord with the TL audience needs (in Venuti 2004: 223).

Andre Lefevere is another figure who follows Zohar and Toury's concept of literary system. Lefevere views translation as "refraction" or "rewriting." As he says (1992a), refractions carry a work of literature from one system into another. He sees translation as an act carried out under the influence of particular categories and norms constituent to systems in a society (p. 12).

Lefevere (1992a), focuses on the examination of the very concrete factors that systematically govern the reception, acceptance or rejection of literary texts; that is, issues as power, ideology, institution and manipulation. Lefevere views such power positions as "rewriting" literature, who govern its consumption by the people (p. 2).

According to Lefevere, there are three main factors that control the literary system in which translation functions: 1) professionals within the literary system; 2) patronage outside the literary system; 3) the dominant poetics (Lefevere, 1992a, p. 13).

On the other hand, Antoine Berman in *Translation and the trials of the foreign* negates "ethnocentric translating". According to him, the hallmark of a bad translation is when it domesticates the foreign work and does not let in the foreignness of the foreign work, when the SL text is assimilated to TL reader and culture (Berman, 1984, p. 17). Instead, he argues that a good translation is the one in which the linguistic and cultural differences of the ST are registered in the TT. This foreignness cannot be achieved but by literalism. Thus, by developing a "correspondence" and "literalism", The TL is enriched and amplified (Berman, 1995, p. 94). He views translating as the "trial of the foreign," "trial" in two senses (ibid. 276):

1) A trial for the target culture in experiencing the strangeness of the foreign text and word;
2) A trial for the foreign text in being uprooted from its original language context.

However, Berman sees that in every translation there is a system of textual deformation in the TTs that hinders the foreign coming through. He calls this deformation as "negative analytic." (ibid. 278).

In this period, translation can never be an untroubled communication of the foreign text. It is rather manipulation. Manifold works on translation view language as communicative of a range of possible meanings and it is with the emergence of poststructrulism that language is a site of uncontrollable polysemy, therefore, translation is not transformative of the ST, but interrogative or as Jaque Derrida says, "deconstructive" (Derrida, 1979, p. 93).

This period witnesses the resurgence of a postcolonial reflection on translation in anthropology, area studies, literary theory and criticism as well.

E.   1990s and Beyond

The 1990s sees the incorporation of new schools and concepts, with Canadian-based translation and gender research, postcolonial translation theory, with the prominent figures as Spivak and in the US, the cultural studies oriented analysis of Lawrence Venuti, who champions the cause of the translator (Munday, 2001, p. 14).

Translation studies in the last decade of the twentieth century establishes itself as a purely separate discipline, thanks to the scholarly publications and a worldwide dissemination of translator training programs. A new kind of textbook appears as well: a book of theories presenting research methodologies to students (in Venuti, 2004, p. 326).

In this decade, translation research progresses with an amalgam of theories and methodologies being prevalent in the previous decade, pursuing trends in such disciplines as (polysystem, skopos and poststructuralisn) and also developments in linguistics (pragmatics, critical discourse analysis and computerized corpora) and in literary and cultural theory (postcolonialism, sexuality, globalization (ibid: 325).

Varieties of linguistics remains part of the field, for it is considered that in training translators of commercial, technical and other sorts of nonfiction text, they are of avail and the findings of linguistics are used to solve translation problems (ibid. 326).

One of the varieties is that of pragmatics and discourse analysis, seeking to conceptualize translation on the model of Grecian conversation (in Mona Baker, 1998, p. 181).

In pragmatics, one of the basic assumptions is that, in conversation being sincere is a social obligation (Austin 1962, ibid. 181). However, language users can evoke and interpret implied meanings. Considering this potential for generating and retrieving meanings other than those that are stated explicitly, Grice (1975) seeks to account for where and why this smooth ongoingness is hindered, thus leading to implicature. He stipulates a Cooperative Principle, four conversational maxims that language users adhere to: "quantity" of information, "quality" or truthfulness, "relevance" or consistency of context and "manner" or clarity. The flouting of these maxims will be conducive to "implicature" (p. 181). Hence, translating is the communication of the ST by cooperating with the TL reader according to these four maxims and in pragmatics, a foreign message is conveyed with its "implicature" by having resort to the maxims of the TL community.

Gutt (1991, p. 101) tries to describe translation in terms of a general theory of human communication; therefore, he models translation via "relevance theory."

Gutt (1991), by basing translation upon relevance theory, writes:

If we ask in what respects the intended interpretation should resemble the original, the answer is: in respects that make it adequately relevant to the audience, that is, that offer adequate contextual effects; if we ask how the translation should be expressed, the answer is: it should be expressed in such a manner that it yields the intended interpretation without putting the audience to unnecessary processing effort, in this way, the result will be a "faithful" translation (1991, p. 101-102).

Thus, according to him, translation should be clear and natural in expression in the sense that it should not be difficult to understand (ibid. 102).

In 1990s, what provides translation studies with powerful analytical tools is corpus-linguistics. It is a branch of linguistics that studies language on the basis of corpora, i.e., "bodies of texts assembled in a principled way" (Johansson 1995: 19). It is the study of language through vast computer-stored collections of texts. One of its main goal is to separate the features of language used in translations, features that are not the result of interference from the SL.

Baker (1995) distinguishes between "parallel corpora" (consisting of texts originally written in language A alongside their translations into a language B) and "comparable corpora" (consisting of a collection of texts originally written in a language, say English, alongside a collection of texts translated (from one or more languages) into English (Baker, 1998, p. 51-2).

"process-oriented" research is also in focus, as Holmes termed it. In this research the mental activity of the translator is studied. In order to extract the empirical data, scholars exploit "think-aloud protocols" where translators are asked to verbalize their thinking during or after the translation process (in Baker, 1998, p. 266).

Another crucial advance in translation studies is the concept of "cultural turn," synthesizing fields as literary theory and criticism, film and anthropology that in 1978 is presaged by the work on Polysystems and translation norms by Even-Zohar and in 1980 by Toury. They dismiss the linguistic kinds of theories of translation and refer to them as having moved from word to text as a unit but not beyond. They themselves go beyond language and focus on the interaction between translation and culture, on the way culture impacts and constraints translation and on the larger issues of context, history and convention. Therefore, the move from translation as a text to translation as culture and politics is what they call it a Cultural Turn in translation studies and becomes the ground for a metaphor adopted by Bassnett and Lefevere in 1990. In fact Cultural Turn is the metaphor adopted by Cultural Studies oriented translation theories to refer to the analysis of translation in its cultural, political, and ideological context (Lefevere and Bassnett, 1990, p. 8)

This issue sheds new light on a renewed functionalism to translation theory, the social effects of translation and the political and ethical aftermaths involved (ibid. 325).

According to Bassnett, the translator who takes a text and transposes it into another culture has to consider carefully the ideological implications of that transposition (1980/1991, p. 15). Sherry Simon describes how she sees culture and language interacting at the point of translation:

Translators must constantly take decisions about the cultural meanings which language carries, and evaluate the degree to which the two different worlds they inhabit are "the same"....In fact, the process of meaning transfer has less to do with finding the cultural inscription of the term than in reconstructing its value (1996, p. 139).

Culturally-oriented researches suspect regularities and universals, accentuating the social and historical differences of translation. This approach stems partly from the influence of poststructuralism, the doubt it casts on abstract formalizations, timeless and universal essences. Poststructuralist translation theory, instead, calls attention to the exclusions and hierarchies that are masked by the realistic illusion of transparent language, the fluent translating that

seems untranslated. And this enables an interrogation of cultural and political effects, the role played by translation in the creation and functioning of social movements and institutions (Venuti, 2004, p. 328-9).

Post-colonialism is one of the most thriving points of contact between Cultural Studies and Translation Studies. Translation is here theorized as a cultural political practice that might be strategic in bringing about social change. In 1993, Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak was the one who introduced postcolonialism, constituting a feminist intervention into postcolonial translation issues. It can be defined as a broad cultural approach to the study of power relations between different groups, cultures or peoples in which language, literature and translation may play a role (Hatim and Munday, 2004, p. 106). Spivak's work is indicative of how cultural studies and especially post-colonialism has over the past decade focused on issues of translation, the translational and colonization. The key concept used by Spivak is 'translatese'. This term refers to a lifeless form of TL that homogenizes the different ST authors. Spivak criticizes the lifeless translates that comes from a translator third-world feminist texts who is not fully at one with the rhethoricity of the language in question.

'Translatese' is viewed by Spivak as a 'species of neo-colonialist construction of the non-western scene' since the dominant but the characterless English that results (it is English that is the dominant TL) erases the speech patterns and differences of the huge range of 'third-world' feminist voices. This has its echo in venuti's criticism of Anglo-American publishing practices that favour domesticating translation. Hence, to come up with this issue, the concept of 're-translation' in post-colonialism comes to the fore. This concept is a practice of 'resistance' by translating anew key texts to subvert colonialist discourse. The linking of colonization and translation is accompanied by the argument that translation has played an active role in the colonization process and in disseminating an ideologically motivated image of colonized people. The metaphor has been used of the colony as an imitative and inferior translational copy whose suppressed identity has been overwritten by the colonizer.

Cultural studies bring to translation an understanding of the complexities of *gender, culture and sexuality* as well. Simon (1996) approaches translation from a gender-studies angle (p. 1). She sees a language of sexism in translation studies, with its image of dominance, fidelity, faithfulness and betrayal. What marks the history of translation is how best to be "faithful and that fidelity in translation has been defined in terms of gender and sexuality. The feminist theorists see a parallel between the status of the translation, which is often considered to be derivative and inferior to original writing, and that of woman, so often repressed in society and literature. Hence, the feminists attempted to subvert this male-oriented discourse with what they termed 'translation project'. This term is an approach to literary translation in which feminist translators openly advocate and implement strategies (linguistic and otherwise) to foreground the feminist in the translated text. While theorists have implemented a variety of metaphors to explain the translator's work, those metaphors that pertains gender, divulge something of the politics of translation. They reveal an anxiety about origins and originality, and a power struggle over the meaning of difference (in Baker, 1998, p. 93). Translators have worried that the process of translation may violate the purity of the modern tongue and equally worry over that the virility of the original, that the ST has been emasculated (ibid. 94).

Sherry Simon (1996) mentions the seventeenth century image of "les belles infidels" (unfaithful beauties), translations into French that were artistically beautiful but unfaithful. She went further and investigated George Steiner's male-oriented image of translation as penetration (p. 27).

As the domain of "cultural studies" gains ground, the concept of "ideology" becomes a crucial area of study. Hatim and Mason (1997) state that "ideology encompasses the tacit assumptions, beliefs and value systems which are shared collectively by social groups" (1997, p. 147). They make a distinction between the ideology of translating and the translation of ideology. Whereas the former refers to the basic orientation chosen by the translator operating within a social and cultural context, in the translation of ideology they examine the extent of mediation supplied by a translator of sensitive texts. Here "mediation" is defined as the extent to which translators intervene in the transfer process, feeding their own knowledge and beliefs into processing the text (ibid. 147).

And finally, Venuti's work typifies main trends in culturally oriented research during the 1990s. It theorizes translation according to poststructuralist concepts of language and discourse so as to explain their relations to cultural difference and social change (Venuti, 2004, p. 334).

Venuti (1995: 19-20) discusses invisibility hand in hand with two types of translating strategies: *domestication* and *foreignization*. He considers domestication as dominating Anglo-American (TL) translation culture. Just as the postcolonialists were alert to the cultural effects of the differential in power relation between colony and ex-colony, so Venuti (ibid. 20) bemoans the phenomenon of domestication since it involves reduction of the foreign text to the target language cultural values. This entails translating in a transparent, fluent, invisible style in order to minimize the foreignness of the TT. Domestication also covers adherence to domestic literary canons by carefully selecting the texts that are likely to lend themselves to such a translation strategy (Venuti, 1997, p. 241).

Foreignization, on the other hand, entails choosing a foreign text and developing a translation method along lines which are excluded by dominant cultural values in target language (ibid. 242). Ventuti considers the foreignizing method to be an ethnodeviant pressure on target language cultural values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad. According to him it is highly desirable in an effort to restrain the ethnocentric violence of translation. The foreignizing method of translating, a strategy Venuti also termed '*resistancy*' (1995: 305-6) , is a non-fluent or estranging translation style designed to make visible the persistence of translator by

highlighting the foreign identity of ST and protecting it from the ideological dominance of the target culture.

In his later book 'The Scandals of Translation' (1998), Venuti insisted on foreignizing or, as he also called it, 'minoritizing' translation, to cultivate a varied and heterogeneous discourse (1998, p. 11). As far as language is concerned, the minoritizing or foriegnizing method of Venuti's translation comes through in the deliberate inclusion of foreignizing elements in a bid to make the translator visible and to make the reader realize that he is reading a translation of the work from a foreign culture. Foreignization is close adherent to the ST structure and syntax.

Despite the fact that Venuti is in favour of "foreignization", he is aware of some of the contradictions and limitations the term carries and believes that a translation involves some domestication since it translates an ST for a target culture and depends on target culture values to become visible when it departs from them (Venuti, 1995, p. 29) and as he says, any communication through translating will involve the release of a domestic remainder (Venuti 2004: 485).

In his book 'The Translator Invisibility', (1995) Venuti carries out research on translation in the Anglo-American culture. He found out that most publishers advocate Domestication as it makes the translation reader-friendly. The trend is to choose texts from other cultures that appeal to the Anglo-American values. For Venuti, this method is making the translator 'invisible' on the one hand and implies 'an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target-language cultural values' (p. 20) on the other hand. By Domestication, the Anglo-American culture imposes its own 'hegemonic' power upon other minor cultures.

Foreignization revives Berman and Schleiermacher's line of thinking; however, as Venuti says (2004, p. 334), it goes beyond literalism to advocate experimentalism: innovative translating that samples the dialects and styles already in the translating language to create a discursive heterogeneity which is defamiliarizing, but intelligible in different ways to different constituencies in the translating culture.

III. CONCLUSION

The history of translation studies and the resurgence and genesis of the approaches to this emerging discipline was marked by the first century (BCE) commentator Cicero and then St. Jerome whose word-for-word and sense-for-sense approaches to translation was a springboard for other approaches and trends to thrive. From 1950s, each decade was marked by a dominant concept such as translatability, equivalence etc. Whilst before the twentieth century translation was an element of language learning, the study of the field developed into an academic discipline only in the second half of the twentieth century, when this field achieved a certain institutional authority and developed as a distinct discipline. As this discipline moved towards the present, the level of sophistication and inventiveness did in fact soared and new concepts, methods, and research projects were developed which interacted with this discipline. The brief review here, albeit incomplete, reflects the current fragmentation of the field into subspecialties, some empirically oriented, some hermeneutic and literary and some influenced by various forms of linguistics and cultural studies which have culminated in productive syntheses. In short, translation studies is now a field which brings together approaches from a wide language and cultural studies, that for its own use, modifies them and develops new models specific to its own requirements.

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Effect of Task Experience on Iranian EFL Learners' Level of Anxiety and Performance on Task-based Tests

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Abstract—**Anxiety, which changes into stress and nervous tension while taking a test, is usually considered as a destructive factor for test-takers. Many EFL/ESL teachers and testing scholars have tried to reduce this debilitative anxiety (Tóth, 2007). Recently, there has been an increased motivation toward development of performance-based tests in most language teaching programs, focusing on test-takers' actual proficiency rather than their abstract knowledge of L2 rules. This new trend has led to a new challenge: test-takers' unfamiliarity with performance-based tasks and as a result, increased test-taking anxiety. The present study is an attempt to examine the effect of learners' experience of language tasks on the level of their anxiety in performance-based or task-based tests. In addition, this research tried to find the relationship between learners' anxiety and the quality of their performances in such tests. To conduct this study, 300 Iranian EFL students studying at the Islamic Azad University, Iran, were randomly selected. The participants were asked to sit for a pretest, as a homogenizing instrument. 100 participants, meeting the requirements of the test, were randomly divided into 2 experimental and 2 control groups. The participants also completed Horwitz Second Language Anxiety Questionnaire (HSLAQ, 1991). Tasks coaching and practice were given to the participants in experimental group as treatment. Subsequently, participants' performances in both groups were compared on the results of a performance-based test. Furthermore, in order to measure the learners' increased or decreased level of anxiety, the participants were asked to take HSLAQ after treatment. The results revealed that task experience can significantly reduce participants' anxiety level in task/performance-based tests.**

Index Terms—**task-based test, performance-based test, task experience, test anxiety, second language anxiety**

I. INTRODUCTION

The past twenty years have seen a real increase in the number of studies dealing with anxiety in the L2 domain, which is attributable to the significant advances in the theory and measurement of L2-related anxiety since the mid-1980s (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Young, 1991, 1994; MacIntyre, 1999; Horwitz, 2001). The role played by anxiety in foreign or second language learning is an issue which has long been in the center of attention of language investigators. As early as in the 1970s, a period noticeable by an increase of research focusing on the learner, anxiety, among other individual learner differences anticipated to affect language learning success, started to be examined as a potential factor influencing L2 achievement (Dörnyei, 2005; Horwitz, 1990).

This study deals with the examination of the debilitative anxiety and its effect on test performance of EFL/ESL learners. Since performance-based assessments are of crucial values today, and consequently learners' proficiency is more important than their abstract knowledge of language rules, it seems that learners' unfamiliarity with tasks increases their level of anxiety in language performance tests. Therefore this study examines the learners' task experience before test and its effect on their performances in performance- based assessments and also increasing or decreasing their level of anxiety and their effects in these kinds of tests.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In the literature, not just the relationship between anxiety and language learning is searched but also the relationship between test anxiety and academic performance was done in some researches. Test anxiety is a multidimensional construct that has been defined as "the set of phenomenological, psychological and behavioral responses that

accompany concern about possible negative consequences or failure on an exam or similar evaluative situation" (Zeidner, 1998, p. 17).

According to one study done by Tóth (2007) two basic approaches have been considered to the study of anxiety in the L2 domain. These are labeled (1) the anxiety transfer, and (2) the unique anxiety approach, which are reflective of different conceptualizations of L2-related anxiety (Horwitz & Young, 1991; MacIntyre, 1999). As McCroskey (1977) maintains, language anxiety integrates three related performance anxiety: 1) communication apprehension 2) test anxiety, and 3) fear of negative evaluation. Because of its emphasis on mutual interaction, the construct of communication fear is quite relevant to the conceptualization of foreign language anxiety.

Meanwhile, test anxiety refers to a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure (Gordon and Sarason 1955, Sarason 1980). It is the tendency to become alarmed about the consequence of inadequate performance on a test or other evaluation (Sarason, 1984, cited in Oxford, 1999, p. 64). Test anxious students often put unrealistic demands on themselves and feel that anything less than a perfect test performance is a failure.

A. Effects of Foreign Language Learning Anxiety

Foreign language learning anxiety has been related to many negative outcomes that can be categorized as physical, psychological, or social (e.g., Bailey, Daley, and Onwuegbuzie, 1999; Oxford 1999). Physical symptoms consist of speedy heartbeat, muscle tension, dry mouth, and extreme perspiration. Psychological symptoms consist of embarrassment, feelings of defenselessness, fear, going blank, and poor memory remembrance and retention among others. Negative social behavior may be illustrated in such ways as unsuitable silence, reluctance to take part, non-attendance, and withdrawal from the course. These effects can lead to poor performance and low success. Researches (e.g., Young, 1999) suggest that for many learners, success and insistence in foreign language learning considerably depends both on the teacher's ability to reduce the devastating effects of classroom anxiety and the learners' ability to handle the anxiety that cannot be hindered or avoided.

In contradiction of this debilitative anxiety, there is an indication that a certain degree of anxiety may be useful to learners (Scovel, 1978). This kind of anxiety is usually referred to as facilitative anxiety, it motivates learners to study harder and make stronger efforts to achieve better in classroom. There are some disagreements, however, as to whether this emotional state is really anxiety, or the terms such as attention and alertness may be more precise.

Recently Andrade and Williams (2009) tried to determine the relationship between anxiety and pair and small group work by using a questionnaire. They aimed to see whether the anxiety level of students can be reduced by using pair or small group tasks in their conversational activities in the classroom or not. Pair and small group work are believed to contribute to a low-anxiety classroom situation (e.g., Koch and Terrell, 1991; Price, 1999; Young, 1999). So the Results of their study illustrated that there were significant differences for almost all groups of students, excluding gender factor, actively participating more in pairs or small groups than in a whole class situation.

B. Foreign Language Anxiety and Assessment

Maehr and Midgley (1991) and Pintrich and Schrauben (1992) discovered the impact of test anxiety on students' performance often influenced by the evaluation practices of the classroom teacher. In stressful conditions, as opposed to game-like conditions, high test-anxious children functioned poorly when expected to achieve, but low-anxious children performed well in this environment (Hembree, 1988). In developing a measurement for gauging the level of test anxiety, Sarason (1975) devised the Test Anxiety Scale. This measure is used to determine a level of test anxiety among college-age students. It is typically administered to large groups of college students. Sarason determined that individuals with high test anxiety exhibited the following cognitions when facing an evaluative task: a) the situation is seen as difficult, challenging, and threatening; b) the individual sees himself or herself as ineffective in handling, or inadequate to, the task at hand; c) the individual focuses on undesirable consequences of personal inadequacy; d) self-deprecatory preoccupations are strong and interfere or compete with task-relevant cognitive activity; e) the individual expects and anticipates failure and loss of regard by others.

To achieve the goals of the present quasi-experimental study, the following research questions were posed:

Q1. Does task experience have any significant effect on EFL learners' performance in task-based tests?

Q2. Does task experience have any significant effect on decreasing the EFL learners' level of anxiety in task-based tests?

Q3. Does task experience have any significant effect on increasing the EFL learners' level of anxiety in task-based tests?

Q4. Does decreasing the EFL learners' level of anxiety have any significant effect on their performance in task-based tests?

Q5. Does increasing the EFL learners' level of anxiety have any significant effect on their performance in task-based tests?

To come up with reasonable results on the basis of the aforementioned research question, the following null hypotheses were proposed:

HO1. Task experience has no significant effect on EFL learners' performance in task-based tests.

HO2. Task experience has no significant effect on decreasing the EFL learners' level of anxiety in task-based tests.

HO3. Task experience has no significant effect on increasing the EFL learners' level of anxiety in task-based tests.

HO4. Decreasing the EFL learners' level of anxiety has no significant effect on their performance in task-based tests.
HO5. Increasing the EFL learners' level of anxiety has no significant effect on their performance in task-based tests.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants in this study were intermediate adult EFL Iranian students taking reading comprehension courses in Islamic Azad University, Torbat-e-Heydareih and Mashhad branches, Iran. The male and female participants (N = 127, 17 males and 110 females), aged 18 to 30, attend 4 separated classes taught by 4 different teachers. Two classes (N = 63, 9 males and 54 females) were chosen as the control group and two other classes (N = 64, 8 males and 56 females) as the experimental group.

B. Instrumentation

To collect the required data, several instruments were employed in this study:

1. Nelson Test. In order to make sure that all participants were homogeneous and truly at the same level of language proficiency, the Nelson Test (ver. 100A) developed by Fowler, W.S. & Coe, N. (1976) was administered to a group of 147 students. The test contained 50 items. 130 students were found suitable for this study. The reliability index of this test was estimated through Cronbach's Alpha as .82.

2. Horwitz Second Language Anxiety Questionnaire (HSLAQ). This instrument was developed by Horwitz (1991) to determine the learners' level of anxiety in classrooms and during test administrations. This inventory included 50 items in likert scale. The reliability of this anxiety questionnaire was reported as .87 in Cronbach's Alpha.

3. Researchers-made Test Battery. This instrument included 20 task-based items which was employed to assess the participants' level of achievement during the course. The instrument covered those tasks practiced throughout the course. To determine the effect of the treatment, the instrument was used as the study pretest and post-test.

C. Procedure

The treatment lasted 15 weeks, 2 sessions per week, excluding the sessions assigned for the tests. Among the four groups (N = 127), two were selected as control (N = 63) and the other two groups as experimental (N = 64), randomly. To ensure the homogeneity of the groups at the outset of the study, 147 participants took Nelson Test (ver. 100A). Analyzing the results for the test, the researchers could select 127 participants (17 males and 110 females) as the study subjects. The participants also took a pretest including reading comprehension items to ensure their level of reading ability in English.

To determine the participants' level of anxiety, the Horwitz Second Language Anxiety Questionnaire was employed. All participants completed the items in a five-response scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. This selection regarded similarity in readability and themes. In each session, the researchers presented several reading tasks to the participants in experimental groups. The learners were asked to practice individually and in groups. The tasks included several challenging activities such as exploration, discovery, and guessing. The participants in control groups attended conventional classes and took reading passages with no tasks. These participants were asked to read the passages, look for words in their dictionaries and answer reading comprehension questions following the texts. At the end of the course, all participants took the study post-test as well as the Horwitz anxiety inventory.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Having collected the required data based on the mentioned data collection instruments and procedures, the researchers conducted data analysis and tested the hypotheses formulated for the present study.

Results for Test of Homogeneity

To check the homogeneity of the total participants (N=230), the Nelson Test, version (100A) was administered. Table 1 illustrates the descriptive statistics of participants' scores.

TABLE 1:
RESULTS OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR NELSON AS HOMOGENIZING TEST

Test	Mean	SD	N	
			Missing	Valid
Nelson	32.40	8.63	103	127

As the results of Table 1 show, mean is 32.40 and the standard deviation is 8.63. Here, only participants (N=127) whose scores fall within one standard deviation below and above the mean, i.e. between 16.55 and 28.89 were found valid to be included as the subjects of this study in control and experimental groups. The other participants (N=20) were found missing and were excluded from the study. Meanwhile, to ensure true homogeneity of the participants (N=127) in control (N=63) and experimental (N=64) groups, an independent-sample t-test was conducted, (see Table 2).

TABLE 2:
RESULTS OF T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR NELSON AS HOMOGENIZING TEST

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	p
Cont.	63	31.30	1.72	1.56	38	.12
Exp.	64	30.91	1.54			

As the results of Table 2 show, there is no statistically significant difference [t (38) = 1.56, p = .12 (two-tailed)] between control (M = 31.30, SD = 1.72) and experimental (M = 30.91, SD = 1.54) groups with regard to language proficiency which confirms the homogeneity of the participants at the outset of the study.

Having collected the results of Horwitz Second Language Anxiety Questionnaire (HSLAQ) in the pretest, the researchers analyzed the data for total test anxiety employing independent t-test. The purpose of this analysis was to estimate the participants' level of anxiety before the study began. Table 3 shows the results for this analysis.

TABLE 3:
RESULTS OF T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR TOTAL TEST ANXIETY (PRETEST)

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	p
Exp.	64	23.21	8.13	.546	125	.586
Cont.	63	22.42	8.18			

As the results of Table 3 show, there is no statistically significant difference [t (125) = .546, p = .586] between experimental (M = 23.21, SD = 8.13) and control (M = 22.42, SD = 8.18) groups with regard to general anxiety level which confirms the homogeneity of the participants at the outset of the study.

To investigate the effect of study treatment, the participants' reading comprehension ability was assessed in posttests via t-test analysis. Table 4 shows the results for this analysis.

TABLE 4:
RESULTS OF T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR TASK-BASED READING COMPREHENSION (POSTTEST)

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	p
Exp.	64	15.48	3.27	5.99	125	.00
Cont.	63	12.09	3.09			

As the results of Table 4 show, there is a statistically significant difference [t (125) = 5.99, p = .00] between experimental (M = 15.48, SD = 3.27) and control (M = 12.09, SD = 3.09) groups with task-based reading comprehension ability. This difference indicates that the participants in experimental group outperformed those in control group revealing the effect of task experience on test performance. Therefore, the first null hypothesis that task experience has no significant effect on EFL learners' performance in task-based tests is rejected.

To measure the effect of task experience on the participants' anxiety level, the researchers analyzed the data for total and individual subcategories of the HSLAQ, employing independent t-test. Tables 5 and 6 show the results for these analyses.

TABLE 5:
RESULTS OF T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR TOTAL TEST ANXIETY (PRETEST)

Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	p
Exp.	64	22.25	6.94	.780	125	.437
Cont.	63	21.28	6.98			

According to the results of Table 5, participants in experimental group (M = 22.25, SD = 6.94) were slightly better in their total anxiety compared to those in control group (M = 21.28, SD = 6.98) although the results do not reveal a significant difference [t (49) = .780, p = .437]. This may indicate that the participants in both groups have had enough experience throughout the course to control their level of anxiety. Therefore, the second null hypothesis that task experience has no significant effect on decreasing the EFL learners' level of anxiety in task-based tests is rejected. Meanwhile, the third null hypothesis that task experience has no significant effect on increasing the EFL learners' level of anxiety in task-based tests is accepted.

Comparing results of tables 4 and 5, it is clear that the participants in experimental groups had lower levels of total anxiety as well as higher performances on task-based tests. These findings reject the fourth and fifth null hypotheses that decreasing or increasing EFL learners' level of anxiety has no significant effect on their performance in task-based tests.

To analyze weather the two groups performed exactly the same on various subcategories of the HSLAQ, a t-test analysis was conducted for each subcategory. Table 6 shows the results.

TABLE 6:
RESULTS OF T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR HSLAQ SUBCATEGORIES (POSTTEST)

Subcategory	Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	*p*
Others' views	Exp.	64	2.71	1.60	.212	125	.312
	Cont.	63	3.03	1.85			
Own self-image	Exp.	64	2.38	1.38	.038	125	.047
	Cont.	63	3.23	1.68			
Future security	Exp.	64	3.15	1.12	.829	125	.000
	Cont.	63	3.07	1.14			
Lack of preparation	Exp.	64	2.84	1.71	.180	125	.704
	Cont.	63	2.95	1.59			
Bodily reactions	Exp.	64	2.25	1.54	.266	125	.264
	Cont.	63	2.58	1.83			
Thought disruptions	Exp.	64	4.65	1.97	.070	125	.026
	Cont.	63	5.07	2.33			
General test-taking anxiety	Exp.	64	2.71	1.31	.144	125	.565
	Cont.	63	2.85	1.51			

As the results of Table 6 show, except for own self-image (M = 2.38, SD = 1.38) [t (125) = .038, p = .047], future security (M = 3.15, SD = 1.12) [t (125) = 4.24, p = .000], and thought disruption (M = 4.65, SD = 1.97) [t (125) = 1.11, p = .026], there is no statistically significant difference between experimental and control groups with regard to anxiety subcategories. This indicates that the task experience employed in experimental group can impact participants' level of anxiety control particularly understanding their own image, their security for the future and monitoring thought disruption.

V. CONCLUSIONS

As the findings of this study demonstrate, task experience, acquired from task-based activities, can decrease learners' anxiety level during a task-based test particularly in novel conditions. The results also proved that task experience has significant effect on EFL learners' test performance. It showed that learners' reading ability in a second or foreign language depends on their prior experience on a particular classroom task. Meanwhile, the results of the present study indicated that task experience can significant decrease the EFL learners' level of anxiety in task-based tests. This also maintains that task experience can affect participants' level of anxiety particularly understanding their own image, their security for the future and monitoring thought disruption.

In addition, the results indicated that to achieve a better performance in a task-based or performance-based test, task experience seems an indispensible prerequisite. Also it can be stated that many variables may interact to affect language learning, but foreign language anxiety should be of considerable concern to language educators and students because of its potential impact, not only on proficiency, but also on students' affective reactions, hence their attitude toward language learning in general.

Besides, the findings of this study may have some hints for English teachers and educators. Due to popularity of performance-based tests as a tests of language proficiency, EFL teachers can be encouraged to employ various tasks in their sill-based courses such reading or listening comprehension. This may bring an opportunity for test familiarity and in return decreases test anxiety. Therefore, it seems that understanding the effects of language anxiety can help both teachers and learners in the way that teachers can control its effect by improving their teaching and students by using appropriate strategies provided by teachers.

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Cross-cultural Competence and Its Development

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Abstract—**Cross-cultural competence is composed of three components, i.e. the sensitivity to cultural differences, tolerance towards cultural differences and flexibility in dealing with problems of cultural differences, which are from low to high in stratification. TEFL should improve the learners' cognitive competence and their competence in solving problems concerning cross-cultural differences.**

Index Terms—**communicative competence, cross-cultural communicative competence, cross-cultural competence**

I. INTRODUCTION

In view of the important role of cultural differences in cross-cultural communicative competence, it is necessary to stimulate appropriately and effectively the development of the learners' cognitive competence and their competence to deal with difficult cases resulting from cross-cultural differences in the teaching English as a foreign language. The model of cross-cultural communicative competence is a supplement and development of the previous models of communicative competence. Since there are great differences in the comprehension of communicative competence, it is necessary to make a summary of the previous models of communicative competence.

Since Hymes advanced the concept and constitution of communicative competence in 1972, many scholars have put forward their different understanding of it one after another and constituted their own communicative competence models. Just take an influential concept of communicative competence as an example to illustrate that it is hard to have something in common concerning the understanding about its concept and its components. Communicative competence refers to the ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of a language in order to form grammatically correct sentences but also to know when and where to use these sentences and to whom. Communicative competence includes: *a)* knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary of the language; *b)* knowledge of rules of speaking (e. g. knowing how to begin and end conversations, knowing what topics may be talked about in different types of speech events, knowing which address forms should be used with different persons one speaks to and in different situations; *c)* knowing how to use and respond to different types of speech acts, such as requests, apologies, thanks, and invitations; d) knowing how to use language appropriately. When someone wishes to communicate with others, they must recognize the social setting, their relationship to the other person(s), and the types of language that can be used for a particular occasion. They must also be able to interpret written or spoken sentences within the total context in which they are used. For example, the English statement *It's rather cold* here could be a request, particularly to someone in a lower role relationship, to close a window or door or to turn on the heating (Hymes 1972, 1977; Coulthard 1985). Here only several influential models concerned will be discussed in brief in this paper.

A. *Communicative Competence Model by Canale & Swain*

Canale & Swain pointed out for the first time that communicative competence consists of three parts in 1980. Then in 1983 Canale developed it into four parts, that is, linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence as shown in Figure 1.
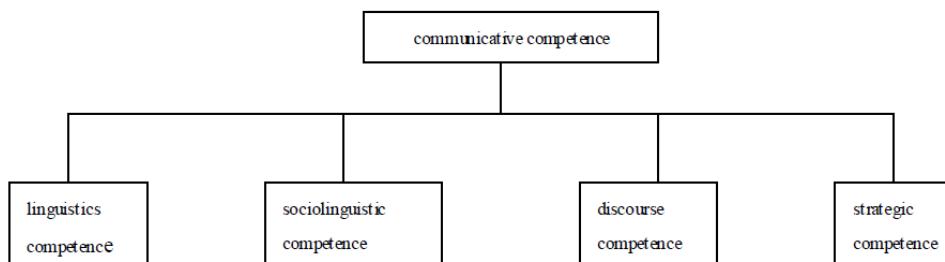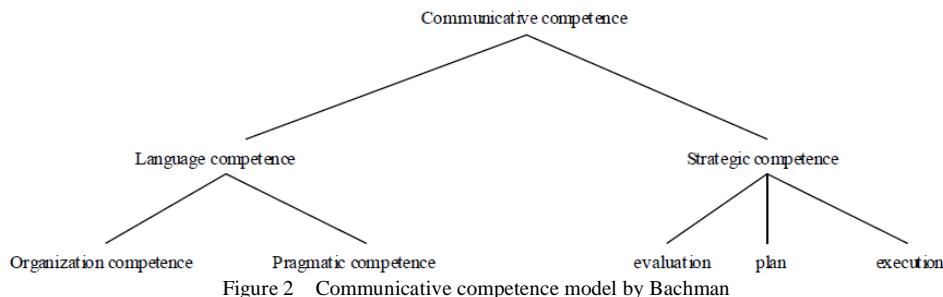
Figure1 Communicative competence model by Canale & Swain

Linguistic competence refers to linguistic knowledge and skills while sociolinguistic competence refers to competence to choose appropriate way of expressing according to situational elements including communicative time, place, characters and so on. Discourse competence means the competence to plan and arrange discourse. Strategic competence means the competence to solve communicative difficulties; in other words, it means the participants'

competence to take remedial measures when other competences can't meet the demands of communication.

B. Communicative Competence Model by Bachman

Based on the hypothesis advanced by Canale & Swain, Bachman (1990) put forward a more complicated model of communicative competence which is composed of language competence, strategic competence and psycho-physical mechanism as shown in Figure 2. Here only the former two parts are covered.

Figure 2   Communicative competence model by Bachman

Language competence includes not only organization competence (grammar and discourse competence) but pragmatic competence as well, among which grammar competence means knowledge and skills in syntax, morphology, phonetics or spelling while the discourse competence refers to skills in textual level such as cohesion, coherence and organization. Pragmatic competence includes competence to express and practice language as well as competence to grasp rules of language usage. Strategic competence is subdivided into three parts: evaluation, plan and execution. To be more specific, it means how to make a correct evaluation of one's own and the partner's language and background knowledge in the course of verbal communication and then decide on the way to reach the aim of communication and finally fulfill the set plan through the relevant psycho-physical mechanism. Bachman's model of communicative competence is much more complicated than the previous ones, but its complexity is reflected only at micro-level. As a result, there are no essential differences from that of Canale & Swain except the strategic competence as far as its macro-structure is concerned (Skehan, 1995).

C. Communicative Competence Model by Li Xiaoju

According to the models put forward by Canale & Swain (1980) and Bachman (1990), Li Xiaoju advanced her own model in 1997. She holds that communicative competence is made up of three components, that is, linguistic competence, discourse competence and pragmatic competence as shown in Figure 3.
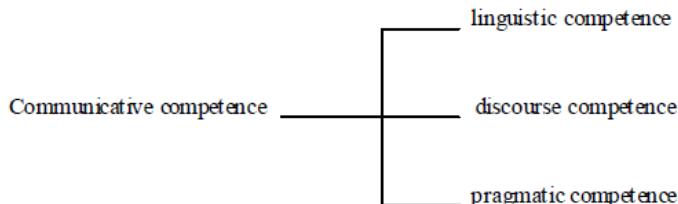
Figure 3 Communicative competence model by Li Xiaoju

Linguistic competence includes language knowledge and skills. Discourse competence refers to the competence to use language in context, while pragmatic competence in non-verbal situations. Non-verbal situations here refer to the time, place, status of participants, cultural background and etc. She holds that the three components connect, restrict and coordinate with each other.

D. Comparison of the Three Models above

There is no essential difference in contents among the first three parts of three models by comparison although they share different names as shown in Figure 4. It is interesting that they are totally different in the fourth part. Li Xiaoju's model is composed of only three parts; the models of Canale & Swain and Bachman have the same name for the fourth, but there is no similarity in their connotation. Bachman's strategic competence refers to how the participants fulfill the communicative task through evaluation, plan and execution, whereas Canale & Swain's the remedial competence in communication.

	Canale & Swain	Bachman	Li Xiaoju
1	linguistic competence	language competence	linguistic competence
2	discourse competence	organization competence	discourse competence
3	sociolinguistic competence	pragmatic competence	pragmatic competence
4	strategic competence(remedial competence)	strategic competence	

Figure 4 Comparison of the three models

There is one shortcoming common in the three models except the similarities and differences mentioned above, namely, the competence of how to deal with cultural differences is not mentioned explicitly. It is well known that communication by means of foreign language always occurs between persons from different cultural background, namely cross-cultural communication. Cross-cultural communication is an exchange of ideas, information, etc. between persons from different cultural backgrounds. There are often more problems in cross-cultural communication than communication between people of the same cultural background. Each participant may interpret the other's speech according to his or her cultural conventions and expectations. If the cultural conventions of the speakers are widely different, misinterpretations and misunderstandings can easily arise, even resulting in a total breakdown of communication. This has been shown by research into real-life situations, such as job interviews, doctor-patient encounters and legal communication. Since English is an international language and the participants may come from English-speaking countries or non-English-speaking ones, they have utterly different cultural background. If the competence of how to deal with cultural differences is not included, it is difficult to improve the learners' level of foreign languages in an all-round way.

II.   THE MODEL OF CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

On the basis of analysis and comparison of the three models of communicative competence, Wen Qiufang (2000:9) advanced a model of cross-cultural communicative competence as shown in Figure 5. With the communicative competence put forward by the predecessors included, the cross-cultural competence is introduced into the new model, which is made up of three components, that is, sensitivity to cultural differences, tolerance towards cultural differences and flexibility in dealing with problems of cultural differences.
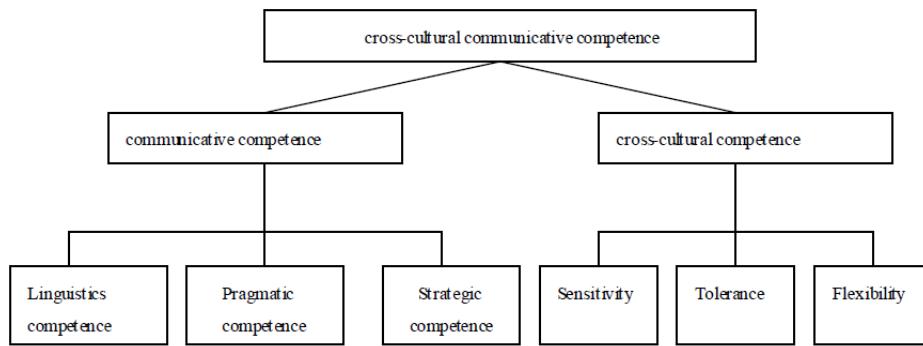
Figure 5 Model of cross-cultural communicative competence

A.   Sensitivity to Cultural Differences

Sensitivity to cultural differences means that in verbal communication participants not only know the surface cultural differences of the target language country but can easily identify the deep-seated differences of two sides as well. There is no need for them to have special training to distinguish the evident surface cultural differences (Levine, 1987). For example, when the Chinese come to the U.S.A., they will find Americans have different language and dietary habits from them. On the other hand, the deep-rooted cultural differences are not so easy to identify, which is due to the fact that the cultural difference in deep structure is much more abstract and is considered to be in the speaker's, writer's, hearer's or reader's mind. For example, the Westerners get information mainly from the language itself, while the Asians especially the Japanese and the Chinese from the situation, the speaker's expression, behavior and so on besides the language. As the popular Chinese idioms go, "We judge the drums by the sound and the words by the voice" and "We should have sharp eyes and keen ears", which mean that the Easterners are better at obtaining information in various ways.

Since the cultural difference in deep structure is hidden in people's behavior and thoughts and difficult to observe directly, it is even more necessary to develop the sensitivity to the cultural differences consciously. At the same time, the sensitivity is migratory, which means that it can go beyond the national boundaries and is not confined to the understanding of the target language country. As a result, with the exact sensitivity, the participants can easily find out the cultural differences in the deep structure between two sides.

One point to be stressed here is that sensitivity to cultural differences is different from knowledge of cultural differences. In fact, the development of student's competence to distinguish cultural differences must be made through the comparison of different countries. In other words, understanding and grasping the knowledge of foreign cultures is not an end but a means. No means, no end.

B.   Tolerance towards Cultural Differences

The tolerance towards cultural differences refers to what kind of attitudes towards cultural differences, to be concrete, cultural differences are understandable, respectable or disgusting, disliked. Some people have a sense of cultural

superiority, holding that cultures of other countries are backward compared to their own advanced one. The simple reason for it is that people are born to get edification from the native culture, so the ideas and system of values seem to be mixed with their own blood and work as an integral part of the whole body. Once it comes to conflict with the foreign culture, it will make such instinct response as incomprehension or dislike and what is more serious is disgusting attitude.

To develop tolerance towards cultural differences, we should clarify a correct concept first that culture is not inborn and just like language there is no such difference as so-called primitive or civilized culture. Armed with the proper concept, it is likely for us to show understanding and tolerance towards foreign culture in our behavior. On the other hand, tolerance is predicated on broad horizon. That is to say, the more understanding we have of the cultural differences between different countries, the more easily we tend to take an understandable and tolerant attitude toward them.

C.   Flexibility in Dealing with Problems of Cultural Differences

Flexibility in dealing with problems of cultural differences involves competence in two aspects: (1) the participant's competence to make flexible adjustment to his communicative behavior according to the mutual cultural background so as to achieve the desired result; (2) the competence to deal with the communicative conflict resulting from the cultural differences.

In the cross-cultural communication, a likely situation is that how the two sides can make sure of the smooth going-on of the communication since they both come from non-English-speaking countries with different rules of social communication in their cultures though they both take English as communicative tool. The ideal situation is that with high sensitivity and tolerance to the cultural differences both sides try to understand the other's communicative rules and draw to each other as close as possible so as to achieve the final success of communication through continuous consultation and adjustment. The communicative rule involved in the cross-cultural communication is different from not only the communicative rule in the culture of target language but also in the participant's native language. We may call it inter-cultural communicative rule (Wen Qiufang, 2000). The difference between it and the general communicative rule lies in the fact that it is decided by the two sides' continuous consultation and adjustment and comes into being during the process of communication instead of before it. Consequently, the participants need to have great competence in dealing with unexpected communicative conflicts.

Flexibility in dealing with problems of cultural differences also involves the competence to deal with the communicative conflict resulting from cultural differences. During the process of cross-cultural communication, the two sides tend to meet with communication barriers. There are two main reasons for it: one is that their foreign language level can't meet the needs of communication, which is called linguistic communication barrier; the other is that cultural differences lead to their contradictions called cultural communication barrier. Some strategy and skills are necessary in dealing with the cultural communication barrier. Above all, the participant should be good at making clear his puzzlement over the opposite culture in verbal communication and understanding the other's cultural customs. At the same time, he should explain to his counterpart the behavioral norm in his native culture. Only in this way can the conflict be solved quickly. Of course, if he cannot express what he wants to say clearly for his poor foreign language, it is useless in spite of the good wish to solve the communication conflict. Therefore, cross-cultural competence should be based on linguistic competence. In other words, the former is only illusory separated from the latter.

D.   Relationship among Components of Cross-cultural Competence

The three components of cross-cultural competence do not exist in isolation and there is a hierarchical relation between them as shown in Figure 6. Tolerance towards cultural differences lies in the middle of the hierarchy with sensitivity to cultural differences at the bottom and flexibility in dealing with problems of cultural differences at the top. Their logical relationship must not be reversed, which is easy to explain. If the students have no competence to sense cultural differences, it is impossible to come to "tolerance" and "flexibility". Therefore, "tolerance" is not the natural outcome of "sensitivity" and deserves special training. In the same way, sensitivity and tolerance to cultural differences cannot make sure the students can deal with problems in cultural communication flexibly, because special techniques and skills are needed here.
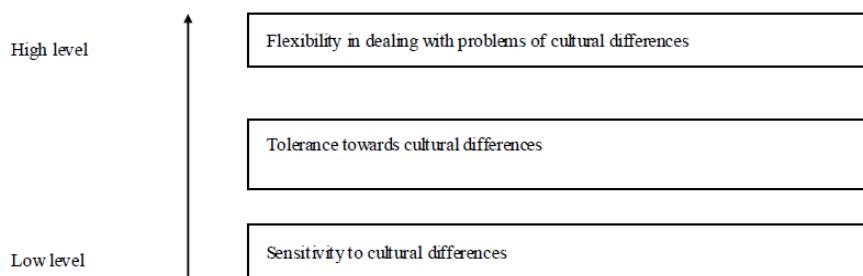

Figure 6 Inner hierarchical order of cross-cultural competence

Development of cross-cultural competence should be carried on step by step from the low level to the high. That is to say, in the process of developing the students' cross-cultural competence, we should begin with improving their level of sensing cultural differences in order to train their sensitivity to cultural differences; then have them take a correct attitude towards cultural difference so as to make them understand and respect each other's culture; finally train their techniques and skills to deal with cultural differences. The above-mentioned three tasks should be combined together in teaching to develop their cross-cultural competence by means of spiral circulation.

III. SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

In view of the discussion above, we suggest a course favorable to develop cross-cultural competence be added to the current curriculum as far as possible. It is different from not only the traditional course *An Outline Introduction of Britain and America* but *A Survey of English-speaking Countries* with enlarged contents. It aims at introducing the general trend and characteristics of worldwide cultural differences objectively and providing rational explanation of tolerance and respect for foreign cultures instead of focusing on some country's culture. Teachers will make analyses and discussion on some cases and encourage students to find solutions to the problems. We may take the method of Project & Presentation Teaching and Learning with students acting as the center (Luo Jing, 2004). Here Project means project research. Centering on the nature of the course and teaching contents combined with the knowledge points students should grasp as well as their interest, teachers design and choose topics together with students; make research and investigation in extracurricular time by means of making questionnaire and interview, consulting materials and looking up what are needed on the internet; then writer English reports after analyzing the materials collected. Presentation means students state their summary, deliver report, perform or display objects as well as answering other students' questions within the fixed time in class after they complete their Project. Based on the teaching plan in the process of teaching, it can be carried on by (1) incorporating it in intensive reading and listening teaching; (2) penetrating it in CET-4 and CET-6 guidance; (3) instilling it by giving thematic lectures and distributing extracurricular materials (Li Xue &Wang Simei, 2001).

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Register Variation and the Multi-word Item

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Abstract—Past research in language has posited numerous reasons for language variation. The findings of such research seem to have focused more on how language varies in different contexts, where contexts cover factors of geography, ethnicity, social class, age, sex and culture on the one hand, and situational variables such as mode, domain and tenor on the other. But beyond these, a new paradigm has emerged with the advent of computer-assisted language research, which has primed investigations into similarities and dissimilarities between register types based on various linguistic phenomena. One of the central issues in such research is lexical behaviour, which is the main interest of this research, in particular, the use of multi-word items which are postulated to characterize individual registers. This study focuses on this relatively new area of linguistic enquiry, to account for how a text type can be distinguished based on the word sequences which compose it. The question at issue is – are there genre-specific multi-word items? To answer this question, the paper investigates the use of multi-word items in five different texts: fictional writing, academic writing, religious speech, political speech, and memorial speech. The results show some indication that the multi-word item can serve as an index of text variability, but precisely which multi-word items are expected to occur in a register, or not occur, remains inconclusive. We therefore recommend further and continual research into the use of this item until a complete picture emerges.

Index Terms—registers, language variation, multiword items, lexical behaviour

I. INTRODUCTION

In general usage in linguistics, a text is a passage of any length which forms a unified whole. It can be in oral or written form. However, not all written or oral matter qualifies as text. A text is a unit of language in use. It is not a grammatical unit, like a clause or sentence; and it is not defined by its size. As Halliday and Hasan (1976, 1989) explain, a text is sometimes envisaged to be some kind of super sentence, a grammatical unit that is larger than a sentence but related to a sentence in the same way that a sentence is related to a clause, a clause to a group and so on: by constituency. A text is not something that is like a sentence, only bigger; it is something that differs intrinsically from a sentence. 'A text is best regarded as a semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning. Thus it is related to a clause or sentence not by size but by realization, the coding of one symbolic system in another. A text does not consist of sentences; it is realized by or encoded in, sentences' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 3-4). A text is: an instance of language in use, either spoken or written; a piece of language behaviour which has occurred naturally without the intervention of the linguist, e.g. a conversation, lecture or sermon. Every text has a property or properties which qualify it as text. This is called texture; these are linguistic features which unify it as text, creating the cohesion necessary for its understanding. In linguistic study, some terminological confusion attends 'text' and 'discourse'. It is needful to indicate how text relates to discourse, at least in this study.

Baker (2006) discusses the various ways that discourse has been used in social and scientific research: as language above the sentence level, as language in use, as types of language use or topics, and as practices which systematically form the objects of which they speak. Of these inter-related yet different conceptualisations, two of the senses which this study adopts are the first and second ones; discourse is language above the sentence level and language in use. According to Stubbs (1996), it is naturally-occurring connected speech or writing; the organisation of language above the sentence or above the clause, which follows that discourse, is language use in social contexts, the interaction or dialogue between speakers. Therefore, discourse analysis is: analysis of natural data beyond the sentence boundary; analysis of language use in society; and analysis of the properties of interaction between speakers/writers in everyday communication. Therefore, the distinction between discourse and text is quite blurred. This point also resonates in Crystal (1995), who says the distinction is not clear cut; both can be broadly used to include all language units with a definable communicative function, whether spoken or written. It is in this sense that the terms are used here, synonymously. We need to further distinguish these from register, the other interest of this study. Now, each text is resident in a domain, is of a type. The typology of texts/discourses is register, particular kinds of texts. In Biber (1999), this distinction is made explicit; register is used for situational varieties of English, e.g. newspaper language, academic language and the like, and each extended sample of language from a register is text. He notes that even a casual look at texts from different registers reveals extensive linguistic differences. This observation strengthens this effort, the examination of different text types or registers to see whether the use of multi-word items serves as an index of variability. But first, let us examine the literature of multi-word items in order to situate the study.

A. Multi-word Items: A Brief Review

The concept of multi-word items in language is foregrounded by the idea that language occurs not as isolated units, but in chunks and groups, that language consists of semi-preconstructed units or prefabricated units which users utilize as single choices. This is the stance of some corpus linguists, like Sinclair (1991), and others, like Lewis (1997), who propose a lexical approach to language study. Lewis (1997, p.7) argues that 'language consists of chunks which, when combined, produce continuous text. The chunks are of different kinds, four of which are identified. One of these consists of single words while all the others are multi-word items'. Since the multi-word item is the major thrust of this study, it is prudent to define it, identify its types, and describe their characteristics. It is also important to point out that chunks in language are given different labels, as will be demonstrated shortly, though their functions and characteristics remain the same. In this study however, we shall adopt the term 'multi-word items', as the term is defined in the following section.

B. Definition

It is necessary, from the outset, to point out that a definitional problem attends the term 'multi-word items', as signalled by its varying nomenclatures. To some scholars, it is a lexical phrase, for example Nattinger and Deccarrico (1992); to some it is formulaic language, for example (McCarthy, 1990); to some it is prefabricated language, for example Pawley and Syder (1983); to some it is multiword units, for example Lewis (1993, 1997), and to Hsu (2006), multi-word lexical units. To some others it is fixed expressions, for example Cowie (1988); to Sinclair (1991, 1998) it is idioms or pre-constructed language; to Moon (1997), it is multi-word items; and to Biber (1999), it is lexical bundles. Although all the scholars above make references to this phenomenon, it is Moon (1997, p. 43) who attempts a full definition of this concept, one which this study shall adopt. She states that:

…a multi-word item is a vocabulary item which consists of a sequence of two or more words ... This sequence of words semantically and/or syntactically forms a meaningful and inseparable unit. Multi-word items are the result of lexical (and semantic) processes of fossilisation and word-formation, rather than the results of the operation of grammatical rules.

The other definition of multi-word items worth noting is that of Nattinger and DeCarricco (1992, p. 37):

…prefabricated phrases are collocations if they are chunked sets of lexical items with no particular pragmatic functions; they are lexical phrases if they have such pragmatic function.

In this definition, they make a distinction between two types of multi-word item: collocations and lexical phrases, as does Lewis (1993, p. 92) when he says that '...looking at groups of lexical items is revealing. The most important groups are collocations, which are message-oriented, and institutionalized expressions, which are essentially pragmatic in character'.

Obviously, the terminological differences inherent in the concept of multi-word items are now evident. What this portends for lexical analysis is that each researcher needs to define carefully the terms, as they apply to their study. In this study, a multi-word item is defined, following Moon, as a vocabulary item that consists of a sequence of two or more words which semantically or syntactically form a meaningful and inseparable unit. In fact, Moon explains that multi-word items are very closely related to collocations, such that they can be seen as extreme cases of collocation. This was also the observation of McEnery, Xiao and Tono (2006), who note that multi-word items are closely associated with collocations and have been an important topic in lexical studies.

However, Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992, p. 36) distinguish between multi-word items (which they call lexical phrases) and collocations. According to them, 'collocations are strings of specific lexical items, such as *rancid butter* ... that co-occur with a mutual expectancy greater than chance. These strings have not been assigned particular pragmatic functions'. In contrast, multi-word items 'are collocations that have been assigned pragmatic functions, and they are of two main types; strings of specific (non-productive) lexical items, which allow no paradigmatic or syntactic substitution (and) generalized (productive) frames, which have been assigned a pragmatic function'. Therefore, phrasal combinations in English are collocations if they are chunked sets of lexical items with no pragmatic functions, but they are multi-word items if they have pragmatic functions (Nattinger & DeCarrico). They note, as Moon does, that variation exists between multi-word items but that their categories form a continuum rather than sharp boundaries. The four structural criteria which characterize them, they say, are length and grammatical status, canonical or non-canonical shape, variableness or fixedness, and continuous or discontinuous nature. They note the four main types as polywords, institutionalized expressions, phrasal constraints and sentence builders, all of which differ in their structure and functions to varying degrees. Concerning types, Moon says that multi-word item is a super-ordinate term for compounds, phrasal verbs, idioms, fixed phrases, and prefabs. Another class, mentioned by Tschichold (2000), is the noun phrase.

In yet another attempt, Biber (1999) explains the concept of multi-word items. According to him, many multi-word expressions function in English as structural or semantic units, and the most common of these are phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs. And these constitute single entities with respect to both their structure and meaning. He further notes that these are of different kinds depending on their degrees of idiomaticity and invariability. At one extreme are idioms, invariable expressions whose meanings are not a sum of their parts; then there are collocations which are lexical word associations which co-occur more frequently than could be expected by chance; and at the other extreme are

lexical bundles, word sequences (normally of two or more words) which show a tendency to recur in natural discourse, irrespective of idiomaticity and structural status.

Moon (1997), in addition, explains very clearly how to establish a sequence of words as a multi-word item. First, is the factor of institutionalization which is the degree to which a multi-word item is conventionalized in the language. Second, is fixedness, which is the degree to which a multi-word item is frozen as a sequence of words. And third, is non-compositionality, which is the degree to which a multi-word item cannot be interpreted on a word-by-word basis, but has a specialised, unitary meaning. These, she adds, are however, not absolutes but variables, and are present in differing degrees in each multi-word item. We shall examine, albeit briefly, the different types of multi-word items in order to clarify our discussion of them in subsequent sections of the study. To illustrate them, we shall rely on the accounts by Lewis (1993, 1997), Nattinger (1980) and Hsu (2006), shown below.

C. Types of Multi-word Items

Lewis (1993, 1997) identifies different types of multi-word units (Lewis' cover term) as follows:

Multiword items: He identifies the different types as polywords, e.g. *by the way*, arbitrary combinations, e.g. *to and fro*.

Collocations: Their types were identified as fixed and free, e.g. *blonde hair, strong tea*.

Institutionalized Expressions: These are pragmatic in nature. For example, *not yet*, *just a moment, please,* etc.

Sentence heads or frames, e.g. *Sorry to interrupt… but can I just say… .*

Fixed Expressions: Their types are social greetings, e.g. *good morning*, politeness phrases, e.g. *no thank you*, idioms, e.g. *do not make a mountain out of a mole hill*.

Semi-fixed Expressions: Most expressions fall into this category. Lewis exemplifies with spoken sentences with a simple slot, as in *Could you please pass the… ,* sentence heads which can be completed in variety of ways, e.g. *The football match was interesting/ boring/ annoying.*

In another study, Nattinger (1980) classifies multi-word items (which he terms lexical phrases) into six groups as follows:

1. Polywords: short fixed phrases, whose meaning is often not analysable by the regular rules of syntax, and which can substitute for single words, e.g. *kick the bucket.*

2. Phrasal constraints: short, relatively fixed phrases with slots that permit some variation, e.g. *a ... ago.*

3. Deictic locutions: short- to medium-length phrases of low variability used to monitor conversation, e.g. *as far as I know.*

4. Sentence builders: phrases of up to sentence length – highly variable phrases containing slots, e.g. *not only X but Y.*

5. Situational utterances: usually complete sentences, e.g. *I'll see you next week.*

6. Verbatim texts: e.g. numbers, the alphabet, days of the week, aphorisms and proverbs.

Hsu (2006), in his investigation of multi-word units in ELT textbooks, uses the term multi-word lexical phrases and identifies four types as: lexical collocations, fixed expressions, semi-fixed expressions, and idioms; and describes each group thus:

Lexical collocations: Word associations where one word recurrently co-occurs with one or more other words as the only, or one of few, possible lexical choices, e.g. *blonde hair.*

Fixed expressions: Word groups which allow no replacement in any of their components, e.g. *what's up?*

Semi-fixed expressions: These are similar to fixed expressions except they allow replacement in at least one or more of their components, e.g. *If I were you, I would… .*

Idioms: Word groups fixed in word order and substitutability, e.g. *a skeleton in the closet.*

We must point out, however, that the multi-word item in English is not as productive in its kinds as these classifications seem to suggest. Rather, each writer/researcher distinguishes them as suits his or her purpose. Hence, their typologies, at present, are not mutually exclusive. This, in itself, is indicative that this area of study is still at an elementary stage because, as yet, there are no established terminologies, classifications and boundaries for this linguistic phenomenon. In the present study, an integrated classification is made of seven main types; compounds, phrasal/prepositional verbs, fixed expressions, semi-fixed expressions, noun phrases, lexical collocations, and idioms. The interest this phenomenon has generated so far in language research and, most importantly, its significance in language variation, are the foci of the next section.

D. Multi-word Items and Register Differentiation

Much of the work done on the multi-word item is based on its role in language learning. It is argued that mastery of multi-word items in a target language enhances the communicative competence of the second language learner, and thus enables him or her to produce appropriate sentences in the language (Lewis, 1997; Stubbs, 1996; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). According to Nattinger and DeCarrico (p.1), 'current research converges in a way that reveals the lexical phrase as an ideal unit which can be exploited for language teaching'. This is based on the pervasive role that ritualization plays in language behaviour; routinized formulas and other forms of prefabricated language chunks, products of this ritualization, seem to play a large part in both acquiring and performing language (Nattinger & DeCarrico). Therefore, beyond playing a role in language description, they see a possible connection between multi-word items and language theories of competence, performance and pragmatics. Moon (1997) is in no less agreement on the significance of multi-

word items in language learning when she remarks that they pose a problem to the second language learner. Many other works deal with their function in the complete description of the lexis, even of particular genres (Nelson, 2000; Sinclair, 1991). In Nelson, for instance, a thorough description of the lexical network of business is given with the identification of business-specific multi-word items playing a crucial role in painting a picture of business English, and subsequently in postulating its extended function of enhancing business-related communications and learning.

Only a few other works have enquired into the role of multi-word items in language variation to establish multi-word items as an index of text variability. For example, Biber (1999) found that they are a reliable indicator of register variation. He showed that the structural types and distribution of multi-word items differ across text types of conversation, classroom teaching, textbooks, and academic prose. Earlier, Moon (1997) has observed that multi-word items vary according to regional varieties of English, and that the lexical densities of multi-word items in particular text types prove that there are strong genre-specific preferences, e.g. idioms are associated with journalism. It is to this category of work that this research seeks to make a contribution.

Some other works, for example Macaulay (2003), note that the complexity of discourse-variation study – finding out what patterns of language characterize language use in particular settings – requires many methodological decisions not crucial to studying other kinds of variation. He notes, for instance, that discourse variation can best be said to be only at an elementary stage because 'there is no agreed methods of collecting, or analyzing data, on what features are suitable for investigation, on how to identify possible discourse features, and what significance to attach to the use of a particular feature' (Macaulay, 2003, p. 284). Concerning earlier findings on discourse variation, he remarks that there are a number of intriguing claims that need to be tested again and again, by the same or different methods, in similar or different settings, with similar or different samples, noting that it is only when there is convergence of results that confident claims about discourse differences are possible. Against this backdrop, then, this study gains considerable significance because it will serve both to retest previous results by its choice of the academic and fictional writings previously examined by Biber (1999), and to make fresh findings by examining the character of multi-word items in political, religious and memorial speeches, whose text samples will be presented shortly.

II. DATA AND METHOD OF THE STUDY

As indicated above, the data for this study are composed of extracts from five types of text: academic and fictional writings, and political, religious and memorial speeches. The choice of these registers is informed by their extensive use. Except for memorial speeches, language use for fiction, academic purposes, religion and politics is certainly very wide. Our sample texts were extracted randomly from these domains. It is imperative to point out that only short excerpts of them can be accommodated in a work of this nature. The method that will be used here is both qualitative and intuitive. This entails a comparative textual analysis of this linguistic item across the text types to investigate similarities and dissimilarities of its use. The overall objective, of course, is to examine the use of multi-word items in these contexts to see whether the texts can be differentiated on the basis of their use of this item. If yes, then the results become relevant to the learning and use of language in these contexts.

In line with the objectives of the study, we shall first identify and discuss instances of the use of formulaic language (multi-word items) in each of the texts. These multi-word items shall be underlined for recognition. Then, second, we shall compare the types found across the text types to see whether particular registers show preference for certain multi-word items above other types. In other words, we will investigate if multi-word items characterize specific registers and, in doing so, confirm or disprove the existence of genre-specific multi-word items as posited by some previous research, e.g. Biber (1999). We shall now present and analyse each data type below, with overall conclusions following immediately.

III. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSES

Text Sample 1: Fictional prose writing
Jess? Her mother's voice sounded through the hallway, mixing with the mustiness around her so well that the sound almost had a smell. To Jess, sitting in the cupboard, the sound of her name was strange, wobbly, misinformed, as if she were inside a bottle, or a glass cube, maybe, and mum was outside it, tapping. I must have been in here too long –

'Jessamy' Her mother's voice was very stern. Jessamy Harrison did not reply. She was sitting inside the cupboard on the landing, where the towels and other linens were kept, saying quietly to herself, I am in the cupboard. She reminded herself that she was in the cupboard, so that she would know exactly where she was, something that was increasingly difficult each day. Jess found it easier not to remember, for example, that the cupboard she had hidden in was inside a detached house, on Langtree avenue. (Oyeyemi, Helen. The Icarus Girl 2005, p.1)

Analysis
In this text, it can be seen from the underlined words that almost all the multi-word items found are compounds. There is, however, more use of noun compounds, for example *hallway and cupboard* than other compounds, for example adjective + noun compounds which occurred once, e.g. *glass cube*. Other multi-word items used are fixed expressions, such as *for example,* and noun phrases, e.g. *Langtree avenue* and *a detached house*. However, the tendency is to speculate a preference for compound words in fictional prose due to their frequent occurrence.

Text Sample 2: Academic writing

So remarkable, then, is the act of writing that it apparently frees some part of us from the confines of calendar and atlas. Through it we reach to other times and other places; it passes the word to Whitsuntide and fetches an answer from Athens or Arkansas. Yet this, the wonderful liberty of the medium, is hardly achieved at a stroke. We begin by talking to ourselves, convincingly enough, maybe, but presently become involved in a long and laborious process of translation, a dull and often slavish imposition on the spirit. Suddenly language itself is strange, intractable, a material that responds lumpishly, a substance of stubborn grain that must be worked deliberately and in silence. Here is a speechless acquisition, a clenched and staring discipline. Here, indeed, is a trade, like metal work or joinery; through practice we learn the craft, through learning we extend the practice, and always there is that charmed procedural circle, of doing and learning and doing, into which the initiate must break unaided. Demonstration is helpful, analysis is doubtless of great value, but who can teach the synthetic power of the creative imagination as it buds forth some artefact – say a table, say a text? There are bounds, of course, to what theorizing can do; and so perhaps we have come in this book to a conjectural limit, beyond which all attempts at advice might be deemed presumptuous and futile. Once the making has begun, the maker must be his own apprentice and his master. (Nash, W. Designs in Prose 1980, p. 159)

Analysis

In this academic prose text, we find higher productivity in the use of multi-word items than in the prose fiction text. For instance, there is the use of compounds: adjective + noun compound, e.g. *creative imagination, conjectural limit;* prepositional verbs, e.g. *reach to, involved in, come to;* fixed phrases, e.g. *at a stroke, of course;* noun phrases, e.g. *a speechless acquisition*; and idioms, *e.g. the confines of calendar and atlas.* There is quite a number of idioms in this text and that is, to say the least, surprising for an academic text. Also, there is an equally good number of prepositional verbs. This leads us, again, to attempt prediction of the text's preference for idioms and prepositional verbs.

Text Sample 3: Religious Speech

Nowhere is the tragic tendency to conform more evident than in the church, an institution which has often served to crystallize, conserve, and even bless the patterns of majority opinion. The erstwhile sanction by the church of slavery, racial segregation, war, and economic exploitation is testimony to the fact that the church has harkened more to the authority of the world than to the authority of God. Called to be the moral guardian of the community, the church at times has preserved that which is immoral and unethical. Called to combat social ills, it has remained silent behind stained-glass windows. Called to lead men on the highway of brotherhood and to summon them to rise above the narrow confines of race and class, it has enunciated and practiced racial exclusiveness ... We have become showmen to please the whims and caprices of the people. We preach comforting sermons and avoid saying anything from our pulpit which might disturb the respectable views of the comfortable members of our congregations. Have we ministers of Jesus Christ sacrificed truth on the altar of self-interest, and like Pilate, yielded our convictions to the demands of the crowd? (King, M. L. Strength to Love 1963, p. 21)

Analysis

In the religious text we see, too, instances of compound words: noun compounds, e.g. *majority opinion, showmen*; adjective + noun compound, e.g. *moral guardian*; and verbal + compound, e.g. *comforting sermons.* Other multi-word items found are: prepositional verbs, e.g. *serve to*; phrasal verbs, e.g. *rise above*; fixed phrases, e.g. *whims and caprices*; idioms, e.g. *sacrifice truth on the altar of self interest*; and noun phrases, e.g. *ministers of Jesus Christ.* Looking at the identified word sequences, it is clear that compounds prevail and this implies an inclination toward their use in religious texts.

Text Sample 4: Political Address

OBAMA: My fellow citizens:

Forty-four Americans have now taken the presidential oath. The words have been spoken during rising tides of prosperity and the still waters of peace. Yet, every so often the oath is taken amidst gathering clouds and raging storms. At these moments, America has carried on not simply because of the skill or vision of those in high office, but because we the people have remained faithful to the ideals of our forebears, and true to our founding documents.

So it has been. So it must be with this generation of Americans.

That we are in the midst of crisis is now well understood. Our nation is at war, against a far-reaching network of violence and hatred. Our economy is badly weakened, a consequence of greed and irresponsibility on the part of some, but also our collective failure to make hard choices and prepare the nation for a new age. Homes have been lost; jobs shed; businesses shuttered. Our health care is too costly; our schools fail too many; and each day brings further evidence that the ways we use energy strengthen our adversaries and threaten our planet. (Excerpt from text of President Barack Obama's Inaugural Address: p.1)

Analysis

The political speech makes use of such multi-word items as: compounds, e.g. *fellow citizens, founding documents, health care* (all noun compounds); prepositional verbs, e.g. *carried on*; phrasal constraints/semi-fixed expressions, e.g. *a new age*; noun phrases, e.g. *the presidential oath*; and idiomatic expressions, such as *still waters, gathering clouds, rising tides, raging storms* and *hard choices.* There seems to be a greater use of idioms in the text which is suggestive of preference.

Text Sample 5: Memorial Address

My President, the Senate has assembled today to remark <u>for the record</u> the death of John Fitzgerald Kennedy, President of the United States. I shall be brief, for his life, too short, <u>shut off</u> too soon, speaks for him. In these <u>last hours</u>, a profile in courage has emerged from the emulsion of his death, and did not experience of the Nation and the world.

John Fitzgerald Kennedy's courage was the <u>human courage</u>, the courage which all must have merely to live in this world, in the <u>ever-present shadow</u> of death, it was the <u>special courage</u> to defy the <u>cold hand of death</u> when it <u>reaches out</u> too eagerly, and as twice it did <u>in the wounds of the war and in the grave illness of his senate years</u>. It was <u>the quiet courage to accept death's finality when it would be denied no longer</u>.

This is the profile of the man who <u>walked among</u> us not long ago on <u>the floor of the Senate</u>. This is the profile of the man who emerged to <u>reawaken the Nation to its finest meaning</u>. This is the man who struck new <u>sparks of hope</u> in <u>a world dark with unspeakable fears</u>. (Senator Mansfield's speech on the death of J. F. Kennedy)

Analysis

The memorial speech contains a number of multi-word items. There are a good number of idioms such as *last hours, cold hand of death, the wounds of war* and *a dark world* which give an idea of the field of discourse. Then there are phrasal and prepositional verbs, for example *shut off, reach out* and *walked among*. We have, too, uses of fixed expressions, e.g. *for the record,* noun phrases e.g. *the floor of the senate*, and compounds, e.g. *human courage, special courage.* Here, too, idioms are seen to be more prevalent.

Before discussing the findings on the multi-word items found across the texts, it is important to classify the results in order to show at a glance what types characterize each text. The discussion, which will follow, shows to what extent these multi-word types can be said to distinguish each text type or register. Table 1, below, shows the distribution of the types of multi-word items found in the texts.

TABLE 1
TYPES OF MULTI-WORD ITEMS FOUND IN THE TEXTS

Text Types	Comp. words	Phrasal Verbs	Prep. Verbs	Phrasal Const.	Noun phrase	Fixed Exp.	Idioms
Fictional Prose	●				●	●	
Academic Prose	●		●	●	●	●	●
Religious Speech	●	●	●		●	●	●
Political Speech	●		●	●	●	●	●
Memorial Speech	●	●	●		●	●	●

IV. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

We find that, except for the fictional text, the other texts demonstrate a fair distribution of multi-word types, and that while compounds, prepositional verbs, noun phrases, fixed expressions and idioms are common to the other four texts, phrasal verbs and phrasal constraints are relatively rare. They each occurred in two out of the five texts. The scant use of multi-word items in the fictional prose text is strange. This is especially so because previous study, e.g. Biber (1999), establishes multi-word items, such as phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs, as being particularly frequent in fiction because they are colloquial in tone and so amenable to such constructions as phrasal verbs. Although the point stands to reason, the present study does not corroborate it, due probably to the length of the text.

As can be seen, compounds were found across the text types which indicate that their use is not distinguishing in itself, except for its types. This means that all the texts are expected to manifest similarity of discourse content, since compounds perform the discourse function of denoting and carrying high information content. Nonetheless, each text demonstrates preference for certain structural types of compounds. For example, in fiction, there were more noun compounds, in academic prose, there were more Adj. + N compounds, in the religious text, there were mostly Adj. + N compounds, in the political speech text, more noun compounds were found, and in the memorial address, both noun compounds and Adj. + N compounds were seen to have equal occurrences. Each use relates to the discourse structure of the particular text.

The observation of high information content is further supported by the common occurrence of noun phrases in all the texts. As is well known, nouns are the main carriers of lexical meaning as they make reference and convey much information. The core of a noun phrase however points to words key to each text type and, to that extent, can be said to distinguish the texts. For example, in the political text, we find such key phrases and words as *presidential oath, high office, fellow citizens, our nation, vision* and *forebears*, which point us toward political discourse.

Also found common to all the texts are fixed expressions which, as Moon (1997) observes, organise text and provide a framework for an utterance or the argument in a text. The fixed expressions found perform exactly that discourse function, here in the texts. Take for example, the use of *of course* in the academic text, and *whims and caprices* in the religious text; both are structuring devices which serve as organiser in the case of *of course*, and summarizer in the case of *whims and caprices*.

Noteworthy too is the occurrence of idioms in four out of the five text types. According to Moon, idioms typically evaluate, connote and convey judgements, but also function in discourses as prefaces or summarizers. We see, in each instance, idioms in the texts functioning in one of these ways. But beyond saying that these text types utilize idioms either to a greater or lesser extent, we are not confident enough to hypothesize that they characterize a text type. However, we are content to say that political language and the language of memorial speech demonstrate a greater tendency to idiomaticity than academic prose, religious speech or, especially, fictional prose. The reason could be that political and memorial discourses require more evaluation, judgement and suggestion than those others which need to denote and convey information plainly.

These analyses show, in addition, that the broad categorisation of language into speech and writing does not imply that both are markedly differentiated in their linguistic characters, rather we find areas of both convergence and divergence. This is illustrated by the results which demonstrate the closeness of behaviour of multi-word items in political speech and, for example, academic prose. Biber (1988) deals extensively with this in his phenomenal publication, Variation across Speech and Writing.

V. CONCLUSION

Multi-word sequences are proved to be universal in language and thus need to be acquired by the language user. This poses a greater problem to the second language learner who has to grapple not only with the single lexis of the second language, but also combined sequences of words which are considered difficult either to teach or learn. This difficulty is due to their non-compositionality and pragmatic nature. But, owing to their importance for the competent use of language, especially to the L2 speaker to whom they are a measure of proficiency, the knowledge and use of multi-word items in appropriate situations can hardly be exaggerated. This was the point of Biber (1999), who says that it is important for the foreign language learner of English to know that learning to produce natural idiomatic English is not only a matter of making well-formed sentences, but also of using well-tried lexical expressions in the appropriate places. This is because lexical expressions are language building blocks used by English speakers and writers in different situations. Therefore, their mastery facilitates language use in different contexts. As a result, their examination in different genres, to establish both their use and variation, is a desideratum in language research, especially in light of the variableness of language.

In examining this phenomenon in the context of different registers of English, this study draws attention to it, so as to encourage its acquisition such that communication in various genres can become more proficient. This leads us back to the question at issue – are multi-word items distinguished according to registers? In response to this question, the findings of this research provide the following answers:

1. The study reveals the existence of multi-word items in all five registers examined. They occurred to varying degrees, for example, the fictional text manifested the least productivity, while the academic text showed the highest productivity in the use of multi-word sequences. This leads to the conclusion that some registers are more formulaic than others, which in turn implies that learning to use language in domains where multi-word sequences are frequent may be more demanding. To this extent, we can say that texts can be distinguished according to the density of multi-word items in them, as Moon (1997) also found.

2. The results acknowledge that particular registers show preference for certain types of multi-word items rather than others. For instance, although all five registers utilized compounds, we found that while fiction used mostly noun compounds, others, like academic prose and religious speech, preferred adjective + noun compounds. Beyond selection of sub-types of multi-word items, there is evidence of choice of whole types of multi-word items. For example, we saw that the language of politics and memorial addresses were more idiomatic than the others. And this choice was seen to impact on the discourse structure of the texts. To this end, also, we recognize register differences.

3. But the study did not fully concur with the results of former work, especially with regard to which multi-word items are known to occur in which registers. For example, Biber's (1999) claim that phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs are frequently used in fiction was not supported by the present research. This means that other factors are at play in the determination of what multi-word items a writer employs or does not employ. Or, as Macaulay (2003) observes, we are yet to arrive at a convergence of results on the phenomenon.

4. Finally, there is some indication that the multi-word item can serve as an index of text variability, but precisely which multi-word items are expected to occur in a register, or not occur, remains inconclusive. What is also noteworthy is that beyond text type, other indices of choice exist which determine the choices of the language user. At best, then, the role of multi-word items in register variation remains a topic of on-going research.

We therefore recommend further and continual research into the use of this item until a complete picture emerges. And such a picture can only emerge reliably through corpus investigations. Corpora, it is noted, provide ample language evidence and a realistic foundation for the study of language, particularly the comparison of language varieties (Svartvik, 1996). And as Sinclair (2004) says, we should trust the text, be open to what it may tell us, and rebuild our picture of language and meaning.

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The Effects on Reading Comprehension of Lexical Collocation Instruction, Subject Matter Knowledge, and Cultural Schema

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Abstract—This study investigated the effects of lexical collocation, topic and cultural familiarity on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. There were thirty-eight English Translation students in Chabahar Maritime University participating in the present study, 15 freshmen and 23 sophomores. They were chosen from among 45 students based on their scores in the reading comprehension tests. In the treatment period, all the students received three different types of instruction in three consecutive weeks, and took a reading comprehension test after each type of instruction. . In the first week, they received a text that was culturally familiar to them; it was about the origin and development of banks and corporations in Iran. In the second week, they were taught the difficult lexical collocations of the reading text along with their Farsi equivalents before taking the test. And finally in the third week, the students read a reading passage which had the same topic as the reading test before; it was about the communication and behavior of ants. All the students were requested to complete a reading comprehension test, adopted from the paper-based TOEFL tests, after each type of instruction. According to the results demonstrated by the statistical program, a significant difference was found in reading comprehension among the participants based on the type of instruction they received. The highest mean belonged to the third week, when the students read a passage with the same topic before the test as the treatment, followed by the collocation instruction. However, there was no significant difference between boys and girls, and freshmen and sophomores as a result of different types of instruction.

Index Terms—reading comprehension, lexical collocation, topic familiarity, nativized text

I. INTRODUCTION

The role of vocabulary has been underestimated in the ESL/EFL education. Influenced by the Communicative Approach, teachers have ignored or even omitted vocabulary instruction in some EFL/ESL classes. Some researchers such as Brown (1974) cautioned our ESL/EFL field about the danger of ignoring vocabulary instruction, but it was not until the 1990s that scholars recognized the importance of vocabulary in the education of English as a second or foreign language, and devoted themselves to the improvement of vocabulary instruction.

Farghal and Obiedat (1995) and Lewis (1993, 1997) specifically pointed out that the knowledge of collocations is of great importance and recognized this as prerequisite and indispensable in knowing a word. Lewis (1993, p. VI) argued that "language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar". In his view, learning collocations, the key component of grammaticalized lexis, is equal to language learning. Besides, many scholars believe that knowing a word includes knowing its collocations (Lewis, 2000; Nation, 1990, 2001).

Knowledge of collocations affects the production proficiency (Nattinger, 1980; Smadja, 1989), and the comprehension of input (Brown, 1974; Kelly, 1991). Jack Richards (1983) further pointed out that "where segmentation is difficult, comprehension is also difficult" (p. 220). In other words, a language learner may encounter difficulty in performing inference or comprehension if he is unable to segment the discourse into appropriate chunks (Berne, 2004). Besides these theoretical viewpoints about the importance and role of collocation knowledge in language learning, there are some experimental studies conducted to investigate the possible effect of collocation instruction on language skills, out of which just the most pertinent ones are included here.

Al-Zahrani (1998) came to the conclusion that there was a strong relation between the participants' knowledge of collocations and their overall language proficiency as assessed by TOEFL. Lien's (2003) research addressed the effects of lexical collocations instruction, single-item vocabulary instruction, and no instruction in relation to reading comprehension. The overall data analysis revealed that EFL learners who possessed better knowledge of collocations may be equipped with better abilities to comprehend reading texts. Such knowledge may serve as a marker of the academic levels of proficiency. What is more, collocation instruction indeed had some beneficial effects on the participants' reading comprehension in comparison with both single-item vocabulary instruction and no instruction.

Furthermore, reading is not a passive activity depending on the mere vocabulary or collocational knowledge of the learner. The reading is a very complex process which is influenced by many different factors. It is an active and interactive process and naturally presumes that readers have or should have some background knowledge about the

topic of the text. Anderson (1999), for example, explained reading as follows: Reading is an active, fluent process which involves the reader and the reading material in building meaning. Meaning does not reside on the printed page. … Synergy occurs in reading, which combines the words on the printed page with the reader's background knowledge and experiences. (p. 1)

Reading needs various mental operations to be performed simultaneously. When students read, they have to proceed from processing the text in smaller units of language to larger conceptual units (Perfetti, 1985). In fact, readers tend to deal with both micro-level text-driven features, such as pattern recognition, and lexical access, and macro-level reader-driven features, such as activation of prior knowledge and monitoring comprehension (Brantmeier, 2004). Each of these processes demands memory space, and thus may sometimes overload the working memory, which has a limited capacity (Pulido, 2003).

It has often been argued, however, that the cognitive load can be lessened by activating the necessary background knowledge of the readers (Pulido, 2004). When readers have relevant background knowledge about the topic, they can devote more attention for textual analysis and interpretation. As a result, existing background knowledge may contribute to the functioning of what are described as *automatic processes* by McLaughlin (1987). *Schema theory* discusses the role and importance of background knowledge in the reading process (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). It deals with "preexisting knowledge structures stored in the mind" (Nassaji, 2002, p. 444) and its interaction with the text (Alptekin, 2006, Ketchum, 2006). It is mostly categorized as three types: *formal, content, and cultural* schemata.

Formal schema is the knowledge of language and linguistic conventions, the organization of the text, and the main features of a particular genre of writing. *Content schema* or the knowledge of the content is usually divided into two different types: *background knowledge and subject matter knowledge.* The former refers to the knowledge that may or may not be relevant to the content of a particular text, and the latter is directly related to the text content and topic (Alderson, 2000). And finally, *Cultural schema* or *abstract schema* is defined as a culture-specific extension of content schema because it refers to the role of cultural membership that is needed to fully comprehend the meaning intended by the writer. It is abstract in nature and involves cultural familiarity and helps readers to reconstruct the story line through referring to more personally and culturally relevant scripts (Nassaji, 2002).

There are different and sometimes opposing views regarding the effect of background knowledge and cultural schema on the reading proficiency. William's study (1983) showed that while high interest material enhanced comprehension, low interest material did not depress comprehension when compared to neutral interest material. Lipson (1984) suggested that partial knowledge can interfere with comprehension if it conflicts with the information in the text. Gordon (1987) also concluded that inaccurate or incomplete knowledge that is in conflict with the information presented in the text interferes with reading comprehension. Baldwin et al. (1985) found that prior knowledge and topic interest have an additive effect on reading comprehension. Several researchers have reported positive effects of cultural familiarity on reading comprehension (Alptekin, 2006) and vocabulary learning (Pulido, 2004). Alptekin (2006) found that when cultural elements of a short story are nativized to make the text culturally familiar, students can make better inferences than when they read the original story. Alptekin's findings give credence to Oller's (1995) assertion that changing certain words in authentic texts with more familiar ones helps readers to achieve better comprehension.

The last point which will be discussed in this study is the difference between male and females in the reading comprehension. In a study on the relationships between readers' sex, enjoyment, interest and L2 reading comprehension, Brantmeier (2003) indicated that reading performance, as measured by recall comprehension, was significantly influenced by passage content and readers' gender, whereas enjoyment and interest did not have any sizeable effect on the students' performances. Bügel and Buunk (1996) examined the impact of passage topic on gender differences in EFL reading comprehension using 2,980 high school students in the Netherlands. They selected a total of 11 different English reading passages including five texts with a 'male' topic and six texts with a 'female' topic. Males gained significantly better scores on the multiple choice comprehension items for texts about laser thermometers, volcanoes, cars, and football players. Females got significantly higher scores on the comprehension tests for essays such as midwives, a sad story, and a housewife's dilemma. They included a gender-neutral passage in their study, and they found that males performed significantly better than females on the gender-neutral text.

A. Purpose of the Study

It is a fact that reading comprehension tests are always basic components of all of the standardized exams, such as IELTS or TOEFL. Nevertheless, mastering reading skill has always been a challenge for EFL learners; and Iranian university students are not exceptions to this rule. In Iran, a few researchers have carried out studies on collocation proficiency. Although many collocation studies in Iran investigated the types of collocational errors students make while writing essays, few have studied the effect of collocations on language proficiency. As mentioned in the introduction section, knowledge of collocations was found to help learners in the reading comprehension. On the other hand, the subject matter knowledge and cultural schema are also shown to affect the reading comprehension positively. Thus, the present study aims to describe and examine the effect of direct instruction of lexical collocations on reading comprehension, and compare its effect with the effect of topic familiarity (similar topic and nativized text). To this end, the experiment carried out in this study aims at answering the following research questions.

(1) Are there significant differences in Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension as a result of teaching lexical collocations, teaching a similar topic, and nativizing the reading text?

(2) Which method of instruction helps the learners most in the reading comprehension: lexical collocation instruction, teaching a similar topic, or nativizing the reading text?

(3) Are there significant differences in Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension as a result of teaching lexical collocations, teaching a similar topic, and nativizing the reading text between freshmen and sophomores?

(4) Are there significant differences in Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension as a result of teaching lexical collocations, teaching a similar topic, and nativizing the reading text between boys and girls?

B. Significance of the Study

Although the knowledge of lexical collocations is so important in learning a foreign or second language, no study has been conducted to report the effects of teaching collocations on reading comprehension in Iran, thus this study contributes directly to our understanding of the nature of collocations in general, and its effect on reading comprehension in particular. The results of the study will shed light in this regard, and will show if collocations are a worth-teaching aspect of language. On the other hand, it is generally believed that familiarity with the topics of reading or writing in IELTS and TOEFL can help students have a better performance in the exam; as a result, most of the Iranian English Language Institutes and English teachers who are preparing students for these exams mostly focus their teaching on similar topics and texts in the hope that the students will get better marks in the exam. The findings can be useful for EFL learners who have difficulty with reading sections of TOEFL or IELTS, and also for English teachers to decide whether teaching the similar topics or the essential vocabulary or collocations of the texts can help students more. It can also guide material designers to consider collocations while preparing EFL/ESL books.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

This study investigates the effect of lexical collocations instruction and topic familiarity on the Iranian EFL learners' reading skill. It aims to compare the effects of lexical collocation instruction, and topic familiarity (similar topic and nativized text) on the reading skill of Iranian students, and to see which treatment yields better results. The research design of the present study is quasi-experimental, since intact classes are used, not randomly chosen students. It obtains volunteer participants from Chabahar Maritime University English students. The design of the study is similar to the one conducted by Lien (2003), but with some modification. That study investigated the effect of lexical collocation instruction, single-item vocabulary instruction, and no instruction on the reading comprehension of the students, but this study replaced no instruction with familiar topic instruction, and single-item vocabulary instruction with culturally familiar text.

B. Setting and Participants of the Study

This study was conducted at the English department of Chabahar Maritime University. It obtained 38 volunteers from two different academic levels (fresh and sophomore). Two intact classes, one fresh and one sophomore, volunteered to participate in the study. They were between 18 and 23 years old. At that time, fresh students had passed grammar, reading and conversation courses, while sophomores had passed some translation courses in addition to these courses. However, none of the groups had passed any course related to collocation at that time. In these two classes, there were thirty-eight undergraduate students (15 fresh and 23 sophomores) in total. Among these participants, 18 of them were male and the other 20 students were female. They were 45 English majors at the beginning of the study. However, after taking the TOEFL reading test and analyzing the scores, 7 of the students whose marks were far below the mean were excluded and those students who were almost at the same level of reading proficiency were chosen as the participants of the study.

C. Instrumentation

The instruments exploited in the present study were three TOEFL reading tests. Each test consisted of one reading passage, followed by 10 multiple choice questions, which is almost a norm in TOEFL reading. The reading used in the first week was about the origin and development of banks and corporations in Iran. In the second week, a text entitled: Extinction of animals was used as the test. The reading used in the third week was about the way ants communicate with each other. They were all taken from the paper-and-pencil practice tests of TOEFL, published by Educational Testing Service. The second instrument was the statistical program, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17.

D. Treatments

Three types of instruction –producing a nativized text, teaching lexical collocations, and teaching a similar topic, were included as the treatments in this experiment. In the first week, the students had no instruction in the class before the test, but the reading test was about a topic that was quite familiar to them culturally, it was about the origin and development of banks and corporations in Iran. Alptekin's (2006) believed that in order to make a text culturally familiar for the students, we do not need to use two texts of similar difficulty, but we cam make use of the same text only by changing some cultural elements, such as the names of people and places, and by adapting them to the students'

own cultural context. This, according to Alptekin, reduces the possible bias posed by varying levels of conceptual density and complexity in different texts. So, the original TOEFL reading passage which was about the origin and development of banks in USA was taken as the source, and it was nativized by replacing all the names of people, corporations, places, and dates. So, the students took a reading passage that was culturally familiar to them.

In the second week, the students received collocation instruction for 30 minutes in their own classroom respectively. In this type of instruction, difficult lexical collocations of the passage were presented to the students, and their Farsi equivalents were given to them on a piece of paper. The students got together in groups and made sentences with them. At the end of the class, the students took the reading test, the collocations of which were presented to them before.

In the third week, all the participants were given a passage that was about the same topic as the reading test. The reading was about the behavior and communication of ants. The students read the text aloud in the class, talked about it and asked any questions regarding the meaning and structure of the text. After that, they took the reading test and answered the following 10 multiple-choice questions.

E. Data Collection Procedure

The study was conducted in three consecutive weeks from the second week to the fourth week of the semester in Chabahar Maritime University. Right after each type of instruction, participants had to take a paper-and-pencil reading comprehension test. The students were given one reading passage of around 230 words, and answered 10 multiple choice questions based on the information presented in the passage. So the scores of the students ranged from 1 to 10 in the reading test, because the questions were multiple-choice and for each question there was only one correct answer. After the calculation of the scores for each comprehension test, the scores of the participants were recorded for the data analysis process.

F. Data Analysis

To compare the effectiveness of the three types of instruction, data collected from the comprehension tests were used for statistical analysis. Firstly, the mean scores of all the students on the experimental tests under three different types of instruction were examined. This was done to find out which treatment had the best results on the reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. Secondly, the mean scores of the experimental tests under three different types of instruction between two different academic levels were compared. This analysis was carried out to see if the effect of different treatments differs between the academic levels. And finally, to find out if there were significant differences between boys and girls as a result of different types of treatment, the mean scores of boys and girls under different treatments were compared. Repeated-measures Analysis of Variance was employed in all these steps, because there is no control group in this study, and students themselves act as their control group. If any significant differences were found in the results, post-hoc comparisons would be utilized to explore where exactly the differences occurred.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to get a general picture of the students' performances in the reading comprehension test after different types of instruction, the descriptive statistics of the three reading tests are displayed in Table 1. As it can be seen, the students had their best performance in the last week of the treatment, their mean is 7.50. Thus, reading a passage with the same topic, or increasing the subject matter knowledge of the students helped them more than any other treatment. The second most successful technique used in this study turned out to be collocation instruction. Therefore, knowing the difficult collocations or chunks of words chosen from the reading test can be a great helping hand for the students, although not comparable with having enough knowledge about the subject.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF READING TESTS AFTER THREE TYPES OF INSTRUCTION

Instruction Type	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Reading Comprehension Test(Nativized Text)	6.36	1.58	38
Reading Comprehension Test(Collocation Instruction)	7.18	1.48	38
Reading Comprehension Test(Similar Topic)	7.50	1.26	38

However, we cannot decide about the significance difference between the three types of treatments by just looking at the mean scores. To find out if there were any differences in students' reading comprehension as a result of three different types of instruction, a Repeated-Measures ANOVA was employed to investigate the observable variation in participants' performances, since the same students took the reading tests three times in this experiment. The results of the Repeated-Measures ANOVA are shown in Table 2. Based on these results, it can be concluded that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the students in the three reading tests as a result of different types of instruction. Therefore, it is safe to say that the different types of instruction used in this study influence the performances of the students differently. But, this table cannot show us where the differences are significant and where not.

TABLE 2:
REPEATED-MEASURES ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE THREE TYPES OF INSTRUCTION

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Instruction Type	Sphericity Assumed	25.91	2	12.95	9.841	.000□
	Greenhouse-Geisser	25.91	1.73	14.92	9.841	.000□
	Huynh-Feldt	25.91	1.81	14.28	9.841	.000□
	Lower-bound	25.91	1.00	25.91	9.841	.003□

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

To compare the different instruction types with each other and to see which instruction type is the best, a post-hoc comparison test should be run on the data. According to the results displayed in Table 3, the mean difference of 0.816 ($p < .05$) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the performances of students in the first week and the second week. It shows that collocation instruction is a more successful technique for preparing students for the reading test than using nativized texts, because it helps them understand the text better and, hence be able to answer more comprehension questions. This finding is consistent with Lien's (2003) and Hsu, T. J. (2010) studies which suggested that collocation instruction is more useful than single-item vocabulary instruction in preparing the students for the reading comprehension tests and vocabulary recall tests. Brown (1974) and Kelly (1991) also believed that knowledge of collocations helps the students a lot in language comprehension skills of reading and listening. However, these findings contrast with previous researches who suggested that when cultural elements of a short story are nativized to make the text culturally more familiar, students can make better inferences than when they read the original but culturally-remote story (Oller, 1995 & Alptekin, 2006). There are two reasons which might justify this opposition of ideas. Firstly, these scientists compared the comprehension of a nativized text with its original version, and it is quite natural that a culturally familiar text is easier to understand for students than its original version. In other words, nativizing the text might seem a good technique, but not in comparison with collocation instruction. When students know the difficult collocations of a text, they know the building blocks of that text, so reading comprehension becomes much easier to understand. The second reason is that nativizing the text might be a good help for non-English majors who do not have that much information about, or contact with the English culture. Since this study participants are all English majors, and they have a lot of contact with foreign culture and literature, nativizing the texts does not influence their comprehension very much.

Furthermore, the mean difference of 1.132 ($p < .05$) also suggests that there is a statistically significant difference between the performances of students in the first week and the third weeks. Thus, activating the background knowledge of the students; or more precisely, the subject matter knowledge of the students seems to be of great help to the students in taking the reading test. These results confirmed what has been widely acknowledged as the positive effect of background knowledge on the reading comprehension (Alderson, 2000; Alptekin, 2006; Ketchum, 2006; Oller, 1995; Pulido, 2003). It also gives credence to the claim that the cognitive load involved in reading comprehension can be lessened by activation of the background knowledge that readers bring to the text (Nassaji, 2002, and Pulido, 2004). When readers bring relevant background knowledge to the reading process, they can allocate more attentional space for textual analysis and interpretation. Peretz, A. S. and Shoham, M. (1990) also reached the conclusion that students of Humanities and Social Sciences performed much better on the reading tests including passages about their own fields than texts related to Science and Technology fields. Therefore, students of different fields are more relaxed with texts about their own major than passages taken from other fields' books.

The only difference which was not significant in this study was the difference between collocation instruction and same topic teaching. It seems that while knowing the lexical collocations of the text helps students understand the sentences better, having knowledge of the subject matter puts the students in a better mental position, and creates a more relaxed atmosphere for them. It cannot be decided whether lexical collocation instruction or subject matter knowledge is the best method of preparing students for the reading exam, because the difference between them is not significant. Nonetheless, the scores of the students are slightly higher in the third week than the second week.

TABLE 3:
POST-HOC SCHEFFE" S TEST RESULTS FOR THREE TYPES OF INSTRUCTION

					95% Confidence Interval	
Pairwise Comparisons		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nativized	Collocation	-.816*	.206	.001	-1.333	-.299
	Same Topic	-1.132*	.293	.001	-1.865	-.398
Collocation	Nativized	.816*	.206	.001	.299	1.333
	Same Topic	-.316	.283	.813	-1.024	.393
Same Topic	Nativized	1.132*	.293	.001	.398	1.865
	Collocation	.316	.283	.813	-.393	1.024

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Now that research questions 1 and 2 are answered, it is time to go to question 3 which is about the difference between freshmen and sophomores performances in reading comprehension due to different types of instruction. Again, it is necessary to use repeated-measures ANOVA to find out if freshmen and sophomores perform differently as a result of different treatments. Based on the results of Table 4, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the two academic levels on the reading comprehension tests as a result of different types of instruction. That is to say, the two groups were not influenced differently by the treatment methods. It is not surprising since they were almost at the same level of reading proficiency at the beginning of the study, as measured by the TOEFL reading test. Furthermore, this result endorses the conclusions reached by Lien (2003) and Hsu, T. J. (2010) working on the effect of direct collocation instruction on reading and vocabulary recall tests. They found no significant difference between the performances of different academic levels on the reading comprehension test and vocabulary recall tests as a result of collocation instruction, single-item vocabulary instruction, and no instruction.

TABLE 4:
REPEATED-MEASURES ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE THREE TYPES OF INSTRUCTION BETWEEN ACADEMIC LEVELS

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Instruction * Level	Sphericity Assumed	.763	2	.381	.307	.737
	Greenhouse-Geisser	.763	1.796	.425	.307	.714
	Huynh-Feldt	.763	1.996	.382	.307	.736
	Lower-bound	.763	1.000	.763	.307	.583

As regards the fourth research question, seeking the possible difference between the performances of boys and girls under different types of instruction, repeated-measures ANOVA was employed. As indicated in Table 5, there is no significant difference between boys and girls in the reading comprehension tests as a result of different types of instruction. No other study has investigated the possible difference between the performances of boys and girls as a result of different types of instruction before. However, there are so many studies investigating the differences between sexes in language proficiency tests or the interaction of sex and background knowledge on reading comprehension, all with opposing results. Hyde and Linn (1988) argued that the score gap between males and females on the verbal section of the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) was largely due to the content of the reading materials in the test. According to them, the reading passages on verbal section of the SAT have covered more technical topics (e.g., physics or chemistry), thus disadvantaging females in the performance of the test. Dolittle and Welch (1989) also found notable gender differences for items associated with specific passages, reporting that females scored higher than males with humanities-oriented reading passages, but lower than male with science-oriented passages.

TABLE 5:
REPEATED-MEASURES ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS FOR THE THREE TYPES OF INSTRUCTION BETWEEN BOYS AND GIRLS

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Instruction * Gender	Sphericity Assumed	1.973	2	.986	.793	.457
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1.973	1.796	1.098	.793	.445
	Huynh-Feldt	1.973	1.996	.989	.793	.456
	Lower-bound	1.973	1.000	1.973	.793	.379

IV. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

This study came to the conclusion that teaching lexical collocation has a positive effect on the reading ability of the students, so it is recommended that teachers and material designers adjust their curriculum to include the teaching of lexical collocations into their current practices. The new words should not be presented as single-item vocabularies. It is better to present them as collocation, at least with one or two more items. Teachers ought to familiarize their students with the concept of collocation, teach different types of collocation to them, and raise their awareness of such combinations through different exercises such as highlighting. This may imply that explicit collocation instruction is necessary to improve EFL/ESL learners' reading comprehension. This result seems to confirm previous scholars' propositions concerning the following aspects. First, vocabulary should be taught collocationally rather than individually. Knowing what other words a word will collocate with, in fact, has already been considered as an important aspect of knowing a word (Nation, 1990). Farghal and Obiedat (1995), moreover, explicitly emphasized that vocabulary should always be taught together with certain words that it can collocate with instead of single item.

The study found a significant difference between the performances of the students as a result of nativizing the text and increasing the students' knowledge of the topic in the first and third weeks. Thus, the English language Institutes and teachers are right in their decision in working on the topics which are usually covered in the reading sections. The subject matter knowledge seems to put students at ease in the reading tests, while encountering a quite new topic full of new words and technical expressions surely reduces the students' confidence in the exam, and affects their scores negatively. As discussed before, there was no significant difference between the students' performances on the reading

tests after collocation instruction and same topic. Thus, both of them can be used in TOEFL and IELTS preparation courses, and are theoretically successful enough. Practically speaking, it seems almost impossible to prepare the students for all of the reading topics, because there are so many topics covered in the reading section, and they are so varied that it takes years to finish the topics. Furthermore, the option of nativizing the texts is not logical and more importantly quite impossible, we cannot have an Iranian version of TOEFL or IELTS, the best option is to familiarize the students with the core and basic vocabulary of the texts. It is right that students cannot be taught all the possible topics of the reading section, there are some certain academic words and expressions which are common among most texts.

To improve the learners' knowledge of collocations, teachers can start from their instruction. Teachers can adjust their curriculum to accommodate the teaching of collocations into their current practices. English learners should be made aware of their insufficient collocational knowledge, and the importance of collocational knowledge in language comprehension and production. They need to make an effort to build up their collocation size to improve their collocational knowledge. However, this daunting task cannot be accomplished by students alone; they need to be supported by teachers and material designers. Textbook designers should emphasize and highlight collocations in textbooks. Syllabus designers might benefit from the results of this study by bringing collocation into focus and arranging the collocations students need in a meaningful way and presenting them topically.

The study suffers from a number of limitations. Very few participants were involved in this study. More importantly, the fact that they were not randomly selected is another limitation. The small number and homogenous background of the subjects may make it difficult to generalize to all the college EFL learners. Future studies of the same kind are expected to recruit more participants and provide a more thorough understanding about the Iranian learners' knowledge of lexical collocations and its effect on other skills. Another limitation of this study is the scope of collocations. The research data was restricted to lexical collocations and did not include grammatical collocations. If both lexical and grammatical collocations are examined, a deeper understanding of the students' use of collocations and its relation to their writing and speaking fluency may be provided. Last, but not the least important, limitation of the study was the length of the treatment. The treatments of this study did not last for a long time; it was, as a matter of fact, limited to 30-minute blocks in each session. Due to the consideration of the original syllabus for the course, it was impossible to implement the research for a long time.

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Teaching Multiliteracies: A Research Based on Multimodality in a PPT Presentation

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Abstract—This paper aims to focus on a research about college students' awareness and level of multiliteracies. The participants in the study are non-English major sophomore undergraduates. They made 267 slides in a 34 PPT presentation works for their assignments. The research shows college students' weak performance in multiliteracies. Thus we have suggested some methods to improve college students' multiliteracies and discussed the instructions the concept of multiliteracies has brought about for college English teachers and learners.

Index Terms—multimodality, multiliteracies, PPT

I. INTRODUCTION

With the rapid development of science and technology people's ways of communication have changed greatly. According to Kress (2003, p.9-11) four momentous changes are taking place simultaneously which are revolutionizing the landscape of public communication. They are social, economic, communicational and technological changes. In our daily lives we use language, script, picture, images, color, music, sound and some other non-verbal semiotic resources as ways of communication to show what meanings we want to transfer. Compared with enough research in language, people still lack systematical thought on the meaning making of different semiotic resources except for language. Hence in the 1990s researchers in social semiotic circles started to focus on the study of multimodality in such social environment. For example, in an advertisement we may see that the semiotic mode of language and the mode of color are combined together; on the screen script may appear with the modes of music, of color, and of moving image. All these mean that all modes bear meaning and therefore are parts of a message. So in such multimodal situation the increasing use of new modes and the new use of old modes in public communication are forcing a reassessment of what literacy is.

II. MULTIMODALITY AND MULTILITERACIES

Multimodality is a term which is aroused wide concern by linguists and semioticians in recent years in western countries. Van Leeuwen (2005, p.281) holds that Multimodality means the combination of different semiotic modes—for example, language and music—in a communicative artifact or event. Other important representatives, Baldry and Thibault (2006, p.21), added that Multimodality refers to the diverse ways in which a number of distinct semiotic resource systems are both co-deployed and co-contextualized in the making of a text-specific meaning. From the definitions we can see that multimodality is the study of interrelationships and interdependence between different communicative modes, no matter whether they are written or oral, visual or auditory. It is also a way to transcribe the meaning of discourses composed of different semiotic modes. Multimodality does not designate a pre-given entity or text-type. Rather, it is a diversity of meaning making activities that are undergoing rapid change in the current cultural surroundings. What's more, the concept of multimodality is a useful yardstick for measuring and assessing the diversity of ways of meaning making.

For multiliteracies, Cope and Kalantzis (2000, p.5-9) have made a detailed explanation about them. Traditionally literacy pedagogy has meant teaching and learning to read and write in page-bound, official, standard forms of the national language, or in other words, formalized, mono-lingual, mono-cultural, and rule-governed forms of language. But now literacy teaching and learning include a great variety of discourses due to the rapidly social, economic, communicational and technological changes in the contemporary cultural context. So the current literacy has to explain the increasing variety of text forms associated with information and multimedia technologies such as visual images and their relationship to the written word. Under such circumstances the word "multiliteracies" was agreed upon. It was proposed by the New London Group in a conference for discussion about the future of literacy teaching and learning in 1994. The New London Group, a group of linguists including Norman Fairclough, James Gee, Gunther Kress, etc., says the word "multiliteracies" describes two important dimensions: one is the great variety of communication channels and media; the other is the increasing salience of cultural and linguistic diversity. For the first statement, it means meaning is made in ways that are increasingly multimodal, such as, on the web pages, script modes of meaning are combined with audio, video, and spatial modes to make meaning. When new technologies are developing so quickly, we need to

think about the new ways of meaning making. But to find out ways of meaning making requires a new multimodal literacy. For the second statement, it means with the globalization and wide impact in cross-cultural communication, English is breaking into multiple and increasingly differentiated English marked by accent, national origin, and sub-cultural style and so on, for example, Australian English, New Zealand English, Indian English or even Chinese English.

After the pilot origination of the New London Group, the concept of multiliteracies has aroused a widespread academic interest. For instance, Anderson, Johnson, Joy and Minranda have studied multiliteracies and its relationship with cooperative learning. They have suggested many different levels of multiliteracies. Spiliotopoulus has also studied adults' online learning and holds that online interaction can help students improve their writing and critical thinking skill and thus develop students' cross-cultural awareness. In China some enthusiasts have started their research about multiliteracies. Hu Zhuanglin and Dong Jia (2006) have done a multimodal discourse analysis on the students' PPT presentation of Renmin University of China on the Australia Culture Festival. Zhu Yongsheng (2008) has analyzed an example in multiliteracies in a western country and its enlightenment for foreign language teaching reform in China. Wang Huiping (2010) showed us a multiliteracies practice in an English reading class and suggested making full use of the multimodal resources beyond written texts. Hu Zhuanglin (2007a) has made a theoretical account of the concept of multiliteracies and believed that the mono-modal literacy focused on reading and writing is far from enough in the multimedia setting. We should not only develop learners' traditional literacy, but practice and improve their multiliteracies. He found that the concept of multiliteracies carries two levels of meanings: one is the awareness of multiliteracies; the other is the ability of multiliteracies which includes cultural literacy and technological literacy. As for technological literacy, he argues that it is a kind of multimodal literacy which means learners are able to study, work and represent in the current information environment.

III. A PRACTICAL RESEARCH

Hu Zhuanglin and Dong Jia (2006, p.8) hold that one of the ways to test people's awareness and level of multiliteracies is to see whether they are familiar with the new types of multimodal electronic technology. Based on this opinion, we have taken college students' PPT presentation as data to analyze college students' awareness and level of multiliteracies. In order to do this study, we give students PPT presentation assignment. The title is How to Prepare for Going to University, which is based on Unit 1, Book 3, *New Standard College English Real Communication Listening and Speaking*. The publishing house of the book is Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press in Beijing. The task is, for each group (10 to 12 students), they should finish one PPT by answering following questions:

·What's the best way you prepare academically before going to study at university?

How is the social side of university life different from school life?

·How do you prepare for the "culture shock" of going to university?

What challenges do students face when starting university?

How can you overcome these challenges?

There are altogether 34 students' PPT presentation works from the three classes we teach. All students are non-English major sophomore undergraduates in a college in Dezhou, Shandong Province. Class l major in nursing, Class 2 textile engineering and environmental engineering, Class 3 accounting. There are 267 slides in the 34 PPT presentation works. The longest piece of work is the one from Class 2 which includes 17 slides. The shortest one is from Class 3 and has only 5 slides. The average length of all PPT presentation works is about 8 slides.

According to Hu Zhuanglin (2007b, p.4-5) there are four types of genre in PPT discourse. They are prompting genre, visualizing genre, analyzing genre and persuading genre. For the genre of prompting type, Hu Zhuanglin explains that it is a kind of bullet point which helps PPT presenters to organize their thoughts. For instance, Fig. 1 shown below is a typical example from Class l. There are 4 bullet points which clearly show the presenter's ideas.

Figure 1. Prompting genre

The characteristic of visualizing genre is to present the idea by means of pictures. Fig. 2 below from Class 3 shows the scene that a student is studying on campus, which clearly tells us what we should do for going to university.

Figure 2. Visualizing genre

The third one is analyzing genre. The characteristic of which is to use tables or graphs to analyze meaning. Fig. 3 from Class 3 shows such type of genre.

Figure 3. Analyzing genre

For the last type of genre, it is through color, cartoon and music that make spectators know the meaning of the PPT work and realize the presenters' purpose of persuading. Fig. 4 from Class 2 is a good example.

Figure 4. Persuading genre

Hu Zhuanglin (2007b, p.5) argues that there are mainly two types of mode in PPT discourse: audio mode and visual mode. The former includes music or sound; the latter includes bullet points, images, graphs and color. In total PPT works, almost all groups have used visual mode, but only five ones have used audio mode. For audio mode, 2 groups choose foreign pop songs (one on the first page and another on the last page), 2 groups light music (always on the first page) and 1 group the sounds of hands-clapping (on the last page).

There are generally three types of visual mode. The first one is verbal mode. For instance, there is one slide from Class 3 in which the group mainly uses verbal mode to explain that students should make a balance between study and community activities. See Fig. 5 below.
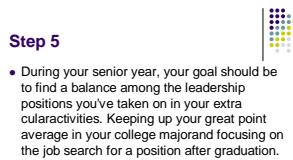
Figure 5. Verbal mode

The second one is the combination of the mode of image and the mode of language. We can take the slide of Fig. 6 for example. It shows that youngsters call their parents in a telephone booth or in a cybercafé. See Fig. 6 below.

Figure 6. A combination of language and image modes

The third one is the mode of image. Some students prefer to use image to express meaning. For example, one slide from Class 2 uses the image to explain that parents make great efforts to send their child to go to university. See Fig. 7 below.

Figure 7. Image mode

IV.   FEATURES OF PPT PRESENTATION

First, the wide use of persuading genre and visualizing genre is one of the features of students' PPT presentation. Among the 267 slides in students' PPT presentation works, there are 136 that are persuading genres, which account for 51% of the total slides; there are 114 that are visualizing genres, which account for 43% of the total slides. Only 17 pieces of them are prompting and analyzing genres, which account for 6% of the total.

Then, the modes of language and image are students' major modes of communication. From all the PPT slides the students made we can see that the mode of language is students' first chosen mode of communication. But instead of using "some subordinate clauses" (Hu Zhuanglin & Dong Jia 2006, p.8), the students use many paragraphs to express meaning. Besides, the mode of image is also very much favored by the students. So we can say that the mode of language and mode of image are students' two main and most favorable modes to express meaning of communication in their PPT presentation.

Next, the students lack clear awareness of making reasonable use of other semiotic modes other than language and image. In order to attract audience's attention, the mode of color is also often used to express meaning. But students are very arbitrary use of color because we have found that their use of color is not highly relevant to their meaning making and even sometimes it causes ambiguity. Besides, the students don't make full use of other semiotic resources such as typeface, lining, framing, etc.

At last, the limited source of information is also a characteristic of the students' PPT presentation. Because the topic of the task is concerned with campus life, a lot of groups select the same series of pictures of our college. And we have also found that there is much repetition of contents in students' PPT presentation. So we can say that college students' awareness and level of multiliteracies need to be improved.

V.   SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING MULTILITERACIES

At the beginning, technological guidance is the most important thing for learners. One of the key points of multiliteracies is technological literacy, that is to say, multimodal literacy. So we can take information technology, such as the making of PPT and some other practical computer knowledge, into learners' study of compulsory courses to try to improve their skills.

Then lecture is another effective way to raise learners' multiliteracies. We can give lectures about culture and language to let students recognize the changes in public communication. Meanwhile, we should notice that all semiotic resources can be used to make meaning in current culturally diverse social context other than language and script, because various modes have different potentials and limitations.

In the end, training is always the best method for learners to practice their literacy. At the same time, teachers should try to give students such kind of assignment regularly so that they will be familiar with the technique of multimodal meaning making and presenting. By this way learners' awareness and level of multiliteracies can be perfected.

VI.   INSTRUCTIONS TO TEACHERS AND LEARNERS

Since the concept of multiliteracies is so important in contemporary communication context, as teachers, we have responsibility to consider the connotation suggested by the idea of multiliteracies. We think the notion of multiliteracies will bring about a lot of instructions to English teachers and learners.

On one hand, the important task of education is to ensure that all students benefit from learning so that they can fully take part in public community and economic life. And literacy education is expected to play a very important role in fulfilling this mission. So as English teachers, we must think over how to make sure the educational success with the increasing variety of language, culture, and technology. In other words, what should be taught for literacy in the future in the contemporary diverse cultural situation? The answer is absolutely certain till now, but probably we can get a little hint from one word—design, a concept created by the New London Group for the "what" of literacy pedagogy in the future. In this way we can not only improve students' literacy for reading and writing, but also teach students' multiliteracies for reading audio, visual, spatial, gestural and multimodal designs. We definitely believe that a multimodal educational tendency will be beneficial for all learners.

As learners, we have to be exposed ourselves to the new changes and to actively participate in the new social practices. In our daily lives, we can see whether in newspapers, magazines or web pages most texts are multimodal ones which involve complex interaction with written text, images and other graphic or sound modes. But the skill of producing multimodal texts of this kind will not be taught in schools or colleges. If we neglect the development of this new communication ability or "new literacy", a new generation of being illiterate will be produced. Moreover we will not be able to express meaning effectively without the awareness of multiliteracies. So only when we have grasped mulitiliteracies can we do our job much better and live a more healthy life efficiently.

VII. Conclusion

By now we can say that our students tend to use persuading genre and visualizing genre instead of other types of genre to make meaning in their PPT presentation. Moreover, the mode of language and the mode of image are their favorite modes of communication. But the use of sound, color and other semiotic resources are very arbitrary so that no obvious coherent effects can be made. Meanwhile, the learners' sources for knowledge are very limited. All of these reveal that they are not familiar with multimodal literacy; therefore they can not make best and full use of technological means to create meaning. The concept of multiliteracies is still in its early stages. And the study we have finished is also very simple. But the idea of mutiliteracies is a beginning of a new way of thinking and there is much research about multiliteracies which are worth doing for us. The purpose for teaching multiliteracies is to try to make learners develop an ability of using visual semiotics to express meanings in business or academic communication and make them become successful meaning makers in the current cross-cultural situation.

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The Yutong Bus: Representations of a New Ghanaian Political Metaphor

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Abstract—**Over last decade, the Ghanaian political discourse has been characterized by insults. This has been of major concern to media commentators, civil society, and other stakeholders in governance in Ghana. One fundamental key in Ghana's political discourse has been the use of metaphor. Using Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) theory of metaphor, the study examines a bus metaphor in recent Ghanaian political speeches. The analysis of the metaphor reveals that the use of metaphors can minimize direct vilification in Ghanaian political communication. The analysis also demonstrates that features of conceptual sources can be manipulated by politicians to achieve positive rhetorical ends. Furthermore, the study supports the fact that positive or negative associations of source domain over a period of time can become a natural part of any given source domain The study has implication(s) for the relationship between political language and human cognition.**

Index Terms—**metaphor, politics, Ghana, source domain, target domain and radio**

I. INTRODUCTION

The use of metaphors in Ghanaian political discourse is currently gaining some level of prominence. Notable among them are the "tenant and the landlord metaphor" of the former president of Ghana, Flt. Lt. Jerry John Rawlings, during the June 4th celebration, 2011 (TV3, 2011). There is also the Football Coach metaphor which was captured on the political morning show discussion of Adom FM[1] (Adom FM, 2011). This has continued for a while. Nana Konadu Agyemang Rawlings[2] (Modern Ghana, 2011) launched her campaign as a presidential candidate of the ruling government party, The National Democratic Congress (NDC). She contested for the presidential candidacy of the ruling party, against the sitting president, Professor John Evans Atta-Mills, for the flag bearer in the 2012 general elections in 2012. During the launching of her campaign, the campaign Chairman, Teye Nyaunu, in his address referred to the sitting president as a driver of a Yutong bus[3] who was not driving the bus well and needed to give way to another driver since there is the danger of the bus veering off the road. On the following day, 5th of May, 2011, the sitting president after picking his nomination forms also organized a mini political rally which was well attended by party supporters and sympathizers. At this rally, the sitting vice president, John Mahama[4], took time to rebut the reference of the president as "a bad driver" by using the same metaphor of "the driver" and "the bus" to defend the president. After these two important programmes, what has followed has been a huge political discussion of the "Yutong bus driver metaphor" by media analysts and political commentators in Ghana. This paper therefore attempts to examine the Yutong bus as a positive rhetorical metaphor in the context of heated political dialogue within the NDC and Ghana as a whole.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This study is based on the cognitive approach pioneered by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) (see also Lakoff 1987, 1993; Lakoff and Turner, 1989) which claims that our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature. According to Lakoff, metaphor fundamentally concerns itself with both language and thought, especially, the patterning of everyday metaphorical expressions in language. This, for example, can be seen in LOVE IS A JOURNEY where we can have "we have to part ways", "we have come to the end of the world", "we are at a crossroads"; these are some of the ways human beings conceived the world.

The conceptual metaphor theory looks at two domains in metaphorical mapping that is, the source and the target (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). The conceptual mapping between the two domains is unidirectional as against blend theory (Grady et al, 1999) which claims bi-directionality of the metaphorical mapping. There is clear distinction between conceptual metaphorical expressions and linguistic metaphorical expressions (Semino, 2002) which are referred to as conventional and novel metaphors (Grady et al, 1999). It is important to note that Cognitive Scientists (Semino, 2002) have revealed two important aspects of metaphor which had previously not been given any serious prominence: that metaphor usage dominates all forms of discourse; secondly, metaphor is both a linguistic and a conceptual tool. Many arguments have been

made against conceptual metaphor theory's inability to fully account for novel metaphors (Grady et al, 1999). However, conceptual metaphor theory can account greatly for conventional metaphor which is the focus of this present study.

III. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The main data on which this study is based is the recordings of proceedings of the campaign launching of Mrs. Rawlings and the mini rally programme which took place after president Mills picked his nomination forms for the NDC's flag bearer for the 2012 general elections. These two programmes were covered live by Joy FM[5] between the 4th and 5th of May 2011. In addition, secondary data were collected through prime time news and political talk show programs on Joy FM and Peace FM[6]. This was done between the periods of the campaign launchings of the two major political parties, the National Democratic Congress (NDC) and the New Patriotic Party (NPP). The Joy FM and Peace FM were chosen as a source of the data because they both covered the two launchings live on their air waves. Secondly, they broadcast their major programmes through their affiliate FM stations all over the country. This situation provides a unique opportunity for Ghanaian citizens both home and abroad to contribute to political discussions and news either through call- ins or by the sending of SMS messages. The recordings were transcribed and analyzed in detail for metaphorical expressions which constitute the "core" corpus of my study. This core corpus is what I refer to when I talk about "the data" in the rest of this paper. I intend to delve deep into the Yutong bus metaphor in the two speeches to reveal its metaphorical implications within the political discourse in Ghana. All those expressions that can be analyzed in terms of a mapping between two separate domains (Steen, 1999) were selected as part of the metaphorical expressions.

A. Do Metaphors Go by Any System of Interpretation?

We take a look at the literature on metaphor to put the study into perspective. We examine works on metaphor interpretations and metaphorical mappings.

The interpretation of metaphors is very important in every communication activity. Since politics thrives on communication, it is imperative for politicians to communicate clearly to the populace in order for their message to be understood. In doing, so metaphor becomes one of the crucial tools available to politicians as they make an effort to persuade their audience (Opoku Mensah, 2011). Every given message has an audience. Since an audience has the responsibility to decode the content of a message, it is essential for them to be able to understand figurative language such as metaphors in a given message. The question is, is metaphor interpretation rule governed or not? While many scholars (Margalit, 1972) hold the view that metaphors should be rule governed, Cohen (1975) argues against this assertion:

Given a sentence that is known to be a metaphor, along with the literal meaning of the sentence and components, I think there is no canonical way of arriving at the metaphorical meaning. The metaphorical meaning is somehow constructed out of literal meaning, but not according to any function. Irony, for example, typically incorporates a function that leads from a given meaning to its reverse or opposite. It is not like this metaphor. Whatever it is that a metaphor means, it is not in general true that this meaning can be calculated functionally from the literal meaning of the metaphorical sentence…, although it arises from the literal meaning, it somehow seems to do so spontaneously, and not according to any recognised rule (p. 670).

In a sense Cohen's position demonstrates that there is no rule that governs the interpretation of metaphor. In other words, there is no functional rule that gives us the metaphorical interpretation of a sentence from its literal interpretation, even though the metaphorical interpretation "arises from" the literal one. This indicates that understanding metaphors may not need any technical mind set and therefore is open to the non-technical audience. Cohen concludes that metaphorical interpretation apparently arises from a literal one by virtue of a 'creative mental act'. Davidson (1978) supports this view and concludes that understanding metaphors is a creative endeavor which is little guided by rules.

By contrast, L. Jonathan Cohen and Avishai Margalit (1972) have reasoned as follows.

What is essential to recognise is that the novelty of a metaphor in speech no more constitutes it an innovation in the language than the fact that a sentence has never been uttered before constitutes its utterance a product of syntactic change (471).

In fact, metaphorical ideas could come up spontaneously, and not arbitrarily. The arbitrariness in interpreting metaphors within a given context is further elucidated by Binkley (1974) when he says:

Although the boundaries are not sharp, we all know pretty much what it means to call a person a fox and how one would go about determining whether that assertion is true or false. The claim is no more vague and ill-define, no less connected with definite criteria, than "Richard is a good husband" or "Richard is a scoundrel". What indeterminateness there is in the claim is not something peculiar or endemic to metaphor (p. 174).

Truly, if we say that the interpretation of metaphors is arbitrary then an argument can arise when different people within a single context provide different meanings of that metaphorical utterance which can result in disputes. For Beardsley (1962), disputes about metaphorical interpretations are in principle resolvable. In effect, though metaphorical interpretation is not rule- governed, it may not necessarily lead to confusion in its interpretations.

Furthermore, Searle (1978, p. 207) argues that "…in general the notion of the literal meaning of a sentence only has application relative to a set of contextual or background assumptions…". Therefore context is very crucial in the interpretation of the Yutong bus and all other metaphors, without which communication cannot be complete in its true sense. This position is supported a step further by Bergmann (1979) who claims that it is only the ideal context that can provide a suitable condition for the interpretation of a metaphor. He indicates:

…not all contexts are ideal contexts in my sense. Perhaps there are very few ideal contexts in actual communicative situations. It is this fact, above all, that gives metaphor its special flavor. For without an ideal context, there are no strict rules for interpretation of metaphors. When we attach specific interpretations to metaphorical expressions, we do something like filling out the ideal context. That is, if in some circumstance there are no special indicators for preferring one way of interpreting a metaphorical expression over a number of others, we may still make a decision as to how the interpretation should be carried out…or we may choose to give the expression a programmatic interpretation saying that no indicative claim is being made but a lot is suggested (p. 228).

These arguments are very important to the present study. So far, it seems the case that in one's attempt to find the metaphorical truths of the Yutong bus metaphor one cannot ignore context which is at the centre for the understanding and interpretation of the metaphor in question.

B. What is the Nature of Metaphorical Mapping?

Understanding the nature of metaphorical mapping has been the underlying factor in landmark research in metaphorical studies. The revolution of Black's (1962) "implicative complex" cannot be underestimated. Black posits that the two domains clearly interact with each other. On the other hand, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) argue for a uni-directional position between the source and target domains. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), conceptual metaphor is when we understand one thing (source) in terms of another (target). For them, uni-directional mapping is from source domain to target domain and not the other way round. Kovecses (2002) states that:

When we talk and think about life in terms of journeys, about arguments in terms of war, about love in terms of journeys, about theories in terms of plants…

To Kovecses, this is what is meant by conceptual metaphor. Beyond uni-directionality is bi- directionality.

Arguments underlying metaphorical mappings and domains have engaged the attention of major metaphor theorists. Semino (2002) in her work explains the metaphors which were used to describe the euro in both Italian and British newspapers. Focusing on the euro as a target domain, Semino tries to prove the similarities in the conceptual metaphorical systems which underlie both British and Italian newspapers. Though there are similarities, the work reveals that some metaphors from both the British and Italians newspapers reveal the different positions of the two countries regarding the adoption of the euro as a single currency. In conclusion, the work shows that the most frequent metaphorical patterns in each language draw from source domains which are not specific to the euro target domain but are applied to a wide range of other target domains.

C. The Nature of Metaphorical Mapping

Metaphorical mapping has been a major concern to critics since it gives direction to conceptualization of the metaphorical process. So what is the nature of metaphorical mapping? Several works over the period (Richards, 1936; Lakoff and Johnson, 1980; Hausman, 1986; Kelly and Keil, 1986; Black, 1979) have supported the two domain structure of the metaphor. The two domains have been given several references. But the terms used by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) is what will be used in this study. They talk about *source* and *target*. The source is the domain from which concepts originate and the target is the domain to which concepts are mapped. The metaphorical mapping is between the source and target concepts and the mapping is uni-directional (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) that is, from source to target but not vice versa. The uni- directional position of Lakoff and Johnson (1980) has been opposed by other leading exponents of the subject (Black, 1979; Croft and Cruse, 2004; Fauconnier and Turner, 1994). The source domain is conceptualized as being more closely related to physical experience (Grady, 1997). It is important to indicate that the metaphorical mapping can be one – to – one, one –to-many, many –to one and many to many (2004). This study will focus on the one-to-one (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) and one-to-many domain mappings (Kovecses, 2002; Morgan and Bales, 2002).

In the one-to-one domain relationship a single source domain is mapped unto a single target domain. On the other hand, the one-to-many domain relationship, a single source domain is mapped unto many target domains.

D. The History of Yutong Bus in Ghana

As part of the NDC government's effort in augmenting inter city transportation in Ghana, the government in collaboration with Stanbic Bank imported 490 Yutong buses for the use of The Ghana Private Road and Transport Union (GPRTU). The buses were formally launched on 9th August 2010 by the Vice President, John Mahama, at La, in Accra (www.ghanaweb.com). According to the story, this was in fulfilling the government's effort "to make the transportation sector viable, smooth and devoid of road accidents" (www.ghanaweb.com). The Yutong bus at this moment in Ghana's

transportation, was gradually gaining patronage and popularity until 11th October 2011, an armed robbery attack on a Yutong bus which was bound for Bolgatanga in the Upper West region of Ghana. The story alleges that the armed robbers ordered a mass rape among male and female passengers. The story further quotes that:

Amina Mohammed, 24, a mother of three, reported how armed robbers attacked their Bolgatanga bound Yutong bus and in the process the robbers ordered a mass rape of female occupants; male passengers were forced to have sex with their female counterparts.

Perhaps the gut-churning aspect of the tale for most Ghanaians, was the part that the robbers allegedly forced a father who was on the bus to sleep with his I4-year-old daughter, deflowering her in the process (www.ghanamma.com/2011/02/25).

This armed robbery incident on the Yutong bus attracted a lot of media and social debates all over the country. Not long after this supposedly bizarre incident, www.modernghana.com reports Daily Guide which carries a story entitled *'Amina Bus' in another Accident.* The story reads:

A Yutong bus and an Opel Vectra saloon car were last Saturday involved in an accident at Bechem, Brong Ahafo Region, with over 40 passengers sustaining various degrees of injury.

In yet, another *story*, www.ghanaweb.com on 11th January 2011 carries a report by Peaceonline of an accident involving two Yutong buses entitled: *Two Yutong Buses Crash, Killing 20.* The story reads:

Information reaching Peacefmonline.com indicates that two Yutong buses crashed in a head-on collision this dawn leading to the tragic death of about 20 people.

At this moment, the reports of gruesome activities involving the Yutong buses would have naturally created negative attachment with any image of the Yutong bus, especially at a time when no positive story involving the bus was captured to ameliorate the already mounting negative associations which have now been deeply associated with the bus. It is in the light of these negative Ghanaian media reports involving the Yutong bus that the 'Yutong bus metaphor' becomes of a major rhetoric concern within recent political developments largely within the ruling NDC Party and the entire Ghanaian political discourse

E. The Driver and the Yutong Bus

The Yutong bus metaphor presents a group of people who are travelling on a Yutong bus. Along the journey some passengers realize the driver is not driving too well and that there is the high possibility of the bus veering of the road into a ditch. According to Teye Nyaunu, while some of the passengers on the bus are sleeping, others are wide awake but are afraid to warn the driver of his reckless driving. The story concludes that the bus driver should be changed in order to save the lives of the passengers on board the vehicle. This metaphor presents several scenarios for discussion. I will present Nyaunu's metaphor in a simple tabular form.

TABLE 1:
TEYE NYAUNU'S METAPHOR

Source	Target
Yutong bus	NDC party/government
Driver	the president
Passengers	party members
Bad driving	poor leadership
Journey	four-year term
Angry passengers	people critical of government policies

The above table (1), indicates a direct one-to- one mapping from source to target. The Yutong bus maps unto the domain of government and the bad driver maps unto the president. The story indicates that the "bus is good but it is the driver that is bad". We may be tempted not to believe that statement. This position may arise because of the numerous accidents recorded by the Yutong bus in Ghana, not forgetting the infamous rape incident. Therefore the negative conceptual frames which have quickly become associated with the Yutong bus naturally rubs unto *the president,* that is, if there is a direct mapping between *the driver* and *the president*. This position is further reinforced by the image of the bad driver (the president) which constantly gets the bus involved in numerous road accidents. At this point, the picture of a bad leader who is mismanaging government business is brought to the fore.

Also, we can take a look at *the passengers* (NDC party members) on board the bus some of whom are sleeping while others are awake. Sleeping passengers onboard the bus maps directly unto "politically unconcerned party members" while passengers who are awake on the bus maps unto "politically conscious party members." The *journey* represents the four-year term and the *bad driving* corresponds to poor governance style. The entire mapping is uni-directional. This physical experience of a journey on a bus enables us to understand the abstraction of the president's governance style and how citizens respond to it (Grady, 1997). The simplicity of the mapping may perhaps, allow readers to appreciate the message carried by the metaphor (Cohen, 1975).

Secondly, because of the context of the metaphorical utterance which was given enough space on radio discussion, listeners without doubt, understood the metaphor without having to question for example who the bus driver was (Searle, 1978). This is evidenced by the numerous text messages which were read on the two radio networks which provided coverage of the campaign program on their air waves. This reinforces the relevance of context in audience understanding of any given metaphorical utterance.
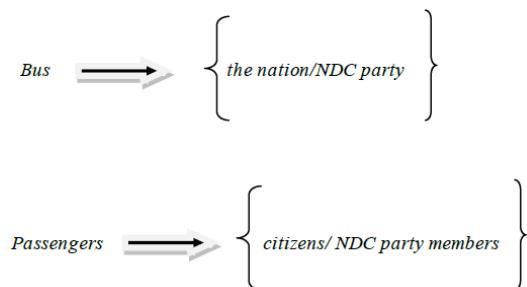
F. Passengers should Encourage the Driver

A day after the first speech of the Yutong bus was made, the Vice President of Ghana at a ceremony rebuts the message of the Yutong bus. Interestingly, he does this using the same metaphor as a tool for his rhetorical argument. This can be roughly reduced to a mapping table like this:

TABLE 2:
JOHN MAHAMA'S METAPHOR

Source	Target
Driver	president
Bus	the nation/ NDC party
Passengers	Ghanaian citizens/ NDC party members
Calm-tempered passengers	citizens/party members supportive of government policies
Journey	national governance life
Car's engine capacity	the capacity of the nation's economy

Table 2 maintains some conceptual mappings in Table 1 but present some differences. The conceptual domain *driver* still maps unto the target domain which is *the president*. The *Yutong bus* roughly maps unto the target domains *the nation* and *NDC party members*. The *passengers* maps unto *citizens* and *NDC part members*. The source domains *bus* and *passengers* have one – to - two mappings.

The one-to-two mapping of the two source domains (*bus* and *passengers*) has implication for the understanding of the speaker's message. In the original metaphor, the concepts *bus* and *passengers* mapped unto single target domains. The additional target domains by the speaker demonstrate rhetorically that the mandate of the president is beyond the control of the NDC party since it is a constitutional mandate of the people of Ghanaian people irrespective of their political inclination. As a result, the NDC party and its members cannot take that sole decision to change him as the president of the republic of Ghana.

This is supported by the speaker's introductory remarks:

If Ghana were a bus… we have had many drivers of that bus in the past.

In addition, the speaker consciously violates the features of the conceptual source domain which is the *passengers*. This brings out two main issues. First, it is not the normal situation for passengers on a travelling bus to be prompting the driver about potholes and stationary vehicles ahead.

… what we have done in the past is to watch out for potholes so that the driver won't fall in, what we have done in the past is to watch out for stationary vehicles so that the bus will not crash into a stationary vehicle. What we have done in the past is that even when the driver is sleeping we offer him coffee so that he will stay awake.

In the above statement, it however seems that when a driver is not driving well, passengers, for the fear of a fatal accident, will criticize the driver and possibly think about the possibility of drawing the attention of authorities to relieve the driver of his (in this situation the president of Ghana) duties. This results in a change of the features of the source domain (passengers), so that instead of party members being critical of the driver's work, they would rather want to encourage him. This rhetorical maneuvering by the speaker presents the target domains (citizens/ party members) naturally incompatible with the features of the source domain, *passengers*.

Secondly, since the president (driver) can only be legitimately removed from office government at the end of its four-year term (journey), the only way to handle the situation is for citizens (passengers) to tolerate the president (driver)

through the rest of his four year-term (journey). In other words, an incompetent driver of a bus cannot be changed in the middle of the journey when there is no alternative driver on the bus. It can possibly happen when the bus reaches its final destination which will be at the end of the four – year term. This argument provides a justification for supporting the sitting president (driver). That is, citizens (passengers) have no choice as long as the *journey* of the four-year term has not come to an end. Therefore, it will be only appropriate to support the president (driver) by supporting his policies to work (providing coffee and so on) in order for him to end his four-year term (journey) successfully (safely).

G. Extensions of the Yutong Bus Metaphor

Following the two main speeches of Teye Nyaunu, the campaign manager, and John Mahama, the vice president, which carried the Yutong bus metaphor, subsequent radio and television programmes revealed different references of the same metaphors as other social and political issues were brought up for discussion. A few of such relevant examples will be discussed below.

The sitting president of the Ghana Football Association (GFA) was nominated by the government to contest for a continental position on the Federation for African Football (CAF). Shortly after this was done, the government came out to endorse a new person for the same position and decided to rescind its initial proposition concerning the first nominee. A panelist on News File[7] (14th May 2011), in response to the equivocation of government on the above issue indicated that:

if you are a driver of the Yutong bus and you signal left but turn right, it may lead to an accident on the road.

The speaker in the above metaphor continues the metaphor of "the bad driver". Here he invokes the image of the inexperienced driver whose signals other road users in a particular direction but does otherwise thereby causing commotion. This is a sign of incompetence as a driver and a mapping of this concept will refer to a bad government. This demonstrates that people can create novel metaphors and it can be done spontaneously in the course of conversation. It may not necessarily be the case that the speaker of the above utterance had well calculated the metaphoreven before the topic was brought up for discussion.

On a popular political talk show programme Krokokoo[8] (Kokrokoo, May 20th 2011), an sms message sent as a contribution to the programme highlights the competence of the sitting president by saying:

When Rawlings was driving the OSA bus, Atta Mills was the 'mate'. Now Atta Mills is driving the Yutong bus which is automatic, therefore he can drive the vehicle better.

In this statement, the writer employs the bus metaphor by tracing the experience of the driver as a mate[9] (driver's assistant) which maps onto the office of the vice president. The "driver" maps unto the President. Since the sitting president was once a vice president, he has gathered enough experience to manage his administration as a driver (president). Interestingly, according to the content of the message, the sitting president was an assistant on an OSA bus[10] but he is now a driver on a Yutong bus which has an automatic transmission. The comparison of the manual OSA bus and the automatic transmission Yutong bus is striking. The message suggests that the automatic transmission is effective than a manual transmission system in vehicles. It should be noted that the new Yutong bus, perhaps, may have an improved technology and efficiency than the old OSA buses. The message therefore implies that the sitting president with his current administration machinery (automatic Yutong bus) may have become more competent in view of his long period of apprenticeship (mate). The extension of the Yutong bus metaphor in this sense seems novel.

In another development, a radio programme (Adom, 2011) discusses how some NDC party members have become disgruntled as a result of not getting political appointments in the current government. An NDC panelist on the program indicates that:

...the Yutong bus is en route to Cape Coast but it will make several stops on the way, some will get on board and off boad at different stops. So until the bus gets to its final destination, part members should not be worried.

This statement also brings out an entirely different dimension of the bus metaphor. It can be mapped graphically as this:

TABLE 3:

Source	Target
Driver	president
Bus	the government
Passengers	government appointees
Journey	four-year term

The speaker exploits the way by which the public transport system works for the purpose of his sending his message across. Unlike the previous mapping of *passengers* unto *NDC party members/ Ghanaian citizens, passengers* now maps unto the target domain *government appointees.* Therefore, just like passengers get on and off the bus along the bus' route, the speaker encourages the NDC party members who have yet not had any political appointed that they will get their opportunity at the right time.

IV. Conclusion

The Yutong bus metaphor is a novelty in recent Ghanaian political discourse. Though Ghana's democracy is gradually gaining roots, it has been characterized by serious vituperations in the media. This negative picture of Ghanaian political discourse has been a major source of worry to all and sundry. This has attracted criticisms from politicians and civil society including personalities like the sitting president of Ghana, John Evans Atta Mills (2010), the clergy (Otabil, 2011) and the Asante King, Otumfuo Osei Tutu (2011).

With this rising concern, the recent use of the Yutong bus as a metaphor in engaging a serious political subject within and outside the ruling NDC party is a positive sign in the body politics of Ghana. In other words, the bus metaphor clearly brings to the fore the unique roles metaphor can play in any given rhetorical discourse (Opoku Mensah, 2011). Indeed, the use of metaphors in political discourse will enhance the beauty and understanding of political messages. In effect, this paper has shown that politicians in Ghana and elsewhere can employ metaphor to discuss serious political issues without resorting to insults of their political opponents. This is not to posit that metaphor cannot be used for insults but I prescribe it instead of engaging in direct vituperations. Secondly, the discussions have shown that associations of conceptual sources can be manipulated by persuasive speakers to achieve rhetorical purposes as demonstrated in this paper. Finally, negative associations which become a part of a conceptual source over time become naturally transferred unto features of the target domain. All these can be explored for the purposes of proper communication.

Notes:

1. Adom FM – A popular Akan radio station based in Accra, Ghana

2. Nana Konadu Agyemang Rawlings - the first First Lady of the Fourth Republic of Ghana

3. Yutong bus – it a new bus which was imported by the NDC government with collaboration with Stanbic Bank to enhance Ghana's intra-city transportation.

4. John Mahama – The sitting Vice president of the Republic of Ghana

5. Joy FM – a popular English language radio station in Accra, Ghana

6. Peace FM - A popular Akan radio station based in Accra, Ghana

7. News File – a popular political talk show programme on Joy FM

8. Krokokoo – the morning talk show programme on Peace FM

9. Mate – the term used for a bus assistant normally on a public transport in Ghana

10. OSA bus - Public bus companies have operated in Ghana since the Ominibus Service Authority (OSA) started its operations in 1927. The OSA contributed a lot to the Ghanaian society in terms of public transport. However, OSA's assets were divested in 1995.

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The Analysis of English-Persian Legal Translations Based on Systemic Functional Grammar Approach (SFG)

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Abstract—This paper tries to analyze the errors arising in translation of legal documents from English to Persian. Most of the researchers conducted on explaining the complexity of legal language, has shown that vocabulary and terminology has justifiably received the most attention, as lexis fulfills the symbolic or representational function of language better than any other linguistic component. Consequently it has been supposed that in legal translation, just finding appropriate equivalent for vocabulary and terminology is sufficient. But in this paper, which examines the errors occurred in English –Persian translation of legal documents, the translated text will be analyzed at sentence level based on a meaning-based functional approach ; i.e. Systemic Functional Grammar Approach (SFG) to see whether we can apply it as an objective criteria for error analysis of translated legal documents & how. For this purpose, nine error categories were considered; including interpersonal, textual, logical and experiential metafunctions and in order to understand experiential meaning, it was broken into three functional constituents; that is participant, process and circumstance. Further to the above categories, three other issues, including mistranslation, omission and word choice were considered, as well. Then while dividing the legal text into separate sentences, each sentence was analyzed according to these categories. The results of this research show that SFG approach would be an appropriate criteria and scale for evaluating the accuracy of the legal documents translation, not only for legal translators in producing an accurate and perfect translation, but also for teachers in evaluating the students' translation abilities, objectively.

Index Terms—legal translation, Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG), ideational metafunction, interpersonal metafunction, textual metafunction, experiential meaning, logical meaning

I. INTRODUCTION

The translation of law has played an important role in the contact between different cultures in history and it is playing a more important role in our globalized world with the ever-increasing demand for legal translation. It has been always acknowledged that legal translation is complex and that it requires special skills, knowledge and experience on the part of translator to produce such translation.

"Legal Translation" is a type of special or technical translation, a kind of translational activity that involves special language use, that is, Language for Special Purpose (LSP) in the context of law, or Language for Legal Purpose (LLP) (Cao, 2010). In other word, legal translation consists of taking a document in one language and switching it to another language whilst maintaining the same meaning. Legal translation deals with legal issues and terms. This field involves translating statutes, contracts, patents and any type of legal documentation. These documents are often used in legal proceedings where the initial original meaning must be maintained even after the translation.

Legal terminology is very complex and can vary from one country to another. Due to the fact that not every country has the same legal system, in some cases legal concepts do not have an equivalent in the target language; such as the difference between legal system of Iran and Britain. Britain is a common law country in which the system of justice depends heavily on custom and precedent. By contrast, Iran is a civil law country where the legal system is based entirely on a body of written law. Codes and laws have been created to suit a particular country or culture and when the legal term does not have an equivalent in the target language, the translator needs to "recreate" the concept and whole idea attached to the legal expression. It is very difficult to find equivalent between two terms if both legal languages refer to different legal systems. Vlachopoulos (2004) proposes a range of solutions including the use of terms which are close in conceptual context from non-legal registers including every- day language. Otherwise one is obliged to use extensive footnoting and discussion of the translation itself.

So expert knowledge and acquaintance will linguistic conventions on law and legal cases are required when doing legal translation; but these are not sufficient and it is required to give explicit criteria for evaluating legal translations in order to be used as an objective tool for producing comprehensive translations.

Therefore, in this paper we try to apply SFG approach to evaluate English- Persian legal translations; since SFG provides a fundamental basis for a comprehensive understanding of meaning. The following section briefly introduces a few concepts of SFG and the history of translation studies in Iran.

II. BASIC CONCEPTS

SFG was initially devised by Michael Halliday in the 1950s and 1960s. Williams (1994) notes that it continues to be developed by Halliday and linguists such as Ruqaiya Hasan, Jim Martin and Christian Matthiessen. It has been applied to translation studies, and translation assessment in particular, by translation scholars such as House (1986); Baker (1992); Hatim and Mason (1990, 1997); and Trosborg (2002). Systemic Functional linguists regard language as a meaning-making resource through which people interact with each other in given situational and cultural contexts. They are mainly interested in how language is used to construe meaning. Therefore, language is understood in relation to its global as well as local contexts. In **SFL**, it is common practice to study lexico-grammar, which is mainly concerned with meaning at the text or discourse level, and vice versa. This is one of the reasons for the strong relevance of **SFL** theory to translation studies. Translators cannot produce a coherent text without working on meaning at the text level (Kim, 2010). Two basic notions of **SFG** are as follows: firstly, a distinctive meaning is construed through three simultaneous strands of meaning and, secondly, a clause is a unit in which these meanings are combined (Halliday 1994). The meanings are referred to in **SFG** as metafunctions, and three such metafunctions are identified: ideational (resources for construing our experience of the world as meaning); interpersonal (resources for enacting our social roles and relations as meaning); and textual (resources for presenting ideational and interpersonal meanings as a flow of information in text). The ideational metafunction is split into two: experiential (resources for organizing experience as meaning) and logical (resources for expressing certain general logical relations as meaning).

SFG makes use of two types of grammatical labels: names of classes, including terms such as verb, noun, adjective, adverb prepositional phrase, noun group, etc; and names of function, including participant, process, subject, predicator, theme, rheme, etc. A constituent that is a member of a single class can have multiple functions in a clause. **SFG** approach towards language is fundamentally different from traditional school grammar. Williams (1994) explains that the most important difference between **SFG** and traditional school grammar is the metaphor of choice: Whereas school grammars have prescribed the correct from, functional grammar views language as a resource-one which makes semantic choices available to speakers and writers.

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Investigation of the previous studies shows that the translation studies and specially the analysis of translation errors for training professional translators have a relatively short history and in fact no researches have been done on the analysis of legal translation in Iran; even though translation as a human activity has a very long history. So this indicates the necessity of research in this regard. Here a brief summary of the most important papers and researches conducted on translation evaluation in Iran is given as follows:

- *" A Framework for Translation Evaluation"* by Khomeyjani Farahani A.A. (2005) that suggests a format that can be used to evaluate the English translation of Islamic texts and decide whether the translation under discussion meets the requirements of a successful translation or not. This format is practically a set of criteria, which can be used to systematically evaluate the translation of a text from a source language into a target language and establish its merits and demerits.

- *" A Function- Based Approach to Translation Quality Assessment"* by Manafi Ansari S. (2004) which is based on a function-based approach to translation quality assessment. In this approach, the original text is sometimes regarded as a mere source of information, and the translator is assumed to be an expert who depending on the text type and function or purpose of the original text, decides what role the translated text is to play in the target language and culture.

- *" Application of Lexical- Functional Theory in Designing an English Persian Translation Machine"* by Farough Hendevalan J.A., Jahangiri N.(2008), which deals with sentences that are ambiguous for translation machine and the machine generates two constituent structures for them: i.e. distinguishing "phrasal verb + noun phrase" from "verb + prepositional phrase" and distinguishing "noun phrase + prepositional phrase" from "noun phrase" and "prepositional phrase". To disambiguate these sentences, the solution taken by a human translator, i.e. using semantic information, is modulated for machine through lexical mapping theory.

IV. METHODOLOGY

The corpus-based approach is a useful tool to reduce subjectivity in evaluation translations when it comes to terms, expressions, collocations, and semantic prosody, but the rang of information that could be drawn from the corpus could be widened every further if the users' linguistic focus extended beyond the expression level to the systemic functional meaning-based level.

This research is based on SFG approach that analyzes the translation errors of 15 participants as linguistic corpus selected randomly from among 400 persons who participated in the English-Persian translation exam held by the Iranian Judiciary for employing a number of official English translators. Most of the participants are translators at academic level or with a limited experience of living in an English-speaking country. They were given 3 hours to translate totally 735 English words in 4 separate texts with different legal subjects into Persian. They were allowed to use any kind of law dictionary, as well. For analyzing the collected data, first of all the researcher divided all texts into 112 sentences (including simple and compound sentences). Each sentence was then analyzed according to the three different metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal and textual. The ideational metafunction was further analyzed into two modes of meaning: experiential and logical. In order to understand experiential meaning, each sentence was broken down into three functional constituents: Participant, Process and Circumstance. For the analysis of interpersonal meaning, Subject and Finite relation were identified and for the analysis of thematic meaning, Theme and Rheme relations were identified. Each translation was subsequently checked by the researchers and problematic parts in terms of accuracy and appropriateness were underlined and marked with **E** for experiential meaning error, **L** for logical meaning error, **I** for interpersonal meaning error and **T** for textual meaning error, where possible. When all three transitivity constituents in a sentence, namely Participant, Process and Circumstance, were wrong, it was classified as a **mistranslation**; when a whole clause was not translated, it was classified as **omission**; and when the word-level equivalence was wrong, it was classified as **word choice** error. It should be noted that in this research spelling mistakes were ignored (Kim, 2010)

V. Data Analysis

In this part some examples of translation errors in different metafunctions are discussed. For each example, the source text (ST) is accompanied by the target text (TT) and the back translation (BT) of the target text (i.e. translation of the translated text back into the language of the original text that here is English) as well as an alterative translation (AT). Also the problematic parts are highlighted in bold. Now in the following examples we will consider some of the translation errors with different metafunctions.

Example 1:

                                  participant   process
ST: *The official translators or **the officers of the consulate** **shall certify** the authenticity of*
                                                                           circumstance
*translations and the conformity of the copy with the original **in all cases**.*

TT: مترجمان رسمی یا دفاتر کنسولی در همه جا باید صحت ترجمه و مطابقت رونوشت با اصل را مورد توجه قرار دهند.

BT: *The official translators or **the consulate offices** **everywhere** **must consider** the authenticity of translation and the conformity of the copy with the original.*

In example (1), there are three experiential issues in the target text which are highlighted in bold. One is an error in participant " the officers of the consulate" which refers to the authorities of the consulate but the target text fails to convey the exact meaning and the expression "the consulate offices" refers to the place of the consulate not the authorities. The second issue is mistranslation of circumstance " in all cases" as "everywhere" in the target text. Further as the third issue, the main component of experience in source text, that is represented by the process "shall certify" is translated as " must consider" in which the modal verb "must" has much stronger necessity and force and the main verb is mistranslated; Therefore considering the above issues, the experiential metafunction is misrepresented in the target text. An alterative translation would be:

AT: مترجمان رسمی و مقامات مسئول در کنسولگری می بایست در همه موارد صحت ترجمه و مطابقت رونوشت با اصل را گواهی کنند (تایید کنند).

AT: *The official translators or consulate authorities shall approve the authenticity of translation and the conformity of the copy with the original.*

Example 2:

                    Word choice   non-finite dependant clause
ST: *Hearsay evidence will be admissible **to be considered as primary evidence** if the first*
                                                              word choice
*witness had died or is unable to be called owing to other **impediments** such as sickness, travel, imprisonment, etc.*

TT: شهادت شفاهی چنانچه به عنوان شهادت اصلی در نظر گرفته شود، مجاز است البته در صورتی که شاهد اولیه مرده باشد یا بنا به دلایلی مانند بیماری، سفر و حبس نتواند شهادت دهد.

BT: *If the **oral evidence** is considered as primary evidence, it is permitted; of course if the first witness has died or because of some **reasons** such as sickness, travel or imprisonment can not give evidence.*

In this example there is a logical metafunction error. In the source text " to be considered as primary evidence" is a non-finite dependant clause which functions to provide the purpose for the previous clause. But in the target text, it is presented as a conditional clause " if the oral evidence is considered as primary evidence". Therefore the target text fails to convey the logical relations. Also, there are two errors in the word choice within the target text. The first is "hearsay evidence" that is translated as "oral evidence" and the other is " impediments" that is translated as "reasons". So an alternate translation would be:

AT: چنانچه شاهد اصلی وفات یافته و یا به دلیل موانع قانونی دیگر مانند بیماری، سفر، حبس و غیره نتواند برای ادای شهادت حاضر شود، شهادت بر شهادت (شهادت بر شنونده) به عنوان شهادت اصل مسموع (مجاز) است.

AT: *If the first witness is deceased or due to any other legal barriers such as sickness, travel, imprisonment, etc. can not give testimony, the second-hand evidence is admissible as a primary evidence.*

Example 3:

Circumstance / textual theme / mistranslation   participant/topical them/mistranslation

ST: *Not restricting the generality of functions referred to hereafter, the Broad of Directors*

Process   mistranslation

acts exclusively as the representative of the company before all judicial, governmental,

rheme

omission

Non- governmental authorities, real persons and legal entities, whether Iranian or foreigner.

TT: مدیر عامل به عنوان نماینده انحصاری شرکت در واقع می بایست قبل از همه قضاوتهای مسئولین دولتی و غیر دولتی و قانونی و شخصی عمل کند. پس از آن هیچگونه محدودیتی در وظایف اشاره شده وجود ندارد.

BT: *Managing Director must actually act as exclusive representative of company prior to all judgments of governmental, non- governmental, real and legal authorities. After that there is no restriction in the said function.*

In example (3), there is an error in textual metafunction. In the source text, the textual theme "not restricting the generality of functions referred to hereafter" is used to draw the reader's attention, but in the target text not only the textual effect of the source text is not efficiently created and the sentence begins with the topical theme" Managing Director" which is translated wrongly instead of " Board of Directors" , but also that part of sentence is translated as a separate sentence with wrong meaning.

In addition, there is another mistranslation together with omission in the last part of the source text (i.e. from "before…" till the end of sentence). Therefore in translation of this example there are two experiential errors, one textual error, three cases of mistranslation and one case of omission. Further to the said errors, there is an error in interpersonal meaning too. It means that using the expression "must actually" in translation, adds an unnecessary force to the meaning of target text. An alternative translation would be:

AT: بدون ایجاد محدولیت در کلیات وظایفی که منبعد اشاره می شود، هیئت مدیره به عنوان نماینده انحصاری شرکت در برابر مقامات قضایی، دولتی، غیردولتی، اشخاص حقیقی و حقوقی با هویت ایرانی یا خارجی، اقدام می کند.

AT: *Without any restriction in generality of the following duties that will be assigned , the board of directors acts as the exclusive representative of company before all judicial, governmental and non-governmental authorities as well as real persons and legal entities, with Iranian or foreign identities.*

In general, table 1 indicates the number of translation errors of each person in the nine error categories. The last column shows the average number of sentences that contain each type of translation error.

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF ERRORS IN 9 ERROR CATEGORIES

Selected Participant / Errors Types	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total	Average
Interpersonal	3		2	1		1		2		5	6	3		2	2	27	1.8
Textual	2		7						1	2	1	5	5		3	26	1.73
Logical		2			5	1	4	2			3	1		2		20	1.33
Experiential:																	
-Process	5	6	4	2	2		5	6		8	2	1	1	3		45	3
-Participant	2	1	3		4		4	7	1	1			1	3	1	28	1.86
-Circumstance	1	4		1		3	1	1		3			1	2		17	1.13
Mistranslation		2	1		5	2	1	4		2	1			1	1	20	1.33
Omission	1	5	7		1	3	2	2		3	1		7			32	2.13
Word Choice	2	1	9	3	1	4	2	1	3	4	1		3		4	38	2.53
Total	16	21	33	7	18	14	19	25	5	28	15	10	18	13	11	253	

One of the findings of this study is that individual participants may have certain pattern of errors, which reveals the areas in which they are weak and they need to improve. Fig. 1 shows the distribution of errors for participant 4 in comparison with participant 7.

Participant 4 is one of the two persons who has made the fewest errors (i.e. 7 errors) and participant 7 has made the middle errors (i.e. 19). As the graph in fig.1 shows, participant 7 didn't make any errors in five categories: textual, logical, participant, mistranslation and omission. On the other hand participant 7 didn't make any errors in two categories: interpersonal and textual. This means that their linguistic sensitivity and competence in those areas where they did not make error is very high and reliable, at least in this text.

Further, participant 4, has made one error in interpersonal and circumstance categories and two errors in process category. In terms of interpersonal, process, circumstance categories (i.e. experiential metafunction), the errors that participant 4 has made is roughly the same as the average, but he may need to give more attention to word choice in translation, as his three errors in the word choice category are more than the average of 2.53 in this linguistic corpus.

Likewise considering the same graph, it is shown that participant 7 has made one error in circumstance and mistranslation categories and two errors in omission and word choice categories; and they do not seem to be major problems to be considered since the average number are between 1.13 to 2.53 respectively and these errors are less than the relevant average. In fact she should give more attention to expressing logical meaning, participant and process since her four errors in participant and logical categories and five errors in process category are more than the average which is 1.86, 1.33 & 3 respectively.

High average figures in a particular category means either the source text presents difficulties in such categories or the group of participants in the translation exam is weak in those areas. In addition, the repetition of the same pattern of errors by a group of participant would be a good indicator for legal translators and teachers of areas requiring further practice and explanation.
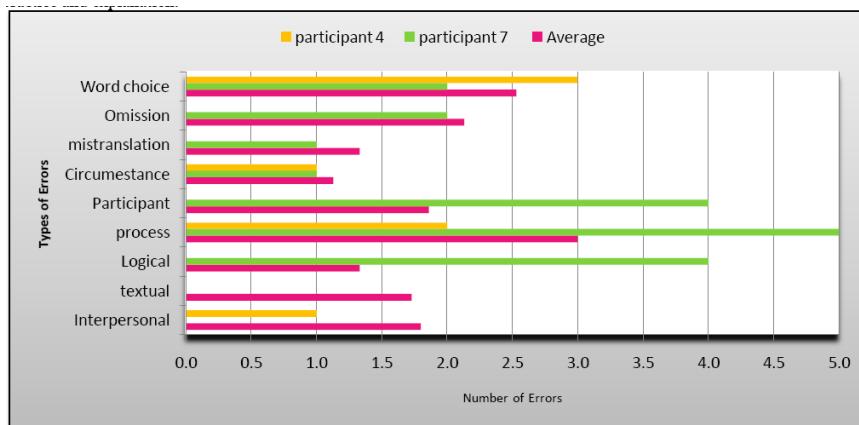
Figure 1- Error Pattern for participants 4 & 7

VI. CONCLUSION

Legal translators and translation students should be aware of the intention of the original text as well as the interpretation that has been attached to text. Errors in legal translation could be fatal due to the potential after- effect of a legal misjudgment which could affect the life and rights of individuals as well as the national security and diplomatic relations.

To avoid mistakes, legal translators need to understand the different law systems as well as specific areas within law such as criminal law, commercial law, property law, etc. Further they should be guided by standards of linguistic, social and cultural equivalence between language used in the source text and the target language. They also need to be competent in legal writing and have an in-depth knowledge of legal terminology. In general, most of the translation errors, specially in legal translation, are because of:

a) Neglecting the translation principles; **b)** Unawareness of the negative connotation meaning of some words in the target language, for example in English -Persian dictionaries, the word "notorious" is equal to "معروف" (famous) but it has a negative connotation meaning that is "well-known in bad things" and some translators use this word to express famous characteristics which results in mistranslation; **c)** Overgeneralization of some morphological rules, for example the suffix (-less) often adds a negative meaning to the stem word such as "careless" but in some cases as in the word "priceless" it means "valuable" (نفیس، ارزشمند) not "without value" (بی ارزش).

Further to the above issues, analyzing the data shows that it is possible to classify errors in target text based on a meaning-based approach, i.e. SFG. In this research errors were identified at sentence level but it would be meaningful to investigate beyond it in follow-up studies. Most of the errors identified here were classified into different metafunctions as well as some other issues such as omission, mistranslation and word choice.

Findings of this research can be used by legal translators to translate legal documents accurately and by teachers to give systematic feedback on individual errors and to evaluate the students' translations objectively. For example, instead of saying that "you should not add or miss anything in translation", they can actually articulate when addition or mission might or might not be justifiable, and also provide explanations for this by referring to what meaning is changed .This meaning-based approach to translation can empower translators and students to think systematically about the translation options they have and articulate reasons for their choices. This is due to the fact that feedback on their translation errors is not based on one's subjective judgment but on systematic, linguistic knowledge, which serves as a basis for students to make informed translation decisions.

Using this classification, teachers can also give individual students systematic feedback on language competence, indicating their relatively weak and strong areas. One instance of translation might not be enough to detect areas of weakness but if repeated error patterns are observed that would be a good indicator.

Research attempts like this small study that address theoretical and/or practical gaps in translation studies can eventually enrich both translation studies and other relevant disciplines. It is worth mentioning that follow-up

researches may be conducted to further investigate whether or not this translation error analysis based on SFG helps students develop translation skills and leads to improvement of translation quality. Also this approach may be implemented as an objective evaluating software that can analyze the translation of different texts automatically and in this way can save the human time and energy, consequently.

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Cooperative Principle in English and Chinese Cultures

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Abstract—**Cooperative principle is believed to play a regulative role in English-speaking communication and any real or apparent violations of the maxims of cooperative principle will lead to what we call "conversational implicature", but this is not the case in Chinese culture. Chinese language users only conform to the Maxim of Relevance of the cooperative principle in a broad sense. Cooperative principle is quite limited to explain the natural Chinese expressions. Five causes that account for this are discussed in this paper.**

Index Terms—**cooperative principle, implicature, cultural differences**

I. Cooperative Principle in English and Chinese Communication

The Cooperative principle (CP) is one of the widely known pragmatic principles which are used to interpret the literal sense and pragmatic force of utterances. However, it is not universal when different cultures are taken into account. When we take Chinese culture into account, for example, we find that Chinese people often do not conform to the maxims of CP beyond following the Maxim of Relevance in a broad sense. These language phenomena and the reasons for these which are concerning with the cultural aspects will be examined within this paper.

A. Cooperative Principle in English Communication

1. Grice's CP Theory

H.P.Grice in his famous paper "Logic and Conversation"(1975) suggests that there exists a set of maxims and sub-maxims that guide and constrain the conversation of rational people. He formulated his widely-known "Cooperative Principle", by which participants in conversation are expected to observe"Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at a stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose of direction of talk exchange in which you are engaged." (Grice, 1975, p.45)

This principle is associated with four constituent maxims, labeled as quantity, quality, relation and manner, each of which consists of one or more specific sub-maxims. Participants, in short, should speak "sincerely, relevantly and clearly, while providing sufficient information"(Grice, 1975, p.102). The Cooperative Principle is, in essence, a sort of tacit agreement between participants to work together to create a coherent and effective exchange. The maxims of CP are as follows:

The Cooperative Principle

Quantity: Give the right amount of information.

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required.

2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

Quality: Try to make your contribution one that is true.

1. Do not say what you believe to be false.

2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

Relation: Be relevant.

Manner: Be perspicuous.

1. Avoid obscurity of expression.

2. Avoid ambiguity.

3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).

4. Be orderly.

(Adapted from Grice, 1975, p.41)

Grice assumes that the CP is always observed that any real or apparent violations of the maxims will lead to what he calls "conversational implicature",e.i. messages which are intended by the speaker but must be inferred by the hearer on the assumption that the speaker is cooperating in a specific manner. Grice's often quoted example is that of a recommendation letter written by a professor for a former student who has applied for a job. The letter read, "Dear Sir, Mr. X's command of English is excellent, and his attendance at tutorials has been regular." This, accordance to Grice, violates the maxim of quantity and leads to the implication that the professor does not think the student is suitable for the post and does not want to recommend him. The following sections present additional examples to illustrate how the maxims of CP are flouted or broken in interpersonal communication.

1.1. The Breach of the Maxim of Quantity

(1) A: "Where does X live?"

B: "Somewhere in the suburb of the city."

B's answer obviously breaks the Maxim of Quantity. He does not tell A the exact place where X lives, and gives less information than A had hoped to hear. Supposing B knows where X lives, his answer implies that "I don't want to tell you."

(2) A: "We'll all miss Bill and Agatha, won't we?"

B: "Well, we'll all miss Bill." (qtd. Leech, 1983, p.50)

In (2), when A asks B to confirm A's opinion, B merely confirms part of it, and pointedly ignores the rest. As a result, B apparently fails to observe the Maxim of Quantity.

1.2. The Breach of the Maxim of Quality

(3) A: "Would you like to have a cup of coffee?"

B: "Sorry, I have an appointment right now."

Assuming B knows A clearly recognizes that B has no appointment at that time, then B's answer is a reflection of his desire to politely refuse A's invitation.

The breach of quality occurs not only when speakers employ implications, but also when they employ other traditional figures of speech, such as irony, metaphor, hyperbole, meiosis. Examples are as follows:

(4) "A triumph, a classic of this era." (Los Angeles Mirror) (Hyperbole)

(5) "He is an old fox, please do not play with him." (Metaphor)

(6) A: "We have met so many troubles today."

B: "That's right. We had a nice day." (Irony)

(7) A: "It is 38℃ today. I'm sweating."

B: "Yes, it's a bit warm today."   (Meiosis)

1.3. The Breach of the Maxim of Relevance

(8) A: "Can you answer the phone, darling?"

B: "I'm in the bath."

B's answer seems to have no relevance to A's question. But B has actually offered A the required information, and has obeyed the Quantity and Quality Maxims. B's answer implies that "I cannot answer the phone. You do it, darling." The following is an example of a breach of the Maxim of Relevance:

(9) A: "What do you think of my new dress?"

B: "It's interesting."

In (9), B is reluctant to show his true opinion, "I don't like it.", instead offering an irrelevant utterance.

1.4. The Breach of the Maxim of Manner

In English-speaking culture, flouting of the Maxim of Manner is not as common as flouting of the above maxims. When flouting the Maxim of Manner, people sometimes speak in a rather unnatural way to achieve special purposes.

(10) A: "Let's get the kids something."

B: "Okay, but I veto I-C-E-C-R-E-A-M." (qtd.Levenson, 1983, p.104)

Here B ostentatiously violates the Maxim of Manner (be perspicuously) by spelling out the word ice-cream, and thereby conveys to A that B would rather not have the word "ice-cream" mentioned directly in the presence of the children, as its mention could possibly prompt them to demand some.

Like breaches of the Maxim of Quality, breaches of the Maxim of Manner often employ figures of speech, such as euphemism, pun, metonymy, synecdoche, antonomasia, and allusion, etc.

(11) He is a bit slow for his age. (Euphemism)

(12) "A sailor went to C-C-C (sea)

To see what he could C-C-C (see)

But all that he could C-C-C (see)

Was the bottom of the great blue C-C-C (sea)" (Pun)

(13) "When from the cradle to the grave I look,

Mine I conceive a melancholy book." (Geoge Crabbe: The Parish Register) (Metonymy)

(14) There is a mixture of the tiger and ape in the character of Frenchmen. (Synecdoche)

(15) " For decades the rest of America and the world expected the Big Apple to be the prime source of sustenance for the poor, homeless, huddled masses. " (Times) (Antonomasia)

(16) It (the book) is a vehicle of learning and enlightenment, an open sesame to countless joys and sorrows. (Allusion)

2. The Limitations of Grice's CP

Grice's CP can help to account for the relationship between sense and force of utterances, and to explain conversational implicatures, the inferences of which result from at least two distinct methods of communication: following or flouting the maxims. However, "the CP in itself cannot explain (i) why people are often so indirect in conveying what they mean; and (ii) what is the relationship exists between sense and force when non-declarative types of sentence are being considered." (Leech, 1983, p.80)Grice himself also admits that there are many other reasons and

purposes for engaging in conversation beyond the effective exchange of information. For example, he puts forward the maxim, "Be Polite", which participants should observe in interaction, but does not go further to offer the issue of politeness.

B. Cooperative Principle in Chinese Communication

It has been argued that "the maxims of the CP are not universal to language, because there are linguistic communities to which not all of them apply" (Keenan, 1985, p.179). That is the case of Chinese language use. It must be noted that Chinese beyond following the Maxim of Relevance in a broad sense, most often do not conform to the maxims of CP. Differences in language use reflect different cultural values and the fact that Chinese people highly value indirect and ambiguous expressions for the sake of politeness, face, and other social factors.

1. The Breach of the Maxim of Quantity

(17)黛玉憋的脸上紫胀，便咬着牙用手指狠命的在他额颅上戳了一下，哼了一声，咬牙说道："你这——"刚说了两字，便又叹了一口气，乃拿起手帕来擦眼泪。(*The Red Mansion*, p.238)

Too angry to speak, she (Lin Daiyu) fixed him (Bao-yu) with furious eyes until his cheeks were burning. Then, clenching her teeth, she stabbed with one finger at his forehead and said, "You…"

(Tr. The Yangs)

(18) 雇员："大家提议放两天假。"

Employee: "We propose to have two days off."

经理："哦？！"

Manager: "What?!"

雇员："这个月的销量比上两月都好，而且提前完成，大家都觉得需要放松一下。"

Employee: "The sales this month are much better than during the last two months, and we have finished our work ahead of time."

经理："哦。"

Manager: "Oh…"

雇员："那是同意放了。太好了，谢谢经理。"

Employee: "That's to say you agree? Oh, that's great. Thank you."

In (17), the utterance of "You…"obviously breaks the Maxim of Quantity. Lin Daiyu does not reveal Bao-yu her complex feelings clearly in a complete sentence, but uses just one word to give him a sense of what she means according to the context. In (18), the manager clearly breaks the Maxim of Quantity. But the conversation does not break down because the inadequate information given by the manager is enough to provide his listener with a sense of his full meaning.

2. The Breach of the Maxim of Quality

(19) 甲："你干的真好！"

A: "You've done a great job."

乙："不好，不好。"

B: "No, not good, not good."

(20)甲："你混得不错呀！"

A: "You've succeeded and gotten along well with the others."

乙："哪里，哪里。"(modest way of expression)

B: "No, no." (definitely negative expression)

(21) 甲："时候不早了，我们一起吃顿饭吧。"

A: "It's time to eat. Let's have an informal meal."

乙："那多不好哟。"(acceptation)

B: "No. It's not grateful." (Refusal)

In order to politely avoid undesirable interpersonal communication, Chinese carefully consider the feelings of their listeners when giving "yes" or "no" answers; Americans, on the other hand, often use "yes" or "no" as a means of expressing their individual views without extensive consideration of the feelings of their listeners. "In other words," says Ringo Ma, "to say 'yes' for'no'or'no'for 'yes' is largely a reflection of the indirect approach to communication"(1993, p.2-3).This contrary-to-face-value aspect of Chinese verbal language behavior can be confusing of course to English speakers. Consider the following example: "To communicate the request, 'Turn on the air-conditioner for me, please,' a Chinese may say: 'It's better in this room than outside the building', or 'It's ok, don't turn the air conditioner on.' Although the first statement is less contrary, both reflect the use of no to say yes. In the first case, the statement suggests: 'It's still hot here, though it's cooler than outside. You should know that turning on the air conditioner will make me feel more comfortable.' The second statement implies, 'I say no, but you should know I really mean yes'" (William V. Ruth, 1989, p.174). Modesty is highly appreciated by Chinese people. Consequently, Chinese people usually sacrifice the maxim of quality in their interpersonal communication.

As in English conversation, Chinese language breaches in the Maxim of Quality can be accomplished using various figures of speech. Examples are as follows:

(22) 烈祖："外地都下雨了，只是都城不下雨，却是为何？"

Emperor Lie Zu asked, "It's raining in other parts, but the capital. Why?"

申渐道："雨不敢入城，是怕抽税而已。"《古今谭概：微词》

Shen Jian replied, "The rain is hesitating because of the tax."

(Metaphor)

(23)"我可要给你提意见了，你整日操劳，把身体弄坏了，是对革命的不负责任，对我们单位也是一个损失嘛。"

（Irony）

"I'd like to criticize you. You weakened your health by working day and night. This is not only irresponsible for our revolution, but also a loss for our dan wei (close community)."

We can find many more examples in our daily conversations. Supposing a person is late for his banquet, when he arrives at last, someone else attending the banquet may stand up immediately and say: "迟到了，罚酒三杯。"This expression cannot be translated adequately into English, as it is impossible to convey fully the praising and politeness.

3. The Breach of the Maxim of Relevance

(24) 太宗问："玄龄听说李伟任户部尚书后有什么表示？"

Tai Zong asked: "What does Xuan-ling think now that he knows *Li Wei* has been appointed Minister of Revenue?"

来人说："他只说'李伟长了好大一把胡须，'再没说别的。"《贞观政要. 择官》

The other man replied: "He only said, 'Li Wei has got a beautiful big beard', nothing else."

In order not to offend *Tai Zong* and *Li Wei*, Xuan-ling chose an irrelevant reply, the implication of which is that Li Wei is a nobody, his only commendable feature being his beautiful beard.

4. The Breach of the Maxim of Manner

Ringo Ma writes, "A major linguistic difference between Americans and Chinese lies in the use of direct and indirect language." (1993, p.5) Chinese often use ambiguous expressions, some of which are culturally unique. Take,反切（*fǎn qiè*）and 歇后语（*xie hou yu*）for example. *Fǎn qiè* is a traditional method used to indicate the pronunciation of a Chinese character by using two other Chinese characters, the first having the same consonant as the given character and the second having the same vowel (with or without final nasal)and tone. For example pronunciation of 同(táng) is indicated as 徒红切(*túhongqiè*)， meaning a combination of the consonant "t" from 徒 (tú) and the vowel plus nazal (áng) from 红. Frequently, educated Chinese also use this figure of speech to criticize or make fun of others or for other purposes, i.e. in spying field.

Xie hou yu (two-part allegorical saying) is a vivid and quite common linguistic method used in China. Examples are as follows:

(25)泥菩萨过河 ——自身难保。

(A clay idol fording a river——hardly able to save himself, let alone assist anyone else)

(26)偷来的锣鼓——打不得。

(The steeled gong and drum——cannot be hit)

(27)外甥打灯笼——照舅(旧)   （back in the old nut）

Because Chinese prefer indirect and implicit expressions in interpersonal communication, breaches of the Maxim of Manner are as popular as above breaches.

According to Grice's CP theory, people generally speak sincerely, relevantly and clearly, while providing sufficient information; when people break maxims, there should be an implicature. But examples (17), (18), (19), (20), and (21), have no implications; they are simply natural expressions. Therefore, Grice's CP theory is not convincing in explaining the uses of Chinese language. Strictly speaking, Chinese do not necessarily comply with the maxims of CP, beyond compliance with the Maxim of Relevance in a broad sense. How is it that Chinese can be said to comply with the Maxim of Relevance in a broad sense? One reason is that "in a broader sense, an utterance can be relevant to a speech situation if the utterance can be interpreted as contributing to the conversational goal(s)" (Leech, 1983, p. 94).Smith and Wilson (1979, p.177) also give an informal definition of relevance as "A remark *P* is relevant to another remark *Q* if *P* and *Q,* together with background knowledge, yield new information not derivable from either *P* or *Q*, together with background knowledge, alone." A second reason is that the process of communication is ultimately a matter of guesswork, or to use a more dignified term, "hypothesis formation" (Sperb & Wilson, 1986, p.24).Consequently, whatever a person says can be considered to be relevant to the communication, on the assumption that the participants are cooperating toward social or personal goals.

II. CP AND CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

A.   CP and English Culture

The Halls maintain that cultural communication generally can be compared on a scale of high to low context, and define these two terms in the following manner:

High context (HC) communication or message is one in which most of the information is already in the person, while

very little is in the coded, explicitly transmitted part of the message. A low context (LC) communication is just the opposite; i.e. the mass of the information is vested in the explicit code. (1990, p.79)

In low-context culture, the populations are less homogeneous and therefore tend to compartmentalize interpersonal contacts. The Halls argue that this lack of a large pool of common experience means that "each time they interact with others individuals need detailed background information" (1976, p.7). In low-context culture, the verbal message contains most of the information, while very little is embedded in the participants' conversational context. Individuals living in low-context cultures expect conversational messages to be detailed, clear-cut, and definite. If there is not enough data, or if the point is not readily apparent, members of low-context cultures often ask questions. They feel uncomfortable with the vagueness and ambiguity often associated with limited data. Hall notes that English-speaking culture is a low-context culture. Another reason why English-speakers value direct and clear expressions is closely connected with the concept of individualism. Individualism encourages people to express themselves freely and frankly.

Through above analysis, we have founded the cultural source on which Grice based his proposal of CP and of the conversational implicature for the English language use. In another word, Grice's CP theory and the conversational implicature is to some degrees explanatory for the English language use because English-speaking culture is low-context culture, sincere, clear, and relevant utterances loaded with adequate information are appreciated.

B. CP and Chinese Culture

Chinese people do not necessarily conform to the maxims of CP as a result of the impact of five cultural aspects. First, in contrast to the low-context culture of most English-speakers, Chinese possess a high-context culture. The Halls (1990, p.6) note that in high-context cultures, people are frequently homogenous in regard to experiences, information networks, and other social aspects. High-context cultures, as a result of their long tradition and history, change very little over time, and consistent messages have produced consistent responses to the environment. The Halls (1976) also indicate that in high-context cultures, most of the information lies either in the setting or in the people who engage in conversation. Little information is actually contained in the verbal message. "As a result," the Halls writes "for most normal transactions in daily life individuals do not require, nor do they expect, much in-depth background information"(1990, p.17).

Furthermore, people in high-context cultures tend to be more aware of their surroundings and their environment, and, as a result, do not rely on verbal communication as their primary information channel. In reference to this phenomenon, Chinese language contains the phrase, "*mei mu chuan qing*(眉目传情)，"which means "being able to communicate with the eyes." In high-context cultures, the wealth of information available in the surrounding environment makes it unnecessary   for people to verbalize everything; in other words, because the message is conveyed by the context, a great deal of information can be sensed and thereafter, does not have to be explained with words. People in HC cultures also believe that silence often sends a better message than words. Consider   the Chinese proverb "silence speaks more than words(此时无声胜有声)"and the following criticism of people who talk a lot "empty cans clatter the loudest(半壶水响叮当)."

Second, the hierarchical social structure developed over 5,000 years of civilization has had a great impact on language use. According to sociological research, the more power and higher position one possesses, the quantity of information he gives is much less or more when interact with others. As a result, the distribution of quantity is uneven. Conversation (18) is a case in point.

Third, Chinese language use is heavily governed by traditional conventions and rules of morality. Throughout history, language use and verbal activity have been heavily influenced by a *"Chinese Bible"* known as "中庸"（Doctrines of Mean）. *Zhong Yong*   is a classic Confucian work, separated from *Li Ji* "礼记"(On *Li*)during the time of the South and North Dynasties. According to the explanation of *Zhu Xi* (1987, p.25): "不偏之谓中，不易之谓庸。中者，天下之正道。庸者，天下之定理。" The use of "*Zhong*" reflects the argument that a person should not go to extremes, while "*Yong*" refers the natural rules of society. One cannot speak sincerely, clearly, while providing sufficient information, because it is thought that to do so is in violation of the natural rules of Chinese culture.

Fourth, courtesy, etiquette and face considerations are of great importance in China. George Yule (1985, p.190) writes, "Culture determines or constrains the use of language." Hackett (1963, p.14)also notes that "speech is a form of social identity and is used, consciously or unconsciously, to indicate membership of different social groups or different speech communities." Therefore，Chinese frequently break the Maxim of Quality for the sake of face or politeness considerations.(19), (20), (21) are good examples.

The final reason concerns the structure of Chinese language itself. The structure of Chinese language is quite loosely composed of meaningful separate characters within less cohesive words. This language structure promotes ambiguity. Here is example:（"父在母先亡"）. This sentence can be interpreted in two ways: (a) "父——在母先——亡"（Father died before mother.），(b)"父在，母先亡"(Father is still living, but mother died.); Which way is the correct interpretation depends on the speaker's punctuation.

To sum up, the Chinese mode of communication usually violates the Cooperative Principle and tends to be indirect and implicit.

III. Summary

While Grice's CP theory can be used to explain a certain limited amount about English language use, it cannot be effectively used to explain Chinese language use at all. Owing to the high context culture, convention and for the sake of politeness, Chinese language users only conform to the Maxim of Relevance in a broad sense.

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A Review on IELTS Writing Test, Its Test Results and Inter Rater Reliability

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Abstract—**This research paper is based on the Academic Modules of IELTS test. A study is conducted to evaluate the performance of IELTS test takers and to analyze inter rater reliability in evaluating the test. The test is held at a private university and there are 9 participants who are the students of Foundation, Diploma and Degree courses were assessed only on writing component. This test is rated by three different raters to observe inter rater reliability in evaluating the test. The findings show that rating is not reliable and there is less agreement between the raters as different raters awarded different marks for the students. The total accumulated marks are 588 out of maximum 900 marks and the average score of these 9 students are 65.3% and falls under band 6. Since the IELTS test uses holistic marking, the raters find that the scoring rubrics are too vague in defining the qualities of writing. This study proposes analytic scoring system as a better procedure in assessing IELTS test, whereby it uses separate scales to assess different aspects of writing rather than a single score. The inter rater reliability issue can be overcome if test providers are able to furnish grading scales that could clearly equate the total marks achieved by a candidate to an appropriate band. The result and discussion from this study cannot be generalized to all IELTS candidates as there are many limitations in this study such as student preparedness, tester marking experience, time constraint, and reliability of the test and the validity of the marks tabulation method.**

Index Terms—**IELTS, writing assessment, holistic marking, scoring rubrics, inter-rater reliability**

I. Introduction

The IELTS writing test is used as an example of a large scale high stake test in evaluating the test performance of a group of test takers. The IELTS test is jointly provided by three organizations: the British Council, IDP: IELTS Australia and Cambridge ESOL, with its development and validation unit based in Cambridge, UK. There are two versions of the IELTS test: the Academic Modules and the General Modules. Both versions contain four components: listening, speaking, reading and writing. However, exam providers of any large scale high stake tests need to clearly specify to the purpose of the test. As such according to the IELTS handbook, the Academic Modules of the IELTS are designed to assess a candidate's English language proficiency for academic studies at the undergraduate or post graduate level, whereas the General Modules are developed to assess test candidates who intend to go to English-speaking countries to complete their secondary education or undertake work experience or training programmes at below degree level. People who need to demonstrate their English proficiency in order to immigrate to Australia or New Zealand are also required to sit the General Modules (British Council, IDP: IELTS Australia and University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, 2005).

However in this study, the evaluation of this test is based on the Academic Modules of IELTS test. The objectives of this action research are to evaluate the performance of its test takers and to analyze the inter rater reliability of different raters in evaluating the test. The test was held at a private university and the participants who are the students of Foundation, Diploma and Degree courses were assessed only on the writing component. The writing component, lasting for 60 minutes, is made up of two academic-oriented tasks; Writing Task 1 and Writing Task 2. It is suggested that about 20 minutes is spent on Task 1. The first task asks the candidate to describe in about 150 words a chart, a diagram, a graphic or a table which they might encounter during their study at university. As such, in this section candidates are assessed on their ability to:

i. Organize, present and possibly compare the given data
ii. Describe the stages of a process or procedure
iii. Describe an object or event or sequence of events
iv. Explain how something works

On the other hand, the second task usually requires the candidate to write an argumentative essay of about 250 words based on a controversial topic supplied in the question paper. Task 2 should take about 40 minutes. The candidates are assessed on their ability to:

i. Present the solution to a problem
ii. Present and justify an opinion
iii. Compare and contrast evidence
iv. State opinions and implications of a given issue
v. Evaluate and challenge ideas by giving a view point
vi. Argue in support of or against a given statement

However, the issues raised in both the tasks are of general interest which are suitable for and easily understood by candidates entering undergraduate studies or seeking professional registration. The IELTS candidates' writing performance is rated by a single certified rater at local test centers for the purpose of score reporting. Reliability of writing assessment is ensured through a sample monitoring process, where a sub-sample of the candidates' performances are collected and later re-rated by senior examiners for quality check. In 2003, the overall correlation agreement between the local raters and senior examiners were 0.91 for writing scores. Reliabilities based on these correlations were therefore 0.84, using the Spearman-Brown Formula (British Council, IDP: IELTS Australia and University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, 2004). Finally, the results from the IELTS are reported on a scale from 1 (non-user) to 9 (expert user). However, the writing scores are reported in whole bands only. Table 1 below lists the descriptions of the nine overall bands.

TABLE 1
SHOWS THE BAND, SCALE AND CRITERIA FOR IELTS TEST

Criteria	Band
Has fully operational command of the language: appropriate, accurate and fluent with complete understanding.	**Expert user** **Band 9**
Has fully operational command of the language with only occasional unsystematic inaccuracies and inappropriacies. Misunderstandings may occur in unfamiliar situations. Handles complex detailed argumentation well.	**Very good user** **Band 8**
Has operational command of the language, though with occasional inaccuracies, inappropriacies and misunderstandings in some situations. Generally handles complex language well and understands detailed reasoning.	**Good user** **Band 7**
Has generally effective command of the language despite some inaccuracies, inappropriacies and misunderstandings. Can use and understand fairly complex language, particularly in familiar situations.	**Competent user** **Band 6**
Has partial command of the language, coping with overall meaning in most situations, though is likely to make many mistakes. Should be able to handle basic communication in own field.	**Modest user** **Band 5**
Basic competence is limited to familiar situations. Has frequent problems in understanding and expression. Is not able to use complex language.	**Limited user** **Band 4**
Conveys and understands only general meaning in very familiar situations. Frequent breakdowns in communication occur.	**Extremely limited user** **Band 3**
No real communication is possible except for the most basic information using isolated words or short formulae in familiar situations and to meet immediate needs. Has great difficulty understanding spoken and written English.	**Intermittent user** **Band 2**
Essentially has no ability to use the language beyond possibly a few isolated words.	**Non user** **Band 1**
No assessable information provided.	**Did not attempt** **Band 0**

The IELTS test development processes ensure that the test is of a comparable level of difficulty, so that it provides valid and consistent results. The testing system is underpinned by test materials developed using the following stages: commissioning, editing, pre-testing, analysis, banking of material, standards fixing and question paper construction. In addition to this test development, test writers from different English-speaking countries also develop IELTS content, so that it reflects real-life situations around the world. This would be unbiased and fair to all IELTS candidates who come from different cultures and countries.

II. THE IMAGED WRITING TEST SPECIFICATIONS

Test specification is an official statement about WHAT a test tests and HOW it tests it and a test specification is also known as a blueprint of a test. It is used internally among test constructors and test administrators as well as test raters and usually kept confidential. A test specification can also be described as a simplified document which indicates what the test contains. The development of a test specification is crucial part of test construction and evaluation process which serves as a blue print and it provides answer to what is tested, who are the targeted audience or test takers and how does the test look like. In this project, we have designed a test specification based on our imagination for the writing skills. Below is the test specification that is used in conducting this research. First of all the Writing test that we have conducted takes 60 minutes. There are two tasks to complete and in task 1, students are asked to transfer the information from non-linear graphs and diagrams to a linear form of paragraph by using not less than 150 words. We

suggested the students to spend 20 minutes to complete task 1 and in task 2 the students are asked to write a continuous essay that requires them to write at least 250 words and to use not more than 40 minutes to attempt this task. Task 1 is an academic writing and the test takers are asked to describe some information based on graph, table, chart and diagram. The test takers are asked to present the description in their own words. The assessment of the task is based on the candidate's ability to organize, present and possibly make comparison based on a non-linear text provided. The candidates are also expected to describe the stages of a process and procedure. To add on, the candidates must be able to describe an object or event or sequence of events and finally they should be able to explain on how something works. In task 2, the test takers are presented with a point of view or argument or problem. Test takers are assessed on their ability to present the solution to a problem, present and justify an opinion, compare and contrast evidence, opinions and complications. The candidates are also required to evaluate and challenge ideas, evidence and argument. The questions are catered to raise general interest among candidates' general interest and it can be easily understood by candidates entering undergraduate or postgraduate studies and also useful for people who are seeking for professional registration. In task 1, test takers are assessed based on the following criteria: 1. Task fulfillment: Have you followed the instructions clearly? Have you given a clear, accurate and relevant description of the information? 2. Coherence and cohesion: Is your writing well organized? Are sentences logically linked? 3. Vocabulary and sentence structure: Have you used a variety of appropriate vocabulary? Are the sentences well constructed? Meanwhile, in task 2, test takers are assessed based on their ability to present a point of view or argument or problem. They are required to:1. Present the solution to a problem. 2. Present and justify an opinion. 3. Compare and contrast evidence, opinions and implications. 4. Evaluate and challenge ideas, evidence or an argument. In task 2, test takers are assessed based on the following criteria: Good organization-paragraphing, thesis statement, topic sentences and main ideas, clear ideas that directly address topic, coherent argument or point of view and discussions with reasons provided to support, evaluate and challenge ideas, cohesion by the use of transitional phrases, linkers, sentence connectors, synonyms, pronouns and references, accurate and appropriate structures and vocabulary and good punctuation and spelling.

III. DESCRIPTION OF TEST ADMINISTRATION AND DATA COLLECTION

Three groups of students were chosen from a range of available students at tertiary level in a private university. All these students are second language learners. The process of identifying students for the administration of the test was carried out after carefully analyzing our goals and the capability of these learners. The first thought that crossed our mind was that, will these individuals be competent enough to do the writing task. Since IELTS is a comprehensive language testing system, we were quite worried if the test results would give us a clear picture and thereafter proceed to analyze the performance of the test takers. The first group of students was from the foundation program and they are in their final semester. These learners were picked at random from a class of seventeen students. These international students do not have English certificates from neither TOEFL nor IELTS and in order to proceed with the university programme, they have gone through and successfully completed an Intensive English language programme conducted by the university as to meet this university's language requirement. Before being selected, a brief introduction of the study was done and immediately six students volunteered for the exercise. Since all of them are not familiar with the writing task, we decided to hold another briefing session to explain the requirements of the task. Thereafter, the time and venue was decided after consulting the students. The time factor was crucial because we wanted the students to do well, and if they chose the most appropriate time for them to sit for the task, it would be motivating. After this, all six of them sat for the paper and were given three minutes of reading time before starting on the task whereby only twenty minutes was allocated as per the IELTS requirement. After the reading time, one student gave up and mentioned that he could not understand the question and did not want to continue. As for task two, which requires 40 minutes, we decided to give the test takers five minutes of reading time. Since this task is more stringent and requires the student to write 250 words we thought that the reading time should be longer. The next group was from the diploma course whereby three of them volunteered to try the task. After a quick briefing session on the requirements, they started without any reading time and managed to complete both the papers within the total time of an hour. These students have completed two levels of English and are more competent. Their level of confidence was also high as compared to the foundation students because they managed to complete the paper without much difficulty. This was evident while administering the test. The next group was the degree students who had also volunteered but were keen to know if they would be allowed to have more time to complete the task. The only possible answer to this was to explain to the students that this is a study on language assessment and evaluation and no other bearing on what they are required to do. These degree students were asked to sit for this task at 5pm after classes and they took an hour to complete both the papers. This may not be the most suitable time for them to take the test, but due to time constraints the students managed to complete and hand in their tasks. The scores of all the tests taken are shown in table 2. It is the usual practice of the said test for two markers to evaluate each task.

TABLE 2
SHOWS INTER RATER SCORE, AVERAGE MARKS AND BAND

No	Name	Level	Rater 1		Rater 2		Rater 3		Average Marks/Band
			Task 1 30%	Task2 70%	Task 1 30%	Task2 70%	Task 1 30%	Task2 70%	
1	Bharati	Degree	23	42			20	39	124/2= 62 Band 6
2	Reza	Diploma	20	63			18	48	149/2= 74.5 Band 7
3	Ahmed	Foundation	22	56			20	55	153/2= 76.5 Band 7
4	Syaley	Foundation	26	64			21	58	169/2= 84.5 Band 8
5	Yuliana	Degree	27	59	13	25			124/2=62 Band 6
6	Fayzali	Degree	24	62	15	35			136/2= 67.5 Band 6
7	Meng Xiang	Diploma	22	43	11	20			96/2=47.5 Band 4
8	Brahmuda	Diploma			13	28	21	51	113/2= 56.5 Band 5
9	Nikita	Foundation			22	30	19	45	116/2=57 Band 5
	Average Score/ task/rater		23.4	55.5	14.8	27.6	19.8	49.3	Total Average 588/9 = 65.3

IV. PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE TEST RESULT

Table 2 above shows inter rater score, average marks and band obtained by nine candidates who have sat for IELTS writing test. This test is conducted for the purpose of evaluating the performance of its test takers. This test is rated by three different raters to observe inter rater reliability in evaluating the test. Based on the table 2 above, the findings show that the rating is not reliable and there is no agreement between the raters as different raters awarded different marks for the students. There is not much agreement between the raters on the official rating as the statistic shows that the average score awarded by rater 1 to student 5 is 86 marks for both task 1 and task 2 meanwhile rater 2 awarded 38 marks for the same student. Huge differents can be seen in the distribution of marks and the inference that could be made is that there is no clear rating scale which explicitly states the scoring criterion such as the multiple trait scoring to guide the raters. Since the scores on this test are independent estimates of these judges or raters, the average score from each rater is taken as the final score to be awarded for the students. These would not be fair to the test takers as the standard measurement error of the test is not conducted. The disagreement among raters could also be due to inaccuracy and inconsistencies in marking as all raters are experiencing marking the IELTS writing section for the first time. The error within the raters could also be due to lack of experience in marking IELTS writing examination. The statistic also shows that there is a rater reliability and agreement between rater 1 and rater 3 in awarding marks to student 3 where rater 1 awarded a total of 78 marks for this student while rater 3 awarded 75 marks to the same student. There is only a slight disagreement between these raters as both demonstrate their independency in marking. This shows that there is an inter rater reliability and mutual agreement among these two raters. On the other hand, the statistics show the achievement of all nine test takers and out of these nine students, who have sat for this test, three of the test takers scored band 6, 2 students obtained band 5, the other two students managed to get band 7 and one student achieved band 4. The total accumulated marks are 588 out of maximum 900 marks and the average score of these 9 students is 65.3% and falls under band 6. All the degree students fall under band 6. These are the raw scores of the IELTS test as there are other skills and components that will determine the overall achievement and band of IELTS candidates.

TABLE 3
SHOWS PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS ON EACH COMPONENTS/ELEMENTS

No	Student's Name	Task 1 30%				Task 2 70%					Score
	Scoring Component	TF	C&C	V	SS	O	AIE	CQ	VSS	M	
1	Bharati	3.5	3.5	7.5	7	13	10	5.5	5	7	62
2	Reza	4	2.5	7	5.5	16	17	7.5	8	7	74.5
3	Ahmed	3.5	3	7.5	7	17	16	7	7.5	8	76.5
4	Syaley	4.5	4.5	8	7	18	18 .5	8.5	8	8	84.5
5	Yuliana	3.5	3.5	6	6.5	11	9.5	6.5	5	5	62
6	Fayzali	3	3.5	7	6	13	15.5	6.5	6	7	67.5
7	Meng Xiang	3	3.5	5	5	8	8.5	5	4.5	5	47.5
8	Brahmuda	3.5	3	6	4.5	12.5	11.5	5.5	5	5	56.5
9	Nikita	3.5	2.5	7.5	7	9.5	10	4.5	6	6.5	57
	Achieved Percentage for each element	71%	65.5%	69%	55.5%	65.5%	64.7%	62.7%	61.1%	65%	Total Score 63.5%
											Total Average 64.7%

Task 1 Scoring Criteria

TF= Task Fulfillment	5 marks
C&C= Coherence and cohesion	5 marks
V= Vocabulary	10 marks
SS= Sentence Structure	10 marks
TOTAL	**30 marks**

Task 2 Scoring Criteria

O= Organization	20 marks
AIE= Arguments, ideas, evidence	20 marks
CQ= Communicative Quality	10 marks
VSS= Vocabulary and sentence structure	10 marks
M= Mechanics	10 marks
TOTAL:	**70 marks**
GRAND TOTAL:	**100 marks**

Table 3 above shows the statistics of candidates in their IELTS writing examination. Student 4 is the highest achiever among all nine candidates where the score obtained is 84.5 marks for both tasks and fall under band 8. This candidate has good command of the language with occasional inaccuracies and inappropriacies. This candidate is also able to provide valid arguments and ideas supported with evidence. Meanwhile the lowest achievement is by student 7 where this student could only manage to obtain a score of 47.5 for both the tasks. This student is unable to handle different situations clearly and has poor communicating quality in conveying his thoughts in writing and there is no cohesion and cohesiveness in his writing. The statistic shows that most of the students are able to fulfil the task and scored an average of 71 % in task fulfilment. The statistic shows that the candidates are able to obtain a score of 65% in their marks given to mechanics as they are able to use correct punctuation, capitalization and spelling with some minor mistakes and grey errors in this element. The lowest average score is given to candidates' sentence structure as most of the students made many mistakes in sentence structure and unable to write grammatically. Most students are unable to make clear inferences from a non-linear text in task 1 to a linear text as they have average vocabulary knowledge to paraphrase the diagrams and graphs .The percentage obtained by all students in organization of paragraphs are 65.5% as many of the candidates are able to write the essay in paragraphs with interesting introduction, correct thesis statement, supporting details in every paragraphs and supported by details and examples. The conclusions are also found to be summarizing the whole essay with some innovative suggestions and opinions. The total average score obtained by all nine candidates is 63.5% and the total percentage achieved by these candidates for all elements is 64.7%.An average of 22 marks are obtained by candidates in accomplishing task 1 and an average of 59 marks are obtained by all candidates in task 2.This infers that candidates are able to organise, present , make comparison and explain a process or procedure between two sets of data given as the stimulus in task 1 better than to provide a solution, justify an opinion, provide evidence, evaluate and challenge ideas required in task 2.Based on the result obtained from the test, it is clear that students are able to perform on a guided writing task better than a continuous writing task. This writing test is conducted as a small scale action research among international students and the raters are language lecturers from 3 different higher learning institutions in Malaysia. The test takers are given an average period of time ranging from week 1 to week 5 to prepare for the test with intensive classroom instructions and resources as the testers are facing time constraint to complete the study. Limited face to face instructions and writing techniques skills are being taught to these candidates to enhance and prepare them to excel in their test. Hence, the result shows that the average band obtained by these students is only band 6.The candidates who are from different levels such as foundation studies, diploma students and undergraduates are anticipated to perform better than the actual achievement in the writing test in this small scale study if enough classroom input, guidance and facilitation be provided before the actual test. The result and discussion from this study cannot be generalized to all IELTS candidates as there are many limitations in this study such as student preparedness, tester marking experience, time constraint, and reliability of the test and the validity of the marks tabulation method.

V. SUGGESTIONS FOR TEST CONSTRUCTORS

The IELTS writing test is assessed based on a holistic marking. In holistic scoring, raters judge texts as a whole and they are not able to separate parts of the essay and identify them. Despite its wide use in writing assessment, holistic marking has recently been criticized as a procedure that fails to provide sufficient information on writing performance (Elbow 1996). Hamp-Lyons (1995) argued that because of the complex and multi-faceted nature of writing, the writing of second language (L2) students may show varied performance on different traits; subsequently, a great deal of information may be lost when assigning a single score to a piece of writing. Since the IELTS test uses the holistic marking, the raters find that the scoring rubrics are too vague in defining the qualities of writing. Hence, analytic scoring system would be a better procedure in assessing IELTS test, whereby it uses separate scales to assess a different aspect of writing rather than a single score. The scripts can be rated on features such as content, organization, cohesion, vocabulary, grammar and mechanics. These aspects of writing are differently weighted to provide more detailed information about a test taker's performance. The second issue with IELTS writing test is that there seems to be inconsistency in assessing the candidates' essay scores. Although measures have been taken to make sure writing is

being assessed 'correctly', raters cannot consistently agree with each other when assessing the same writing samples or even with judgments about the same samples made on different occasions (Hamp-Lyons, 1992:80). This is so true in the case of IELTS writing test where despite the inter-rater method, the test scores given by the two different raters show a large variance. In order to achieve consistency in assessing writing test, raters must ensure that they apply the standardize features of writing in the same way over time, despite their different background knowledge and experience that might affect their perceptions of the written product. In addition, if test constructors could equip the raters with sufficient information on how much weight they have to give to various writing components, the issue of inconsistency in assessing could further be reduced. Lastly, the IELTS examination board needs to demonstrate and share how to operationalize criteria distinctions between levels in the writing tests. This is in evident as the *IELTS Writing Assessment Guidelines* (WAG) are not always made available to practicing examiners, thus making them not fully conversant with the WAG. As such, focus should be given on providing useful information to help raters interpret test scores. However, the issue can be overcome if test providers could furnish grading scales that can clearly equate the total marks achieved by a candidate to an appropriate band. As such, a range of test scores in term of percentage should be assigned to a particular band to make marking more comprehensive. It could also serve as a reliable benchmark to raters in awarding a fair and accurate grade to the candidates.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, evaluating writing is a complex process that requires accounting for multiple factors to ensure a fair and accurate judgment of the writer's abilities. Testers must be sure to set purposes for assessment, choose appropriate scoring criteria, and be aware of how multiple variables in the testing situation can influence outcomes. By being aware of these issues, test constructors involved in the testing process have a greater chance of providing a more meaningful and justifiable assessments to the candidates.

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The Effects of Two Pre-task Activities on Improvement of Iranian EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension

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Abstract—The present study attempted to find out the extent to which two pre-task activities of "glossary of unknown vocabulary items" and "content related support" assisted EFL language learners with their performance on listening comprehension questions across low proficiency (LP) and high proficiency (HP) levels. Each level consisted of three groups, two experimental groups and one control group (twenty participants in each group). One experimental group received "glossary of unknown vocabulary items" with the pronunciations while the other group received content related support (in written form) with the aim of activating prior knowledge before administering post-lecture listening comprehension questions. The statistical analysis of the data revealed that in low proficiency level, vocabulary group outperformed both content and control groups while in high proficiency level, content group outperformed the other groups. The study concluded by suggesting that pre-task activities need to be used taking account of the support type and the learners' proficiency level.

Index Terms—listening comprehension, pre-task activities, glossary of unknown vocabulary items, content related support, prior knowledge, proficiency level

I. INTRODUCTION

Changes in the stream of language teaching reflect the direction of moves towards oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension by the time passed. A great number of studies have examined the effect of providing background knowledge to help learners enhance listening comprehension (Keshavarz & Babai, 2001; Long, 1989; Markham & Latham, 1987). On accounting of the entire challenges EFL learners encounter in classrooms due to the listening complexity, some pre-listening activities as supports in the procedure of teaching listening are proposed by authors (Chastain, 1988; Richards, 1990; Rost, 2001; Underwood, 1989; Ur, 1984).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Communication contains two conversion processes of creating a meaningful message and recreating that message. To recreate the message from spoken language, it is needed for learner to have some shared linguistic knowledge with the speaker (Chastain, 1988). Anderson and Lynch (1988) have defined, "listening as the means to immediate oral production" (p. 64). Brown (1980) maintains, "Listening ability lies at the heart of all growth, from birth through the years of formal education. The better those learning skills are developed, the more productive our learning efforts" (p. 10). So, this skill is one of the crucial equipments by which listener attempts to learn a second language.

As Rost (1990) has noted, "It is now well established that there is not a direct correspondence between the articulatory, acoustic, and auditory dimensions of spoken language" (p. 33). He adds, "Meaning is created only by an active listening in which the linguistic form triggers interpretation within the listener's background in relation to the listener's purpose" (Rost, 1990, p. 62). Also he has referred to the inferential processes while listening such as estimating the sense of lexical references, constructing propositional meaning, assigning meaning to the discourse, supplying underlying links to the discourse, and assuming an intention for the speaker's utterance. According to the multidimensionality of listening skill explained, it is regarded as a demanding process, not only because of the complexity of the process itself, but also due to factors that characterize the listener, the speaker, the content of the message, and any visual support that accompanies the message (Brown & Yule, 1983).

Due to complexity of this skill especially in real-like situations, learners have always had difficulties in completing listening tasks. Buck (2001, as cited in Chang & Read, 2008) identifies numerous difficulties which can be confronted in listening tasks such as unknown vocabularies, unfamiliar topics, fast speech rate, and unfamiliar accents. A

considerable number of difficulties learners face in listening comprehension are discussed in literature (Donaldson-Evans, 1981; Underwood, 1989; Ur, 1984). All these facts lead to the idea that to make students successful listeners, the teacher must support the learners according to their needs, goals, and situation in which they perform. To reach some optimal degree of comprehension, pre-task activities providing background knowledge, linguistically and non-linguistically, have been demonstrated to be helpful in performing different activities (Richards, 1990; Rost, 1990).

A. Listening Materials and Activities

Morley (1991) has explained that in developing listening materials and activities, the following three important features of listening need to be taken into account: (1) Listening is an act of information processing which involves the listeners in various communicative modes; (2) Broadly speaking, real-world spoken communication serves two linguistic functions: an interactional and transactional functions, and (3) The cognitive processing of spoken language involves simultaneously activation of both top-down and bottom-up processes to construct the intended meaning. Richards (1983) has classified the various types of listening activities from different aspects. He has discussed that the material can be in the form of a monologue or a dialogue. They can be delivered by a native speaker or non-native speaker.

Ur (1984) believes that in order for benefiting from listening tasks, it is necessary to develop this skill in a direct and systematic way. To reach this goal, teaching listening has been suggested to include pre-task period. The period prior to act on listening task, pre-listening phase, is associated to preparation stage in which learners are provided by some activities as a kind of support to help them act on task. For Rost (2001), listening tasks "involve explicit 'pre-listening' steps, some activities that the learner does prior to listening to the main input in order to increase readiness" (p. 20).

Chastain (1988) has argued that pre-listening activities can be considered as the most crucial aspects in listening process because other activities depend on the extent to which the teacher has been successful in activating students' background and directing them to reach the goals of activity. Underwood (1989) has listed pre-task activities as: discussion about the topic, looking at pictures, list of items, guiding questions, reading a text, predicting, making list of possibilities. So, the aim for providing pre-listening activities is to activate pre-existing knowledge embedded in learner's mind. Widdowson (1983) has highlighted three sources a listener utilizes in the process of comprehension. He has referred to them as (a) systemic and linguistic knowledge (knowledge of phonological, syntactical, and semantic components of the language system) (b) contextual knowledge (knowledge of situation and co-text) and (c) schematic or background knowledge (factual, socio-cultural and procedural knowledge).

B. Schema Theory and Background Knowledge

Prior knowledge in listener's mind entails the contribution of schematic knowledge when performing on listening tasks. Edwards and McDonald (1993) hold that "schema theory details how people store and use knowledge about a domain" (p.60). Yule (2006) has maintained that "a schema is a general term for a conventional knowledge structure that exists in memory" (p. 132). Generally, schematic knowledge refers to the socio-cultural background knowledge. Edwards and McDonald (1993) maintain, "Schema theory suggests that knowledge level is a much more important predicator of listening than are other variables" (p. 72). Taylor and Crocker (1981) have noted:

A schema is a cognitive structure that consists in part of the representation of some defined stimulus domain. The schema contains general knowledge about that domain, including a specification of the relationships among its attributes, as well as specific examples or instances of the stimulus domain. (p. 91)

Schmidt-Rinehart (1994) carried out a research to find out whether there was an interaction between topic familiarity and listening comprehension. The results revealed that all of the students in different levels outscored in listening task of familiar topic. Also, Chiang and Dunkle (1992) investigated the effect of speech modification, prior knowledge, and listening proficiency on EFL listening comprehension. The Chinese EFL students' listening comprehension was measured over listening to a lecture. The students were required to answer a multiple-choice test which contained both passage-dependent and passage-independent items. The results indicated that the students outperformed on familiar-topic lecture than on unfamiliar-topic lecture.

Weissenreider (1987) tested intermediate and advanced learner's comprehension of Spanish-language newscast over the role of textual and content schema. News casting materials were highly specialized texts, in economic register. The materials were supposed to be familiar in topic to students. Knowledge of the organizational structure of the materials (textual schema) and knowledge about the content of materials (content schema), helped comprehension of new data, especially when combined with some listening strategies such as identifying key semantic elements, hypothesizing associations, anticipating related issues.

In addition to the effect of background knowledge prior to listening test, Widdowson (1983) has stated that vocabulary provision can compensate for the lack of linguistic knowledge. Among difficulties numerated above, lack of vocabulary knowledge can be considered one of the most important one. Lexico-grammatical knowledge is considered to allow L2 learners to derive literal meaning of the message which facilitates listening (Mecartty, 2000). Some authors believe that lack of vocabulary is one of the primary causes which exacerbated listening difficulties (Goh, 2000; Kelly, 1991; Rost, 1990).

Vandergrift (2003) indicated that "less-skilled listeners tended to segment what they heard on a word-by-word basis, using almost exclusively a bottom-up approach" (p. 467). Osada (2001) investigated low-proficient learners to see

whether they preferred using bottom-down procedure or top-down procedure. The result of the study showed that EFL low-proficient learners tended to rely on bottom-up processing. Also, Vandergrift (2003) studied less-skilled and more-skilled learners' way of using different strategies. He concluded that less-skilled learners used word-by-word method of translating a text paying little attention to connection of ideas between the text segments. Therefore, the less-skilled learners acted mainly on bottom-up procedure.

Despite the fact that lack of vocabulary knowledge seems to cause the most worry of EFL learners, there are few studies regarding the effect of vocabulary preparation on listening comprehension (Chang, 2006; Chang & Read, 2008; Lin & Chui, 2009). Looking at the other works done in examining the effect of prior information on listening comprehension, we see somewhat different results. While the findings of the studies highlighted the role of prior information in listening tasks, there are other studies whose findings delimit the effectiveness of such information (Chang & Read, 2007; Jensen & Hansen, 1995). Chang and Read (2007) investigated the effect of different types of supports on language learners. They found that the provision of written general information providing general information on content of listening texts in learners' native language increased their listening comprehension in a limited degree. Jensen and Hansen (1995) looked at whether prior study of a lecture topic enhanced performance on the lecture subtests of a content-based listening with underlying thought on the efficacy of prior knowledge on high proficient learners' listening comprehension.

To reach a solid conclusion, this study attempted to shed more light on supporting listening skill and as a result help learners reach an optimal degree of listening comprehension. Building on the previous studies, this study aimed at discovering the extent to which two pre-task activities of glossary of unknown vocabulary items and content related support assisted EFL language learners with their performance on listening comprehension questions across two levels of low and high proficiency.

III. METHOD

A. Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1: Are there any differences in the effects of two pre-task activities, glossary of unknown vocabulary items and content related support, on improvement of EFL low proficient learners' listening comprehension?

H01: There are no significant differences in the effects of two pre-task activities, glossary of unknown vocabulary items and content related support, on improvement of EFL low proficient learners, listening comprehension.

H1: There are significant differences in the effects of two pre-task activities, glossary of unknown vocabulary items and content related support, on improvement of EFL low proficient learners, listening comprehension.

RQ2: Are there any differences in the effects of two pre-task activities, glossary of unknown vocabulary items and content related support, on improvement of EFL high proficient learners' listening comprehension?

H02: There are no significant differences in the effects of two pre-task activities, glossary of unknown vocabulary items and content related support, on improvement of EFL high proficient learners' listening comprehension.

H2: There are significant differences in the effects of two pre-task activities, glossary of unknown vocabulary items and content related support, on improvement of EFL high proficient learners' listening comprehension.

B. Participants

A total of 120 language learners with age range of 15-25 participated in this study. 100 female and 20 male participants constituted this population. Before the onset of the study, the participants were divided into two different levels of high and low proficiency by a TOEFL actual test. This led to the formation of three groups, 20 participants in each class, totalling to 60 L2 learners in each level. The three classes were randomly assigned into two experimental groups and one control group. The experimental groups consisted of vocabulary and content supported groups.

C. Instruments

Two language tests were used in the present study to measure language learners' proficiency level and listening comprehension. The first testing material was a TOEFL actual test administered in the past by ETS in 2004. This test was used to divide participants into two levels of proficiency. The second test materials were listening tests following 5 listening comprehension multiple-choice questions and a cloze test with 5 blank spaces, resulting 10 listening comprehension questions totally. The materials used for this study prior to taking the tests were chosen from among recorded lectures appropriate for the levels of participants. The pre-task activity of vocabulary was offered one session before conducting listening tests, whereas written content related support was given only 10 minutes before the test.

D. Procedures

Before the onset of the study, the participants were divided into two different levels of high and low proficiency by a TOEFL test. There remained 60 participants in each level making three classes, 20 participants in each class. The three classes were randomly assigned into two experimental groups and one control group. A pre-test of listening comprehension was conducted to guarantee the homogeneity of participants in their listening skill and measure their listening proficiency.

One experimental group in each level was given a glossary of unknown vocabulary items with the pronunciations as a type of pre-task activity. To make them familiar with the pronunciations and relate the vocabularies to listening text, the glossary was given one session before taking the listening test. Similarly, the other group received written information about the content of forthcoming listening piece. This type of pre-task activity was given just 10 minutes before taking the tests. This pre-task activity was aimed to activate the listeners' pre-existing knowledge and offer a general view about the forthcoming data. It was taken care not to give detailed information in these summaries.

At the beginning, the participants were required to listen once before receiving the questions. The second time along with listening to the task, they were required to answer the questions. At the end, Due to their exposure two times to the listening task, they were asked to fill in the blanks in cloze test without listening to the lecture. To prevent the learners from being aware of the listening text, the students were required to answer the multiple questions at the beginning and then to answer the cloze test.

IV. RESULTS

A. Testing the First Hypothesis

To represent comprehensive information about the quantitative analysis of obtained data, the means and standard deviations for the post-test of low proficient learners in each of the three groups are shown in Table 1. The results indicated that there are significant differences between the three groups' post-test mean scores after providing the pre-task activities. Especially, the difference between the mean scores of vocabulary group and the other groups, content and control, is higher than between content and control groups.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR LP LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION TESTS

Groups	N	Post-test	
		M	SD
Vocabulary	20	37.75	3.65
Content	20	28.30	2.51
Control	20	26.45	1.66

In order to find out whether there are statistically significant differences in the effects of pre-task activities on the learners' performance in three groups, the post-test scores were submitted to a one-way ANOVA analysis with between-group factor. The results (p=.029, α=0.05, p<α) illustrated that the difference between the performance of three groups is statistically significant. In other words, the pre-task activities, especially vocabulary items, had a supportive role on LP learners' listening comprehension. So, the first null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is confirmed. To illuminate where the significant differences exist among the groups, Tukey's post hoc test (with an alpha level of .05) was conducted. The results revealed that only vocabulary group outperformed the other two groups. It can be concluded that only the pre-task of vocabulary had a significant and meaningful effect on LP participants' listening comprehension. The results are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
COMPARING LP LEARNERS' POST-TEST MEAN SCORES
ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1469.433	2	734.717	98.100	.029
Within Groups	426..900	57	7.489		
Total	1896.333	59			

B. Testing the Second Hypothesis

The mean scores and standard deviations for post-test of high proficient learners in each of the three groups are represented in Table 3. The results indicated that there are significant differences between the performances of three groups. This means that post-test mean scores of content and vocabulary groups are higher than control group. It shows that provision of pre-task activities enhanced HP learners' listening comprehension in answering post-lecture questions. Especially, the group provided by content related support outscored in listening post-test.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR HP LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION TESTS

Groups	N	Post-test	
		M	SD
Vocabulary	20	32.55	3.11
Content	20	41.75	2.59
Control	20	25.60	2.23

Similar to procedure of finding out the significant difference among the three groups for low proficiency level, a one-way ANOVA analysis with between-group factor was conducted for high proficient level. The results indicated that the

computed p value (.000) is less than the level of significance set in this analysis (p=0.000, α=0.05, p<α). Therefore, this difference is statistically significant, and the second null hypothesis is also rejected and consequently the second alternative hypothesis is accepted. This means that offered pre-task activities for listening tasks improved HP learners' listening performance. To find out exactly which group is supported better by the pre-task activities, Tukey's post hoc test (with an alpha level of .05) was computed. The results showed that both content and vocabulary groups performed better than control group. Despite the effects both pre-task activities had on this level, content related support outperformed vocabulary group. Table 4 illustrates the differences in performances among the groups of HP level.

TABLE 4:
COMPARING HP LEARNERS' POST-TEST MEAN SCORES
ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2625.100	2	1312.550	183.596	.000
Within Groups	407.500	57	7.149		
Total	3032.600	59			

As it is clear from the performance of groups in two levels, it can be concluded that pre-task activities had different supportive roles on low and high proficient learners' performance. In other words, low proficient learners benefited from glossary of unknown vocabulary items in answering post-lecture listening con comprehension questions, whereas high proficient learners' used content related support to answer the listening tests. So, the lack of similarities between two proficiency levels in terms of the effect pre-task activities had on learners' answering post-lecture listening comprehension questions, justifies existence of differences in the effects of pre-task activities on two proficiency levels. This means, comparing the roles of pre-tasks brought out differences in the performance enhancement in two levels. The conclusions are shown in Figure 1 below.
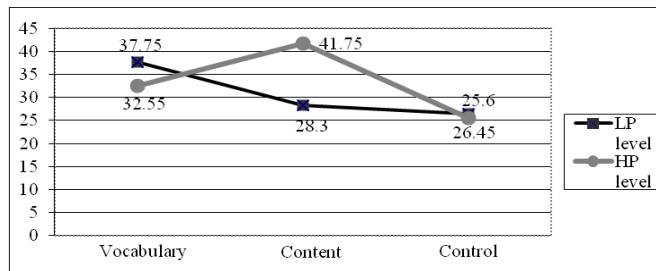
Figure 1: Comparing LP and HP Learners' Post-test Mean Scores

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The first research question addressed the effects of two pre-task activities on low proficiency level. The results obtained by applying the two pre-task activities indicated that only vocabulary provision enhanced LP learners' listening performance. Related to factors influential in listening comprehension, lack of enough vocabulary knowledge is considered one of the most important ones (Chang, 2005; Chang & Read, 2006). This has also been pointed out by Ur (1984) who has maintained that failure in relating the linguistic knowledge (vocabularies) to the context and failure in using strategies to summarize the text in macro-level and micro-level can be an important factor in listening comprehension. Also, Boyle (1984) identifies lexical and syntactical knowledge as the most crucial factors contributed to listening process.

According to what is mentioned about the effective role of vocabulary support in bottom-up processing, the finding of this study is in line with studies supporting the low proficient learners' vocabulary use (Lin & Chui, 2009; Osada, 2001; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998; Vandergrift, 2003). Additionally, extra preparation time offered to the vocabulary group might be another factor affecting listeners' listening comprehension. Time factor had a crucial role in helping the learner process and internalize the lexical items during the offered time. The findings related to high proficient learners are discussed answering the next research question.

The second research questions concerned the effects of so-called pre-task activities on high proficiency level. The results of offering pre-task activities indicated that content related support enhanced the learners' listening comprehension more than vocabulary items. The factor influential in helping HP learners' use of content related support with background knowledge might be related to their use of specific source activation. In other words, high proficient learners could benefit from the provided content to infer meaning and guess what was in the forthcoming data. In relation to listener's use of schematic knowledge in listening comprehension, conclusion the researches have reached confirms the crucial role it has on listening comprehension (Long, 1989; Markham & Latham, 1987; Mueller, 1980; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994; Weissenreider, 1987). Additionally, The finding of this study is sharp contrast with Jensen and Hansen (1995) who concluded that prior knowledge does not support effectively high proficient learners' listening comprehension.

All these findings, confirm the significant effect of background knowledge on learners' listening comprehension performance. Here, the results of the study are in line with these findings. The findings of this study justified the existence of differences in the performances of learners in two proficiency levels. The glossary of unknown vocabularies in LP level and content related support in HP level, improved learners' listening comprehension. Therefore, differences have been found in supportive roles of pre-task activities across two different proficiency levels.

VI. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Language teachers and syllabus writers are supposed to incorporate a range of pre-listening activities and change the weight of listening lessons from testing listening into teaching listening so that they could support language learners to enhance their listening performance. Listening skill being one of the problematic areas of learning has been focal centre of attention for some researchers recently. To improve this skill the existence of pre-task activities has been emphasized. The most important implication of the current study for the language classes has to do with the type of pre-task activities employed in classrooms to support learners' performance.

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Lexical Formation Rules and Chatting Language Online in English[*]

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Abstract—**Nowadays, exploring the lexical formation rules of chatting language online is a popular linguistic subject. On one hand, online language is a new way of communication and more and more new words and expressions are created. On the other hand, it still follows the traditional ways of lexical formation rules in some ways.**

Index Terms—**lexical formation, chatting language online, abbreviation, semantic change, coined word**

On the Internet there are innumerable new words coming and dying. The Internet provides a space for individuals to freely create new words for only one particular occasion. What is needed is just a brief explanation about the meaning of the new word the first time you use it. The rapid spread of information on the Internet makes those new words well-known among netizens.

Today, exploring and probing the lexical formation rules of chatting language online is a popular linguistic subject. New as it is, chatting language online follows the traditional way of lexical formation. As David Crystal puts it, "From their construction, they are not really new at all. Even the weirdest neologisms are based on a small set of established principles." (Crystal, 2001,p.67) So according to the commonly used ways of lexical formation, there are: invention/coinage, compounding, blending, abbreviation, acronyms, metanalysis, back-formation, conversion, analogical creation, borrowing, and semantic change. The following part of the section will illustrate whether the lexical change of the chatting language online in English will follow these formation rules.

I. ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYM

"Abbreviations (and acronyms) have long been part of the written language tradition, appearing both in hand written manuscripts and print. Their most common function in both off-line writing and CMC is to conserve energy and/or space." "There is a second socially-based motivation for incorporating abbreviations into CMC messages: to indicate one's membership among net work cognoscenti."(Baron, 2003, p. 21)

From the above statement on abbreviation and acronyms, it can be concluded that the application of the two methods is mainly for two purposes: one is for efficiency and convenience; the other is for identifying one's group membership. Like the use of slang in face-to-face speech or written language, abbreviation and acronyms are a way of indicating group membership.

A. Abbreviation

Abbreviation is also called clipping. That is, a new word is created by cutting the final part, the initial part or cutting off both the initial and the final part with only the middle part left. (Zhuanglin Hu, 1988, p. 178). In online chatting, clipping is also an important way of word formation. There are several common types of clipping in chatting language online.

1. Front clipping: the deletion occurs at the beginning of the word

u --- you   ur --- your   m:male   am --- m   n --- in   k --- ok

<CRUNK_586> r u sure?   ------ Are you sure?

<wondererinhoust> 40/m houston ------ I am 40, male and live in Houston.

JIMMY: 21 / m ------ I am 21, male.

JIMMY: and u ? ------ And you?

monkey_brat0016: do u want to talk ------ Do you want to talk?

johnson4luv2009: u there ------ Are you there?

2. Middle clipping: the deletion occurs at the middle of the word

ft: faint   b/c: because   r: are   wat: what

<Gangstar-586> anybody wanna chat in pvt ------ Does anybody want to chat in private?

<DarK_HerrOr> ur 15 ---- You are 15.

<suger_125> what r u peoples talking about? ---- What are you talking about?

<Gangstar-586> wat <censored> ------ What?

3. End clipping: the deletion occurs at the end of the word.

b --- be   g --- gee   o --- oh   g ---grin   s --- smile

4.   Middle and end clipping: the deletion occurs in the middle and at the end of the word.

pvt: private   b/t: between   pls: please   ez --- easy

B.   Acronym

Acronym is a very general word in the dissertation. In a narrow sense, it is "made up from the first letters of the name of an organization"(Zhuanglin Hu, 1988,p. 178), such as: WB (World Bank), CIA (Central Intelligence Agency). In a broader sense, it is formed by picking the initial letters of words, phrases or even sentences.

In the Internet chat rooms, acronyms are one of the most remarkable features, which save a great deal of energy and time. It is no longer restricted to word or short phrases, but can be sentence long: WDYS (What did you say?). But on the whole, acronyms of phrases constitute a large proportion.

Most chat-room participants are familiar with some of the basic acronyms, e.g.

BRB --- be right back   IMHO --- in my humble opinion

BTW --- by the way   IRL --- in real life

LOL --- laughing out loud   ROTFL --- rolling on the floor laughing

asl --- age, sex, and location

Here is an example copied from the icq chat room:

monkey_brat0016: bye jimmy asl ---- Jimmy, what is your age, sex, and location.

JIMMY: 21 / m ---- I am 21 and male.

JIMMY: and u ? ---- Are you?

Since most people in the chat rooms are unfamiliar with each other. The questions about one's identification are frequently asked. As a result of that, 'asl' will bring chatter more convenience to do so.

Less well-known acronyms appear in the chatting messages sent by restricted groups of users. For instance, "pos" (parent over shoulder) is used by some American teenagers who are in the process of chatting to a friend when a parent walks into the room, and the chatter wants to alert the recipient that open chatting is no longer possible.

In this section, acronyms appearing in English chat rooms are roughly classified into four groups:

1. Individual words can be reduced to two or three letters, like:

pls --- please   pvt --- private   wat --- what   ppl --- people   abt --- about

2. Phrases may be reduced to a sequence of initial letters, which fall into three groups:

a. Reduced noun phrases:

BF --- boy friend   GF --- girl friend   POV --- point of view

FAQ --- frequently asked questions   ASL --- age, sex, and location

OL --- old lady   OM --- old man   FOAF --- friend of a friend

b. Reduced verbal phrases:

ROTFL --- rolling on the floor laughing

LOL --- laughing out loud   HAND --- have a nice day

BRB --- be right back   WB --- welcome back

GA --- go ahead   DTRT --- do the right thing

c.   Reduced prepositional phrases and others:

ASA ---: as soon as possible   AAMOF --- as a matter of fact

BTW --- by the way   IOW --- in other words

IRL --- in real life   OTOH --- on the other hand

AYOR --- at your own risk   FTTT --- from time to time

d.   Reduced adjective phrases:

VG --- very good   BC --- be cool

3.   Sentences can also be reduced to a series of initial letters:

SWDYT --- So what do you think?   PCM --- Please call me.

BRB --- Be right back.   HHOJ --- Ha, ha, only joking.

BBL --- Be back later.   DIKY --- Do I know you?

There is another kind of acronyms using letters to replace the same pronunciation. The most typical example is letter 'C' which is often used to replace 'see' or 'seek', such as in the following examples:

CU --- see you   CUL --- see you later   IC --- I see   CYO --- see you online

ICQ --- I seek you   OIC --- oh, I see

The great number of acronyms in chat-room talks shows that the creation of acronyms follows a principle of economy. That is to achieve the maximum result with the minimum amount of effort, which means that " the short form is preferred to a longer or more involved one" (Zhuanglin Hu, 1988, p.21) This fully explains the role played by acronyms, which are much easier and more time-saving than complete words, phrases and sentences. The emergence of numerous acronyms shows the creativity and wisdom of chat-room participants.

4. Combination of acronyms and special symbols

There are some other ways to express your feelings uniquely. For example, the combination of acronyms and special symbols can be used to create a vivid picture in chatters' mind. For instance, you can find the following ways of expression in a chat room:

K --- Kiss   *H*--- Hug   *W*--- Wink
=w= --- whatever   *g* --- Giggle   C&G --- Chuckle and grin

II. SEMANTIC CHANGE

Change in the meanings of words is known as semantic change and can be viewed as part of the more general phenomenon of lexical change, or change in a language's vocabulary, such as the word "mouse" is originally a noun, which online refers to " a hand-held, button-activated input device that when rolled along a flat surface directs an indicator to move correspondingly about a computer screen, allowing the operator to move the indicator freely, as to select operations or manipulate text or graphics", which is quoted from American Classic Dictionary in Kingsoft dictionary .

Sometimes, in online chat, a new meaning is added to an old word. Change of traditional meaning to form new words greatly expanded the traditional lexicon as shown in the following.

English chat-room language

Words used online	Old meaning	New meaning
hosts	people who receives guests	people that are running the chat room
boot	have the ability to kick a person off due to rude behavior.	to get kicked out of a chat room
poof	the sound of blowing out a candle	when someone leaves a chat room, often seen as *poof* (e.g. He *poofed* in a hurry)
peep this	to steel a quick glance	Listen to this. I've got some interesting news
flame	to burn brightly	to insult someone. Use when a person asks a stupid question, or says something rude to irritate the user of a chat room or message board.

III. INVENTION / COINAGE

Invention or coinage refers to the creation of new words. A word is a broad term in this dissertation. It is a basic unit of vocabulary and is interpreted as a combination of a form with a meaning. Chatting language online is new and original, as a result of the frequent occurrence of numerous coined words (newly created words).

Since the Internet is dynamic and active in human life, many new lexical items come directly from the activities online. "Media texts are fruitful areas for this kind of linguistic playfulness". (Thornborrow, 1998, p.189) Chatting language online, as a new medium language, has put lexical creativity into full play. In a chat room, language can be shaped in different ways by being played with, taken apart and put back together. The Internet enables thousands of netizens to see the coined word at the same time. Therefore, coined words in chat rooms spread rapidly and widely than traditional media. There are some underlying rules as to the word creation in the chatting language online.

A. Capitalization and Bold Forms

1. Capitalized and Bold Forms Standing for Loud Volume
Capitalized and bold forms of words are often used for expressing emphasis or loud volume.

In casual online chats, the use of capitalized and bold words is the common way of marking emphatic stress or increased volume. In chat rooms, messages specially written in such forms are considered to be 'shouting'. Here is an example, in which the powerful feelings and anger are expressed by 'shouting' IN CAPITAL: TOO MUCH USE OF CAPITALS IS BAD MANNERS.

The talk below is collected from an ICQ chat room. The first part of the talk shows that <sunshine> is seeking for someone from German. In order to catch others' attention, she unusually uses words in capitalized form. It gives us a feeling that she/he is trying to speak loud in a quite "noisy" room.

<LULI>'s capitalized words also serves as the same function.
<DAZ>hi room
<DAZ> hi ester
<sunshine> IS ANYBODY FROM GERMAN HERE?
<jamesX> morning
<LULI> I AM LULI OF THE ARGENTINA..
<MommasBoy> Hiya
The example below from a yahoo chat room, offers us another form for emphasis and loud volume, that is, bold words.
monkey_brat0016: ok bye yall
monkey_brat0016: have a good day
monkey_brat0016: happy early easter

In this dissertation, words are defined as a combination of form and meaning, and the capitalized and bold forms which represent loud volume, do have their graphic form and semantic value (fore expressing strong emotion or loud voice). Thus, in the online chat rooms, they are indeed as expressive as traditional words. Though their forms are strange and far away from the traditional word forms in our mind, they are included in the category of newly created words in online chat rooms.

2. Ignoring Initial Capitalization is Not a Way of Word Coinage

With relatively low frequent use of capital letters in sentence initials, most chatting language online disobeys the traditional standard language rules. By observing the dialogues from some chat rooms, it is not difficult to find out that only the dialogues in some professional chat rooms show a relatively better use of initial capitalization. In other more casual chat rooms, it is a common phenomenon that capitalization is ignored. This is probably due to the speaker's habit of saving energy and time. In the following talks which are copied from the ICQ chat rooms, there is not a capitalized word at all:

<Gangstar-586> asl ya'll
<vinniethepooh> only if you dont bring your boyfriend angel
<CRUNK_586> yes i am
<DarK_HerrOr> ur 15
<angeldust78> lol:)
<CRUNK_586> r u sure?
<DarK_HerrOr> maybe 16
<vinniethepooh> or are you still with him?
<Vash> /!\   angeldust78   /!\   hi hun
<DarK_HerrOr> stop dat
<angeldust78> yeh sorry i'm back
<suger_125> hay dark_HerrOr
<vinniethepooh> wb angel
<angeldust78> thx hun
*DarK_HerrOr waves to say hey 2 all

Why is capitalization seldom used in real-time chatting online? Probably, it is due to the "save a keystroke" principle. Usually, most of chatting participants try to send out his or her messages as quickly as possible, in case he or she is interrupted by others. Capital letters are not considered necessary, since people can still understand what others are talking about without capitalization. So it is considered a waste of time to press a "CapsLock" or "shift" key to type a capital letter.

However, no initial capitalization as a way to "save a keystroke", does not convey any additional meaning to other people. Therefore, it is not considered as a way of word formation.

B.   Deviant Use of Punctuation Marks

The original function of punctuation is to help readers make clear understanding of the structure and meaning of a sentence. The deviant use of punctuation is one of the remarkable characteristics of chatting language online, such as the punctuation marks (together with keyboard characters) being used in emoticons, about which there is a detailed explanation in the emoticon section. In this part of the study, we will talk about the repetition or overuse of some particular punctuation marks, like question marks and exclamation, and the omission of some originally necessary punctuation.

1. Expressiveness of Overused Punctuation Marks

The overuse of the punctuations here mainly refers to the repetition of the punctuations at the end of a sentence.

Although in real-time chatting punctuation is often unused, there are some punctuation marks being overused under certain circumstances (like the question mark and exclamation mark):

no more!!!!!   what?????????????   soooooooooo????????   whohe????

Overuse of those marks mainly has two reasons:

a. Expressing strong emotions and feelings, such as feeling puzzled, excited, astonished, or even gloomy.

Expressiveness and emphasis are considered as the major reasons as to inputting such repeated punctuation marks. It is an exaggerated way to express the sender's doubts as in the case of the question mark, and the senders' surprise as in the overused exclamation marks. The repetition of punctuations like question marks and exclamation marks is expressive, and indeed conveys a certain degree of meaning, as illustrated in the sample:

<CRUNK_586> im on spring break!!!!!!!!!!
<Gangstar-586> <censored> all!!!

Chat room talks " lacks the facial expressions, gestures, and conventions of body posture and distance which are so critical in expressing opinions and attitude and in moderating social relationships,"(Crystal, 2001,p. 36) So the adoption of repeated punctuation marks for expressing emotions are giving fresh semantic value to the chat-room talks and lead to the introduction of emoticons or smileys.

b. Sometimes, overuse of punctuation marks also reflects the length of time that the relevant key is held down. In this case, the exact number of the repeated punctuation marks has little to do with the meaning, and it will not be considered

a part of lexical category.
   2.   Omission of Punctuation is Unexpressive
<angeldust78> lol
<vinniethepooh> i c
<douglas> hi room
<angeldust78> it should b poking its tongue out
<vinniethepooh> what will you do for a job
<angeldust78> yes hun
<vinniethepooh> if you get out of the biz
<angeldust78> when
<vinniethepooh> after real estate

As illustrated in the sample above, those sentences sent by different persons do not have a single punctuation at all.

The "save keystroke" principle is the major reason for most netizons to omit punctuations in their messages, especially when it will save more than one keystroke (such as: two keystrokes are needed when typing question marks).

The omission of punctuation is just a time-saving stroking method. It does not convey any extra meaning to the other chatters, so it is not expressive. As a result of that, according to the related lexical theories, omission of punctuation is not considered as part of lexicon.

IV.   THE FUTURE OF CHATTING LANGUAGE ONLINE

Since language reflects social environment and social change, it is not surprising that the social innovation (such as the development of information technology) will bring a great impact on the way of communication. Internet is a dynamic, creative system, so chatting language online is also an evolving language variety.

Internet users are exploring more and more ways of expression to chat online in order to fit different occasions. There are a lot of new words emerged in the Internet chat rooms and only time can tell which one will last long, and which one will be quickly forgotten. It is hard to predict the future change of chatting language online. Therefore, it seems to be wise to warn the readers that some chatting words and expressions are easy to be out of date.

What is clear is that a number of present chatting lexicons on the Internet are beginning to penetrate into traditional spoken and written language. Since chatting language online "is physically a written medium, it is not surprising that some of the linguistic conventions common in more informal types … are finding their way into traditional off-line writing. Abbreviations and acronyms, devil-may-care spellings, are increasingly showing up in student written composition." (Baron, 2003, p. 24) Taking spoken language as an example, some American adolescents, in face-to-face conversation, uses such words as "We were all ROTLing when the teacher walked in" (Baron, 2003, p. 23) to mean that "we were all rolling on the floor laughing".

Historically, it is common for new terms or concepts deriving from developments in technology to find their way into traditional off-line language. Chatting language online is beginning to have similar impact on traditional formal language. The new, informal linguistic form of language is extending the range of traditional language. Online chatters have been continuously creating and introducing new chatting words and expressions into traditional established vocabulary. Formal standard language will be viewed in a completely new way, by virtue of the existence of chatting language online. Therefore, in the future, further research on semeiology, pragmatics, comparative study, etc, need be done in this new and challenging field.

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Learning English Conditional Structures

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Abstract—This research is an endeavour to examine problems EFL learners encountered in learning English conditional structures at University for Natural Resources and Environment, Ho Chi Minh City (UNRE-HCMC) as well as causes behind these problems. These two aims were reached through responses to the survey questionnaire and the interviews. The influence of the mother tongue on learning English conditional structures should be taken into due consideration in the course of teaching and learning English conditional structures.

Index Terms—English conditional structure, language learning, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

English is deemed to be the only language that truly links the whole world together. Without English, the whole world may not be as united as it is today. With respect to the vast global presence of this language, 85% of international organizations in the world make official use of English, at least 85% of the world's films are in English and more than 65% of scientific papers in several important academic fields are published in English.

English language has four fundamental skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing and a good learner is one who can master these skills. However, in order to have good knowledge of these skills, the learners need a good understanding of grammar, which is also the foundation for learning the other aspects. Of all basic grammatical points, English conditional structure is an important one which should be put into special consideration. English conditional structure plays an important part in English Grammar and mastering it contributes greatly to students' English performance. English conditionals require coordination of verb forms in both the if and the result clauses and the fact that verb forms often do not retain their normal temporal meaning makes it even more complex. English conditional structures were selected in the current research for their structural complexity for ESL (English as second language) and EFL (English as foreign language) students (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999). In a survey of the most challenging English grammar teaching task encountered by ESL teachers in Los Angeles area, Covitt (1976) concluded that conditional sentences ranked fifth. In reality, most students at University for Natural Resources and Environment, Ho Chi Minh City (UNRE-HCMC), also find it difficult to understand this point well. These shortcomings are caused not only by themselves but also by other factors such as teaching methods and materials. What has been above-mentioned encourages the author to conduct this research with the aim of investigating the existing problems and helping students get over them by providing some implications for teaching and learning English conditional structure. This research is guided by the two ensuing questions:

1. What are the problems that the EFL students tend to encounter in learning English conditional structures?
2. What are the possible causes of these problems?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Factors affecting the students' learning of grammar encompass learner, teacher, and grammar materials.

The learner

The learner plays an important in her/his second language success. Besides the aptitude of each person, which is the ability to make and recall associations between words and phrases in a native and a second language (Gass and Selinker, 1994), the learners also need to take risks and have appropriate learning strategies. Risk taking has been defined as a situation where an individual has to make a decision involving choice between alternatives of different desirability; the outcome of the choice is uncertain; there is a possibility of failure. To say that an individual is a risk taker is to say that she or he generally is more willing to take risks than the average person. Good language learners must be willing to guess, to appear foolish in order to communicate, and to use what knowledge they do have of the target language in order to create novel utterances. Thus, risk taking should be based on a background of general behaviour. And learning strategy is steps or actions taken by learners to improve the development of their language skills. Moreover, Gass and Selinker (1994) also emphasized the importance of students' aptitude in the second language acquisition. They stated that the relationship between aptitude and second language learning success is an important one since opinions about aptitude can have enormous implications in our everyday lives. If aptitude measures are used to discourage individuals from studying foreign languages and if the measures are not accurate, then certain students will be unfairly prevented from receiving whatever advantages may accrue from a knowledge of other languages.

The teacher

The teacher is the dynamic force of the school. A school without a teacher is just like a body without the soul. All the teachers who get prepared will know how to set up rules in the classroom. The learners who are motivated will learn another language faster and to a greater degree (Gass and Selinker, 1994). Motivation appears to be the second strongest predictor of success, trailing only aptitude (Skehan, 1989). Four aspects related to motivation encompass a goal, effortful behaviour, a desire to attain the goal and favourable attitudes toward the activity in question. So being able to master an English grammar point depends a lot on the teacher's motivation.

Grammar materials

After some hours in the class, the students have to learn a lot from the coursebooks, especially for grammar subject, grammar materials have a crucial role in helping the learners better understand. So the differences in explaining one grammar point of different books will make the learners confused.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants were 98 EFL students at University for Natural Resources and Environment, Ho Chi Minh City (UNRE-HCMC), who involved a questionnaire survey and a test. The student sample was described in terms of gender, age and English-learning experience in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
STUDENTS' BACKGROUND INFORMATION

	Student sample		
Size		98	
	Male		Female
Gender	6 (6.12%)		92 (93.88%)
	Under 18	18-20	Over 20
Age group	3 (3.06%)	67 (68.37%)	28 (28.57%)
English-learning experience	3 years		7 years
	5 (5.10%)		93 (94.90%)

In order to get more necessary information about the students' understanding of how to use English conditional structures, all 15 teachers of the Department of Foreign Languages were invited to take part in interviews.

B. Instruments

Survey questionnaire

In order to get information from a large number of subjects, questionnaire was utilized as the main instrument for the study. According to Nunan (1994, p. 143), the questionnaire is a relatively popular means of collecting data. It enables the researcher to collect data in field settings, and the data themselves are amenable to quantification. For this reason, questionnaire is the most widely-used technique for obtaining information from subjects.

The questionnaire for students was composed of two parts. The first part contained some questions with four possible answers; the readers just chose one of them for each question. These questions were aimed to gather information about their general background, their knowledge about English conditional structures and some common mistakes that may be often committed by students. The second part was open questions. These questions were primarily focused on the English materials which were currently used in teaching and learning English Grammar, their ways of practicing English conditional structures and some more possible mistakes that may happen in their learning process.

Interviews

All the questions used for the interview with teachers focused on four points: The first part was composed of two questions focusing on the informants' awareness of their learners' English background; the second part sought to examine the informants' opinions on their learners' common mistakes in learning English conditional structures; the next part was to ask the informants to find out the reasons why students often committed such mistakes; and the final part aimed to get the informants' suggestions for helping the students effectively learn English conditional structures.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Students' Responses to Questionnaire

As displayed in Table 1, nearly all the informants have been studying English for seven years (93 out of 98 informants had 7 years, and the rest had 3 years), and the aspects of English they studied most in high schools was grammar. This fact shows that English conditional structures are no longer strange or new to these students, and studying at this university gives them more chances to review and apply this point more in writing and speaking. However, English grammar is so complicated that students still make lots of mistakes despite the fact that they did spend a lot of time on learning it at high school. The data in Table 2 shows that students' grammar knowledge is still the problem needed to be paid due consideration.

TABLE 2.
STUDENTS' EVALUATION OF THEIR ENGLISH GRAMMAR KNOWLEDGE AND PERFORMANCE

Question 6	Very good	Fairly good	Poor	Very poor	Total
Evaluate your knowledge of English grammar	0 (0%)	48 (48.98%)	47 (47.96%)	3 (3.06%)	98 (100%)
Question 7	Yes/ Usually	Sometimes	No/Rarely	Unsure	Total
Did you get good results in English grammar tests?	8 (8.16%)	73 (74.49%)	10 (10.20%)	7 (7.15%)	98 (100%)

Students' understanding of English conditional structures

Questions 8 and 9 were designed to examine the difficulties students may encounter while acquiring aspects of English conditional structures (see Table 3).

TABLE 3.
UNDERSTANDING ASPECTS OF ENGLISH CONDITIONAL STRUCTURES

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always	Total
Question 8 Have difficulty in distinguishing conditional sentence types	3 (3.06%)	14 (14.29%)	56 (57.14%)	15 (15.31%)	10 (10.20%)	98 (100%)
Question 9 Have difficulty in understanding and using conditional adverbs	9 (9.18%)	46 (46.94%)	33 (33.68%)	10 (10.20%)	0 (0%)	98 (100%)

The data in Table 3 reveals that only 3 (3.06%) of the respondents never had any difficulties in using the three basic types of English conditional sentence while 56 (57.14%) still couldn't recognize how to use these conditional sentence types.

Question 9 focused on the conditional adverbs embracing if, only if, unless, otherwise. 9 (9.18%) and 46 (46.94%) respondents chose 'never' or 'rarely' for the difficulty in using conditional adverbs respectively. These high percentages prove that these aspects of English conditional structures are easier than the distinguishing conditional sentence types. 0 (0%) respondent made the choice of 'always', only 10 (10.20%) chose 'usually' while the higher percentage 33 (33.68%) was for 'sometimes'.

Although our informants spent a long time studying English grammar at high school, they didn't have enough time for speaking, listening or writing, their understanding of English conditional structures still needs to be put into consideration. Teachers must find out whether this problem comes from the teachers' teaching method in the classroom or from some grammar materials or this is affected by their mother tongue.

All these were examined through questions 14 and 15 in the survey questionnaire. Responses to these two questions are exhibited in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
UNDERSTANDING ENGLISH CONDITIONAL STRUCTURES FROM THE TEACHER'S INSTRUCTION OR GRAMMAR BOOKS

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always	Total
Question 10 Have difficulty in understanding the English conditional structures explained by the teacher in the classroom	3 (3.06%)	28 (28.57%)	23 (23.47%)	40 (40.82%)	4 (4.08%)	98 (100%)
Question 11 Have difficulty in understanding English conditional structures from grammar books	0 (0%)	13 (13.27%)	18 (18.37%)	52 (53.06%)	15 (15.30%)	98 (100%)

The data in Table 4 shows that the percentage of students choosing 'usually' for question 10 is so high, this is 40 (40.82%) of all 98 informants, 4 (4.08%) out of them chose 'always', they couldn't be successful in understanding English conditional structures. Only 3 (3.06%) or 28 (28.57%) claimed that English conditional structures were not difficult since it was clearly explained by the teacher right in the classroom.

How about English conditional structures presented in grammar books? Books have been considered as the best teacher or the best friends to the students. They don't have much time in the classroom while the knowledge of English conditional structures is so wide, both the time and the ways for self studying at home are necessary. The informants also spend much time on learning that point through grammar books. However, up to 52 (53.06%) students reported that the explanations of English conditional structures were not easy to understand; and 15 (15.30%) of them had to admit that they always had problems with getting to understand it from such materials. For this question, none of them (0%) claimed that they understood well what is written in grammar books about this grammar point.

For all the difficulties that the informants in the study discussed above, some questions were posed to find out the possible causes of these problems. Question 12 was designed to see that if the first language also affected the students' understanding of English conditional structures (see Table 5).

Question 12	Strongly agree	Agree	No opinion	Disagree	Total
English conditional structures are difficult since they are different from those in your first language	3 (3.06%)	74 (75.52%)	12 (12.24%)	9 (9.18%)	98 (100%)
Question 13	Strongly agree	Agree	No opinion	Disagree	Total
Time for presenting English conditional structures in the classroom is too short	4 (4.08%)	78 (79.59%)	7 (7.15%)	9 (9.18%)	98 (100%)

While 12 out of 98 respondents had no opinion about this, 9 (9.18%) of them disagreed, the rest of 77 (78.58%) acknowledged that their native language (Vietnamese) really had a strong influence on their acquisition of English conditional structures, seven of whom expressed their opinion a little more strongly by choosing the option 'strongly agree'. All these percentages prove that the mother tongue plays a crucial role in the EFL learning and teaching.

Question 13 sought to investigate the learners' perception towards the influence of time for presenting English conditional structures in classroom. The percentage of students agreeing and strongly agreeing that the time was too short is higher than that of question 12 with 78 agreements and 4 strong agreements. Only 9 (9.18%) of them disagreed. In fact, it is known that one grammar point can't be understood well if the time for presenting as well as practice is too short.

Students' mistakes on English conditional structures

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always	Total
Question 14	11	6	43	28	10	98 (100%)
Using the wrong tenses	(11.23%)	(6.12%)	(43.88%)	(28.57%)	(10.20%)	
Question 15	44	24	16 (16.33%)	14	0	98
Using the wrong conditional adverbs	(44.90%)	(24.49%)		(14.28%)	(0%)	(100%)

Responding to Question 14, over half of the respondents (10.20% always, 28.57 % usually, 43.88 % sometimes) reported that this is really a serious mistake. It happened to nearly all our students. Just a few of them, 11students (11.23%) never made this mistake and 6 of them rarely got it. Through these percentages, it can't be denied that the English background knowledge of students is important. It helps them a lot in achieving the further knowledge.

The data in Table 6 also illustrates the adoption of wrong conditional adverbs. This is surprisingly high with 41 (41.84%) and 17 (17.35%) for 'sometimes' and 'usually', fewer of them never forgot it.

B. Teachers' Responses to the Interview

Firstly, all 15 teachers in the interview expressed their depressing feelings when they had to teach grammar to a lot of students whose English backgrounds were not very good and quite different from each other. All of them strongly claimed that they had tried to think of a various ways to teach this grammar point, but they were in vain. Only a few students were up to their expectation. They were afraid that if they concentrated much on low-performing students in order to help them get good knowledge of it, this would make the others whose English grammar were fairly good feel bored, which would lead to the depressing atmosphere in the classroom. Otherwise, if they taught so fast, just some good students could get the point while other worse students couldn't keep pace with, they were certainly left behind. So, it is really difficult for teachers to transfer this point successfully to all the students and the time would be not enough for other points in one semester with only 45 teaching periods (one period for 45 minutes).

Secondly, most of the informants reported to the interviewer that they were surprised to see that the EFL students in the university had a lot of problems in using conditional adverbs. These were taught carefully at high school, so they thought these mistakes couldn't be made again at university. The teachers were expecting some more other mistakes which were not very common and much more difficult than these.

Next, according to the teachers, there were a number of causes to these mistakes. The first and most important cause was the way of teaching and learning English grammar at high school, which made students find it hard to have a clear understanding of how to use English conditional structures in practice, especially in writing. The next cause might be the influence of the native language. The last but not least was our students' study behaviour. In fact, they didn't pay much attention to learn English grammar and they didn't spend enough time on practicing grammar points, which later caused them to forget or to be less confident of its formation or its usage.

Finally, in the interview, our teachers also suggested some implications for teaching this point at University for Natural Resources and Environment, Ho Chi Minh City (UNRE-HCMC). For them, the allotted time for this should be thought more for each class with different levels; the teachers should manage themselves and their teaching method so as to make students enjoy the class.

V. CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

In order to be successful in teaching English conditional structures, teachers of English try their utmost:

• to know learners' needs, their English levels in order to find out the best way to teach them, and also to make them enjoy in grammar learning.

• to select the best and easy-to-understand materials for students to learn in class and at home.

• to diversify ways to present or practice grammatical items in class to motivate students to learn.

Speaking about the role of motivation in teaching and learning a foreign language, Gass and Selinker (1994, p. 250, 251) stated: "A social psychological factor frequently used to account for differential success in learning a second language is motivation. This has an intuitive appeal. It makes sense that individuals who are motivated will learn another language faster and to a greater degree.'

Effective teachers of English as a second or foreign language must have a mastering of the content they are teaching – the English language itself. This entails much more than being a native speaker of English. All teachers always improve themselves with all the knowledge of English grammar. They have to master every aspect of English grammar as much as they can. It can't be denied that the teachers with well-prepared lesson plans will have more chances to be successful than others with any preparation. The knowledge is so wide, but good teachers are ones who can find out ways to transmit all necessary points to students in short allotted time with their students' clear understanding as the final outcome.

Whether students could get one grammar point successfully or not, it completely depends much on themselves. All of them must be aware 5 periods spent for teaching and learning English conditional structures in class is indeed not enough for them to thoroughly master such a grammatical point. Apart from carefully learning at school, they have to manage time for self studying outside the classroom and at home with their own materials. When they find difficulties in understanding and using English conditional structures, they have to note them down and soon ask teacher to explain what they find it difficult to understand or use. Besides, it is a must to remember that they need practice a lot for any grammatical point, especially English conditional structures because this is complicated with various cases. Students should also be aware that in the teaching or learning process, there are stages such as presentations and explanations, and practices. In the presentation and explanation stages, teachers will try their best to present and explain every grammar point in a simple and clear way so that they may get the point. But it is advisable that in order to let them find it less difficult in understanding the point, they had better prepare themselves at home by reading this point provided in the school grammatical material.

The study was carried out with the assistance of only 15 teachers of the Department of Foreign Languages at University for Natural Resources and Environment, Ho Chi Minh City (UNRE-HCMC), and 98 EFL students. The research was designed only to find out students' mistakes in learning English conditional structures. The study was also expected to discover causes to these mistakes with the hope of improving students' understanding of this grammar point. Further studies, however, can be carried out with other data collection methods in addition to questionnaire or interview used in this research. Class observation to obtain data on how teachers transmit all knowledge of English conditional structures to students in class, or questionnaire to all the teachers to get more necessary information for the study.

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The Comparative Study on English and Chinese Intonation

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Abstract—**Intonation, being the essential element and external form of a language, serves the human beings primarily as a medium of communication. The contrastive analysis of English and Chinese intonation has great significance in the development of contrastive phonology and improvement of foreign language learning and teaching practice. This article attempts to make a contrastive study of English and Chinese intonation from two aspects: structure and function. The differences and similarities between English and Chinese intonation can clarify some misunderstandings in both English and Chinese intonation teaching.**

Index Terms—**intonation, contrastive analysis of English and Chinese, structure, function**

I. INTRODUCTION

Intonation has long been considered as an important linguist phenomenon in verbal communication, where it commonly serves the function of enabling words to convey the intended meaning. Halliday once mentioned: 'We can not fully describe the grammar of spoken English without reference to contrasts expounded by intonation.' It is not what we said; it is how we said it. In foreign language learning, the special significance of intonation is even more outstanding. It is quite common that what most easily and reliably distinguish an advanced foreign language learner from the native speakers is often not his words or expressions but his intonational performance.

Intonation is not an area of language to which much attention was paid before the twentieth century. So far the three most influential approaches to English intonation are the configurational approach of the British tradition, the level approach of the American tradition, and most recently the AM approach in the generative framework. Within a history of up to four or five hundred years, a huge volume of literature in each approach has been produced. Compared with English, Chinese is a typical tone contour language. In Chinese, tone and intonation co- exist in the intonation F0 curves. Among them, tone is lexically specified. Therefore, a great many questions will arise regarding how Chinese intonation is actually formed. A great number of theories and models concerning Chinese intonation have been proposed so far since the late twentieth of the last century.

As for the contrastive study of English and Chinese intonation, the study started in 1933 when Yuan-Ren Chao published his article "a Preliminary Study of English Intonation (with American Variants) and its Chinese Equivalent". In Britain, Palmer divided English intonation into three parts: head, nucleus and tail. Based on Palmer's understanding and for the convenience of comparison with Chinese intonation, Chao further analyzed Chinese tone group into "Head" and "Body". "Head" includes anacrusis and main head. "Anacrusis" refers to the unstressed syllables before the first stressed syllable in the head and the remaining part in it is called "Main Head". "Body" is composed of nucleus and tail.

II. A COMPARISON OF THE STRUCTURES OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE INTONATION

A. English Intonation Structure

The unit of intonation in English is the tone unit. Other names for it include tone-group, sense-group, intonation-group, intonational phrase and intonation contour.

In the light of intonation theory, a single English utterance or sentence may be considered as a tone unit or a combination of two or more tone units, if it can be said with a complete tone-pattern and conveys a comparatively complete meaning. In many cases, in conversational English, there is a tendency for the tone units to correspond to sense groups or major grammatical chunks, and this can be taken as the basic unmarked pattern: neutral in tonality. However, at the same time there is no reliable relationship between a tone unit and "sentence" or "clause" or any other kind of grammatical item, because the tone unit is a meaningful unit in its own right. The tone unit is one unit of information in the message that the speaker is communicating and can be of any length. The particular meaning the speaker wishes to convey under a particular context may make him feel it necessary to break a single clause into two or more tone units, or to combine two or more clauses into one single tone unit.

Tone units enable the listener to isolate pitch patterns by defining where one pattern ends and the next begins and help the listener understand messages. Therefore it is important to identify tone units in the communication. A few general rules on dividing a message into tone units on phonetic grounds are as follows:
a. Pause

This is the most frequently used criterion in tone unit identification. A pause, long or short, may signal a major boundary, principally between clauses or between the subject and the predicate. During the pause the speaker can get a fresh breath for the following tone unit. But we can detect some other criteria as oral indicators of tone unit boundaries. The main points below are based on Cruttenden.

b. Pre-head

The presence of the unaccented pre-head generally indicates the beginning of a tone unit, for example: "I saw John yesterday/and he was just off to London.//",the most likely place for the onset in the second tone unit is on "just" and the unaccented syllables in the pre-head are like to be uttered more quickly than those elsewhere in the sentence (and, specifically, more quickly than those at the end of yesterday).The sudden acceleration beginning at "and" indicates that these three syllables in the pre-head i.e. "and he was", are anacrustic and that they mark the beginning of a new tone unit.

c. Tail

The nuclear syllable, as well as those in the tail of a tone unit, will often be lengthened. In the above example, both "yesterday" and "London" are lengthened suggesting a tone unit boundary.

d. Pitch

This criterion concerns the pitch of unaccented syllables. A change in pitch level and/ or pitch direction among unaccented syllables in the tail of the previous tone unit and those in the pre-head of the following tone unit signals generally a tone unit boundary.After the falling tone's low tail syllables, there will be a slight step-up to the pitch level of the pre-head of a new tone unit. Following rising tones, a step-down can be heard to the pitch level of any unaccented syllable of the pre-head of the next tone unit.

e. Nucleus

Finally, and most importantly a tone unit must contain at least a nuclear syllable or nucleus with pitch accent. Pauses do not always mark tone unit boundaries. A word (group) separated from the rest of the sentence by a pause but containing no such a syllable at all does not constitute a tone unit.

B.   Chinese Intonation Structure

The opinions diverge on the unit of Chinese intonation. Some introduce the term sentence intonation and investigate Chinese intonation at sentence level while the others refer to the notion of intonation-group and separate some prosodic units on the "defining features" they believe.

And some other sentence intonation holders did not point this out directly, though all of their study units accorded with sentence. For example, Yuan-Ren Chao proposed "algebraic sum" theory, holding that the tones are integrated with intonation just like small ripples riding on large waves, the relationship between which is a kind of "algebraic sum", but his attention was mainly concentrated on the last syllable of a phrase or a sentence, while ignored other parts of the utterance. Prosodic units holders are mainly the scholars in the Institute of Linguistics, who try to define the minimal intonation units based on tone interaction or some symbols occurring on the F0 curves.

But this divergence may ultimately turn out to be a trivial question, since they are barely different methods to analyze intonation and do not exclude each other from the root. To a certain extent, they may reconcile with each other, i.e. a state of coexistence. For example, they all admit that pitch accent and boundary tone at sentence-final are essential to Chinese intonation. Since the patterns of Chinese intonation mainly occur repeatedly at the sentence level, it is appropriate to take sentence as the carrier for Chinese intonation.

C.   Contrastive Analysis of Intonation Structures of English and Chinese

a. Similarities

1. The components of intonation structure are similar in both languages, including four parts: pre-head, head, nucleus and tail. Nucleus is essential in intonation structure, which is usually perceived as the most prominent part in the sentence and plays the most important part in showing intonation information. Pre-head is at the beginning of a sentence and usually contains a few weak syllables. The function of pre-head in both languages is also similar. Both languages have two kinds of pre-head: low pre-head and high pre-head and use pre-head as the modifier of intonation meanings. Low pre-head is usually regarded as normal pre-head and adds no meaning to the tone, however, high pre-head is usually used to add vivacity, liveliness, excitement and vehemence to whatever other attitudes the nucleus expresses.

2. The intonation patterns are similar in both languages, including four kinds: rising, falling, fluctuation and level. Some of the intonation patterns also have the similar meanings. The falling intonation in both languages can be used to show definiteness, completeness, and command. The rising intonation can be used to show question and doubt. The level intonation can be used to show something normal and routine. The fluctuational intonation can be used to show complicated moods and implying meanings.

b. Differences

1. The unit of intonation is different. The unit of intonation in English is tone unit. An English sentence is composed by one or more tone units. Each of them has a nucleus and then a nuclear tone. The unit of intonation in Chinese is often referred to as a sentence and a Chinese sentence is often marked by a boundary tone at the sentence final. This difference impresses us that an English sentence seems to involve more pitch movements for intonation purpose than the Chinese one and in reverse, the main body of a Chinese sentence seems to be level though it may be ended by a

remarkable boundary tone.

2. The components of intonation structure play different parts in forming intonation patterns. In English, nucleus carries the main burden of the pitch movement in the tone unit. It covers the widest pitch range, so if, for example, the tone unit is on a falling tone the nucleus will have a greater falling movement than any of the other syllables. It will fall more steeply and over a wider range. The nucleus is the most important part of a tone unit because it expresses the speaker's feeling, mood, attitude, emotion and the meaning he wishes to express .Nucleus is also essential in Chinese intonation, however, the change of intonation height is often shown in the sentence final, especially in rising and falling intonation. So the intonation patterns are often shown in the tail, sometimes in the nucleus, even in the pre-head. Because of this difference, Chinese students usually pay more attention to the tail when forming English intonation patterns and don't get used to raising or falling the intonation from the nucleus and spreading over the tail. Therefore, helping Chinese student to master the correct way to pronounce nuclear tone in English and remove Chinese negative transfer is our focus in the teaching of English pronunciation.

III. A COMPARISON OF THE FUNCTION OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE INTONATION

Intonation is an essential component in language communication. Spoken language consists not only of grammatical forms, but also communicates complex layers of person to person emotions, cognitive and hierarchical organization of topics, and cooperative signals to indicate degree of understanding and the success of the communication. Like the other branches of linguistics, the phonological study is not only involved in the linguistic structures, but also in their functions. After all, language is the primary means of communication, whereas communication is the main function of language. Consequently, the author attempts to make a contrastive analysis between English and Chinese intonation from the functional perspective in the following section.

It has been established that intonation helps the speakers to convey information effectively. When we talk to someone, we don't just exchange ideas, we interact with them—there is a social relationship between the speaker and the listener. To hold a conversation, we need to know not only the language for the functions we want to express, but also the rules for interacting—when we can speak, when we can interrupt, how we can check what the other person has said, how we can connect our speech with what has gone before, and many others. To put it in the broadest possible terms, we can see that intonation, which is one part of the structure of interaction, makes it easier for a listener to understand what a speaker is trying to convey. For this reason, we shall investigate in this chapter what functions intonation can exercise.

Descriptions on the functions of intonation may vary, but what we are concerned with is whatever helps us to facilitate learning and communication. Ideally, we shall focus on the functions that are regarded as most important. These may include attitudinal function, discoursal function, grammatical function and accentual function.

A. The Attitudinal Function of Intonation

In 1968, Cook has pointed out, "A mistake in intonation like a grammatical mistake is a mistake in one's use of the language. However, an Englishman who hears a mistake in intonation does not react in the same way as when he hears a grammatical mistake; he is prepared to make allowances for the foreigner's faulty grammar but he does not make the same allowances for the foreigner's intonation. Instead he will think, not that the foreigner is making a mistake, but that he possesses the wrong attitude." Cook attaches great importance to the attitudinal function of intonation. Intonation enables us to express emotions and attitudes when we speak, which adds a special kind of meaning to spoken language. This is often called the attitudinal function of intonation. One sentence spoken in different ways can be labeled by different moods or attitudes, such as happy, sad, excited, angry, etc. For example, most English books agree on some basic attitudinal meanings of tunes: fall means finality, definiteness; rise means general questions, listing, more to follow and encouraging; fall-rise means uncertainty, doubt; rise-fall means surprise, being impressed. And the carriers of this function in English intonation mainly are width of pitch range, key, loudness, speed, and voice quality. (Peter Roach, 2000)

B. The Discoursal Function of Intonation

This is a comparatively new area of study in the description of natural speech. Not long ago linguistic analysis is usually linked to the sentence as the maximum unit of grammar. But the study of discourse attempts to look at the larger contexts in which sentences occur. Looking at the way intonation is used in specific situations highlights the crucial role that context plays in determining what people say and how they say things. The way an interaction develops will depend heavily on such factors as who is involved in it and what the relation is between the speakers, the topic of the conversation and how much the participants know about the details of the topic and so on. One role of intonation is to help lubricate and regulate this interaction by signaling certain features of discourse.

C. The Grammatical Function of Intonation

"The listener is better able to recognize the grammar and syntactic structure of what is being said by using the information contained in the intonation: for example, such things as the placement of boundaries between phrases, clauses or sentences, the difference between questions and statements and the use of grammatical subordination may be indicated. This has been called the grammatical function of intonation."(Peter Roach, 2000, p.109).

D.   The Accentual Function of Intonation

"Intonation helps to produce the effect of prominence on syllables that need to be perceived as stressed, and in particular the placing of tonic stress on a particular syllable marks out the word to which it belongs as the most important in the tone-unit. This has been called the accentual function of intonation."(Peter Roach, 2000, p.75)It implies that the nucleus is the most important part in a tone unit and the placement of nucleus can indicate different information focus in the discourse. Therefore, the accentual function of intonation can be understood as the focus function.

IV.   CONCLUSION

Intonation, being the essential element and external form of a language, serves the human beings primarily as a medium of communication. Contrastive analysis is always recognized as an effective approach for language learning and teaching, especially on phonological level. Therefore, the contrastive analysis of English and Chinese intonation has great significance in foreign language learning and teaching field.

A successful comparison of Chinese and English intonation is obviously of great significance in both theoretical and practical areas. In the process of comparing, some "vague" features of intonation in one language are clarified with the reference to some "prominent" features in another language. And another, some researching notions and means on the intonation study of one language may facilitate the study in another language. Besides this, the practical significance of the comparison is especially remarkable. It will be of a big help to not only the English learners in China but also the English natives who are learning English. Both of them should overcome the transition of the intonation patterns of their mother tongue into the target language, and what's more, the strong influence of tone-pattern in Chinese should not be neglected either in their studies.

In this article, I made a contrastive analysis of the intonation system in English and Chinese from two aspects: the structure and function. After the comparison, the similarities and differences between the intonation systems of the two languages are easy to recognize. My article attempts to realize the significance and apply the study to foreign or second language learning and teaching.

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The Efficiency of Extensive Reading Project (ERP) in an Iranian EFL Context

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Abstract—**The importance of input and exposure to simplified language for low level learners has been the focus of a lot of attention as a way to facilitate the process of language learning and acquisition. One way to help such learners is to have them read many simplified texts in the Language, a method which is called extensive reading. Many studies have shown the effectiveness of such programs in improving learners' reading proficiency. The main goal of the present study was to examine the effects of Extensive Reading Project on Iranian low level learners. To find its effects, of 67 EFL students who had failed their first reading course, 40 students were selected randomly and were divided randomly into one experimental and one control group. A standard reading proficiency test (pre-test) confirmed the homogeneity of both groups. Then during a program which took ten weeks to be accomplished, participants of the experimental group were asked to read ten interesting stories in English as a part of their reading class, while the members of control group continued their traditional reading class. At the end, the same standard reading proficiency test, as post-test, was introduced to both control and experimental groups. The obtained results revealed that there was a significant difference between the performances of both groups; in other words, extensive reading (ER) had a positive effect on the reading proficiency achievement of low level EFL students.**

Index Terms—**Extensive Reading Project (ERP), simplified language, low level learners, EFL students**

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading in a foreign or a second language is usually a slow and tough task (Anderson,1999; Jensen,1986; Segalowitz, Poulsen & Komoda, 1991); on the other hand, its role as a valuable and immediate source of input for language learners especially foreign language learners can not be neglected. The issue is more critical for low–level learners as Nuttel (1996, p.127) introduces a "vicious circle" to refer to the learners who fail in maintaining an acceptable command of reading comprehension ability. Low–level learners do not read much, and if they do not read much, their reading skill will not improve. If they fail to improve their reading comprehension, they can not enjoy reading, leading to frustration and disappointment. Consequently the problem for low–level readers is at least bi–dimensional: lack of needed language competence and lack of motivation.

The value of Extensive Reading Program (ERP) has been confirmed as a program to enhance both motivation and reading comprehension as well as general language competence in various contexts. For example Krashen (1995) define the program as the one in which learners "do self-selected reading with only minimal accountability, writing brief summaries on what they have read" (192). Also with extensive reading, learners are exposed to "large quantities of materials within their linguistic competence" (Grabe & Stoller, 1997, p. 102) at the same time "pleasurable" (Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Taguchi & Gorsuch, 2002).

Based on "comprehensible input hypothesis", Kerashen (1984) argues that extensive reading can facilitate language learning mostly because the program is graded based on learners' self – perceived level. Since input or the texts are easy enough for the learners to understand, it may break our ugly "vicious circle", resulting in generating enough motivation to read more and more and to be a better reader. Extensive reading, as a result, in line with Kerashen's hypothesis, offers a large number of graded interesting materials in a relaxed and anxiety-free learning environment.

Extensive reading (ER) can improve general language competence especially in FL contexts where sources of authentic input are more limited (Gebhard, 1996; Redfield, 1999). Extensive Reading is said to improve learners' fluency - the ability to automatically recognize an increasing number of words and phrases, especially and effectively involved in comprehension of L2 texts (Grabe, 1991; Paren, 1996; Perfetti, Van Dyke & Hart, 2001). Elley (1991) perceives ER as a way to fill "the exposure gap" between L1 and L2 language input (p.404). Based on several studies, he concluded that there was "a spread of effect from reading competence to other language skills – writing, speaking and control over syntax." According to Day and Bamford (1998) through authentic reading, L2 and FL readers can acquire both linguistic and world knowledge to improve their reading skills.

ER can enhance vocabulary knowledge. Based on the results of a study done by Nagy, Herman and Anderson (1985), more words can be learnt from getting the students to spend time on silent reading of interesting books than controlled introducing number of new words in each class. In a recent study by Pigada and Schmitt (2006), the effect of extensive

reading on vocabulary acquisition were examined and the results supported the effectiveness of the method. The study suggested that spelling was strongly enhanced during ER.

It can improve writing. Both L1 studies (Krashen, 1984; Stotsky, 1983) and L2 studies of ERP in different situations such as Hafiz and Tudor (1990) in UK and Pakistan and Robb and Susser (1989) showed the significant improvement of learners' written work in addition to other language skills.

ER can be effective in increasing learners' motivation. By definition in extensive reading, texts are graded and selected based on the learners present level, so their ability to accomplish the task is to a great extent guaranteed. The topics are selected by the learners themselves; they can choose the ones they enjoy; as a result, reading will be both motivating and interesting. In a study to enhance reading motivation and habits, Bell and Campbell (1996) concluded that extensive reading was the most effective way among various ways to motivate learners to read. Motivation as Ellis (1994) states, "affects the extent to which individual learners persevere in learning the L2 and the kind of learning behavior they employ, and their actual involvement" (p.36). ER can help to build confident readers. Kembo (1993) studied the effect of ER on developing students' confidence and ability in reading long texts. The results of the study were confirming as expected.

ER can encourage both textual knowledge and background knowledge and help learners use metacognitive as well as cognitive strategies while reading. Learners can exploit background knowledge, use pre − existing schema and decode and interpret the message of the text more easily (Nunan, 1991).

To sum up, ER has several goals including encouraging L2 learners to read for pleasure and information both inside and outside classroom, to read for meaning and to engage in sustained silent reading (Day & Bamford, 1998; Krashen, 1995). The results of the studies have shown its effectiveness in increasing reading speed and comprehension as well as overall language development (Bell, 2001; Rub & Susser, 1989; Elley & Mangubhai, 1983). Consequently, the present study aims at investigating the efficiency of ERP in an Iranian EFL context in terms of improving Iranian learners' reading comprehension.

II. RESEARCH QUESTION

The present study was designed to investigate whether an extensive reading program (ERP) has the potential to improve low level learners' reading comprehension in an Iranian EFL context. More specifically, the following research question was formulated for this study:

Q: Does extensive reading (ERP) have the potential to enhance low level learners' reading comprehension in an Iranian EFL context?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants were drawn from Iranian students majoring English at Islamic Azad University of Abadeh. Of 67 EFL students who had failed their first reading comprehension course, 40 students were randomly selected and were assigned randomly and equally to one control and one experimental group. In the experimental group, twelve students were female, and eight students were male. In the control group, eleven students were female, and nine students were female. The age range was from 19 to 22. As they had a very bad experience in their first attempt to read in English in an academic situation, they were in real need of improving their motivation and reading competence. None of them had previous experience of studying English in language institutes.

B. Material

Simplified graded readers were preferred for extensive reading because they could offer learners appropriate conditions for learning and increasing motivation as suggested by Nation and Wang (1999) and Wodinsky and Nation (1998).

Ten stories were selected based on their difficulty levels suggested by their publishers defined in terms of lexis and structure. All of them were paperback with glossy cover indicating the titles and the back cover giving descriptions and details of the series (stages and number of vocabulary presented). Illustration and pictures were used in most of them which helped learners both to understand and enjoy reading. The length and difficulty level varied from first to the tenth story. The information about the series and sequence of their presentation is summarized in the following table.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION OF THE STORIES

NO.	NAME	LEVEL	Pages
1	Island for Sale	Beginner (300 words)	15
2	Michele Jordan	Beginner (300 words)	17
3	Pele	Beginner (300 words)	25
4	Little Women	Beginner (300 words)	28
5	Love or Money	Beginner (300 words)	35
6	Phantom of the Opera	Beginner (300 words)	50
7	ET	Elementary(600 words)	39
8	Tales of Anderson	Elementary(600 words)	35
9	Brave Heart	Pre –intermediate (1200 words)	41
10	The Railway Children	Pre –intermediate (1200 words)	60

In addition to the books, audio CDs including mp3 files of the stories were prepared and given to the learners. It was based on the prediction that they may find it difficult to read the text because of unfamiliar words, pronunciations and abbreviations. In addition, it is believed that reading and listening at the same time have great benefits for pronunciation (sound and symbol relationship) and increasing reading speed (Taguchi & Gorsuch, 2002). Listening materials can provide the learners with a model of correct pronunciation which aids word recognition and expose them to correct intonation. It can help them maintain and elaborate their confidence by enabling them to produce natural speech patterns.

A standardized reading comprehension test designed by Isfahan University was also used for pre and post-test. The test includes six reading passages and forty multiple choice questions. The internal consistency of the test in the study was estimated .84 by using Cronbach's alpha.

C. Data Collection Procedures

The treatment of the study lasted more than ten weeks and comprised of three phases:

1. Pre-testing:

Before the students in experimental group received any treatment, all the students in two groups participated in a standardized reading proficiency test to determine their level of reading proficiency and assure the researchers that there is no significant difference between the control and experimental group. The results are indicated in the following table:

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF PRE-TESTS OF CONTROL & EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Groups	Test	N	Mean	SD	t	Df	Sig.
experimental	Pre test	20	17.72	6.64	0.82	38	.01
control	Pre test	20	16.15	5.38			

As it is shown in table 2, there is no significant between the two groups on their pre-tests, so the results confirm the homogeneity of the groups.

2. Treatment:

Following pre-testing, the participants of the experimental group received the list of 35 graded stories to choose ten most-liked ones. They had also the chance of changing the stories during the study if they felt they did not like them. The participants of the experimental group received the treatment as a part of their reading class, while the control group continued the traditional reading class. The program lasted 10 weeks during which the subjects were supposed to read the stories, each week one storybook. After they had read the stories, there was a discussion on each part of the story. Learners' questions about meaning or pronunciation of words and grammar of the sentences were answered. Some of them could not understand the meaning of some of the sentences, so the sentences were paraphrased for them. They were also advised to listen to the audio of the stories. Ten essay type questions followed the reading to ensure their comprehension. The questions were both information and inferential ones. After essay type questions, they listened to two parts of the story. Then they were asked to write the setting, place and time of the events. The rational behind the oral questions was to make them listen to the audio of the stories. The levels of the stories gradually were increasing. Meanwhile the students were being monitored for their reactions toward the stories and the program.

3. Post testing:

After the extensive reading treatment (at the conclusion of the treatment period) all the students in two groups again received the same standardized reading proficiency test as a post-test to see their overall reading improvement.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Based on the data of pre- and post-tests introduced to both experimental and control group, attempts were made to find out whether an ER project can help low level learners improve their reading comprehension. For this purpose, a series of t-test analysis were used in three phases:

At first, a paired-sample t-test was used to find the possible change between the means of pre- and post-tests of the control group. The result is summarized in the following table:

TABLE 3.
PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST OF PRE- & POST-TESTS OF CONTROL GROUP

Groups	Test	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig.
control	Pre test	20	16.15	5.38	0.24	19	.01
control	Post test	20	16.63	7.17			

As shown, the mean of post-test is slightly greater than that of pre-test but the difference is not significant; so the students of the control group showed no significant achievement during the study.

Next, using the same procedure, the pre- and post-test scores of experimental group, as indicated in table 4, were analyzed:

TABLE 4.
PAIRED-SAMPLE T-TEST OF PRE- & POST-TESTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Groups	Test	N	Mean	SD	t	Df	Sig.
experimental	Pre test	20	17.72	6.64	2.72	19	.01
experimental	Post test	20	22.69	4.72			

The performance of the subjects on pre- and post-test is significantly different at .01 level of significance; in other words, the project has been effective in elaborating learners' reading comprehension.

Finally, the post-test performance of both control and experimental group were compared and the obtained results revealed that there is a significant difference between two groups in their post-test scores at .01 level of significance:

TABLE 5.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF POST-TESTS OF CONTROL & EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Groups	Test	N	Mean	SD	t	Df	Sig.
experimental	Post test	20	22.69	4.72	3.14	38	.01
control	Post test	20	16.63	7.17			

As evident in table 5, extensive reading (ER) proved to have a positive effect on students' reading proficiency level.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the previous researches on the effects of ERP on different language skills and sub – skills, the present study attempted to find the place of the ERP on Iranian learners specially those with low reading proficiency level. Forty learners were assigned randomly to control and experimental groups. The experimental group received a treatment by reading ten stories during a 10 week project. Every week they read one story preceded by a brief discussion on words, grammar and the main idea of the texts and followed by an essay type test to check their comprehension. The obtained results of the study showed that ERP can be beneficial for the learners specially those who have had hard time in reading foreign language texts. The results showed that ERP elaborates learners reading comprehension.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The conclusions drawn from the study have implications for both EFL teachers and learners.

For teachers, it shows the role input can play in improving learners' reading proficiency. The study proves that ERP can be a promising method to enhance learners reading proficiency and motivation. It can also be used as a good method to increase learners' vocabulary. The project can be used by teachers to break the learners' frustration and help them move forward. As learners improve their reading, they enjoy reading more and more. If they enjoy reading, their access to language input will increase dramatically, which will further promote their language development.

For learners, the results are heartening. It shows the way they can overcome their lack of motivation and fear they usually experience in the beginning of their way to learn a FL. It makes the difficult task of language learning an enjoyable time, full of fun and entertainment. Then the focus of their attention will be more on language rather than language learning.

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A Study on the Formalization of English Subjunctive Mood

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Abstract—One of the main problems that affects the quality of machine translation is how to express the knowledge of language in precision. Subjunctive mood is a very common language phenomenon in English. From the perspective of E-C machine translation, and based on the theory of Semantic Element (SE) in Unified Linguistics, the paper discusses the specific formalization methods for each type of the English sentences with subjunctive mood and their Chinese translations.

Index Terms—subjunctive mood, formalization, SE, SER

I. INTRODUCTION

The history of machine translation is more than a half century long, but its quality is still poor and the machine translation systems still haven't reached the practical phase. The key lies in linguistics, that is, the knowledge of language cannot be expressed in precision, although many famous linguists have made many important achievements from different angles of study.

Subjunctive mood is a very common language phenomenon in Indo-European languages, which is a verb mood typically used in subordinate clauses to express a wish, emotion, possibility, judgment, opinion, necessity, or action that has not yet occurred. The subjunctive in Modern English is easily distinguished in a variety of contexts in which the present subjunctive is used where the sense is past tense. So the tense and aspect are often combined with the mood in English. In Chinese, there isn't the concept of subjunctive mood. But the subjunctive meaning is expressed by some words and even implied in sentences and situations in Chinese.

In linguistics, subjunctive mood is a very important grammar, which has been studied by many scholars in the aspects of classification, syntax, usage, mood, translation in both written and oral English (Zhang, 2002; Chalker, 1995; Zhang, 1998). In NLP, until now subjunctive mood has not been studied as a special and individual topic.

This paper offers an account of one key problem of the precision of natural language: the formalization of English sentences with Subjunctive Mood and their corresponding Chinese sentences. In section 2, we discuss the theory and concept for the formalization based on Unified Linguistics. Section 3 shows the specific formalization methods for each type of the English sentences with subjunctive mood.

II. THE THEORY AND CONCEPT FOR THE FORMALIZATION

A. The Theory of SE and SER

In 1980's, Institution of Computing Technology (ICT) of the Chinese Academy of Science (CAS) proposed a new concept (Gao, 1989), i.e., semantic element representation (SER) with variables and without variables. The concept of Semantic Element and Semantic Language was discussed in detail in the paper of Gao (2003; 2009).

According to Unified Linguistics (Gao, 2009) , different language can be translated into each other and people speaking different language can communicate with each other because there are words, phrases and sentences with the same meaning. Natural languages need to be described in a unified way from the perspective of semantics. Semantic of a sentence is called SS. An element to express a semantic meaning in an SS is called Semantic Element (SE). Semantic language (SL) consists of all SEs, including all SSs. The representation of an SE in a natural language-I, such as English, Chinese…, is called the Representation of Semantic Element in Language-I (SER_I). Semantic of SER is SE. Any natural language can be regarded as a representation of semantic language. The translation between two languages (I, J) is regarded as a transformation between two representations.

For example, the Chinese sentence is "李先生是教授 *Li xiansheng shi jiaoshou* (Mr. Li is a professor.)". The four SEs in this sentence are 李(Li)，先生($X_{surname}$) (Mr. (X))，教授 (professor)，是 $_{title}(X_{people}, Y_{title})$ ($Is_{title}(X_{people}, Y_{title})$). "X" and "Y" are two parameters. SE is an abstract concept and form. Actually, the above mentioned examples of SEs are only some remembrance forms to represent SE by using Chinese characters or English words. We can use "1" to substitute the SE "Li", or use "$4(X_{people}, Y_{title})$" or "$4(N_{people}, N_{title})$" to substitute "是 $_{title}(X_{people}, Y_{title})$". The subscript

denotes the semantic category of the word. An SER can reflect the semantics and syntax relations of the word in a phrase or a sentence.

B. Other Relevant Concepts about the Formalization

English sentences with subjunctive mood are formalized based on the theory of SE and SER. SER is the specific representation of an SE in a certain language. SER_c denotes Chinese SER; SER_e denotes English SER.

SE consists of two kinds in its structure: SE without parameter (WP-SE) and SE with parameter (P-SE). SER consist of three kinds in its structure: simple SER (S-SER), general SER (G-SER), and abstract SER (A-SER). S-SER corresponds to WP-SE, G-SER and A-SER correspond to P-SE. G-SER is composed of fix parts (words, characters, word clusters in a language) and parameters. But A-SER only consists of parameters and the operation among them. A-SER corresponds with abstract SE (A-SE) (Gao, 2009).

The parameter is formed by two parts, in which one part is a symbol like "N, A, V, S" to represent noun, adjective, verb and sentence respectively, the other part is the subscript denoting the semantic category of the word. For example, "N_{person}" denotes nouns with the semantic category of person. Words with the same semantic category can be substituted by each other in an SER. Not only words but also phrases, clauses and sentences can be formalized into parameters.

The SE and SER theory has been applied into the formalization of Chinese classifier-noun phrases, English prepositional phrases and sentences (Guan, 2009). This theory has also been widely applied into other fields, such as machine translation, handwritten character recognition, Internet information monitoring and post-processing technique for speech and character recognition (Li, 2006; Gao, 2004; Gao, 2005).

III. THE FORMALIZATION OF ENGLISH SENTENCES WITH SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

A. The Types of English Sentences with Subjunctive Mood

Unreal conditional sentence is the most common subjunctive mood to express hypothesis. It consists of two kinds--one is contrary to the present reality, the other is contrary to the past reality. For example: "If I were you, I should buy it. 如果我是你 *ruguo wo shi ni*, 我就买了它 *wo jiu maile ta*", and "If you had got up earlier, you could have caught the train. 如果你早一点起床 *ruguo ni zaoyiidan qichuang*, 就会赶上火车的 *jiuhui ganshang huiche de*".

The object subordinate clause after verbs like "wish, suggest, order, insist, propose, etc" should use subjunctive mood to express a wish, request, suggestion and command. For example: "He insisted that all of us should be there on time. 他坚持要我们大家按时去那儿 *ta jianchiyao women dajia anshi qu naer*", and "I prefer that he should end his speech. 我更希望他结束演讲 *wo geng xiwang ta jieshu yanjiang*".

Subjunctive mood in subject subordinate clause exists in the sentence pattern "It is A that…", in which A is the adjective with the meaning of importance and necessity. For example: "It's necessary that we should have a walk now. 我们有必要出去散散步 *women youbiyao chuqu sansanbu*".

The appositive subordinate clause after nouns like "wish, suggestion, proposal, advice, etc" should also use subjunctive mood to express a wish, requirement, suggestion and order. For example: "It is my suggestion that the students be sent to Tibet.我建议把那些学生派到西藏去 *wo jianyi ba naxie xuesheng paidao Xizang qu*".

There are other phenomena of subjunctive mood in both simple and compound sentences to express a doubt, supposition, wish, etc. For example: "If only he had seen me!要是他看见我就好了 *yaoshi ta kanjian wo jiuhaole*!", "He would rather go by bus than by train. 我宁可坐汽车也不坐火车 *wo ningke zuo qiche yebu zuo huoche*", and "But for the rain, we should have had a pleasant journey. 若不是下雨，我们那次旅行就惬意了 *ruobushi xiayu, women naci lüxing jiu qieyi le*", etc."

B. The Formalization of English Sentences with Subjunctive Mood

For an English sentence with subjunctive mood, the parts that express the subjunctive meaning should be extracted into the fix structure and other parts of the sentence should be extracted into parameters to form P-SE.

Since some of the subjunctive mood is related to the tense and aspect of verbs, we propose a new concept "Style". Style refers to the mood, voice, tense, aspect, comparison, number, gender, case, modal, etc. Different languages may have different Style which can be realized by transformation. The introduction of "style transformation" aims at the precise unification of different languages. Style is a kind of A-SE. The combination of Style and A-SE (SE with Style) is also an A-SE. The combination of Style and the parameter of SE (parameter with Style) is also an A-SE.

Case 1: For the simple sentence "If only he had seen me!要是他看见我就好了 *yaoshi ta kanjian wo jiuhaole*!", there are the following style transformations for part of this sentence: $SER_e(seen(he', me'))=<S>=$he see me. (without subjunctive mood/tense style)$\rightarrow SER_e((seen, \text{*past perfect*}) (he', me'))= <S>=$he had seen me (with past perfect tense style). Here, $SER_I(X)$ denotes the representation of SE X in Language-I, (seen, *past perfect*) shows SE (seen(he', me')) with style. The SE and SER for the whole sentence are: $SS=if_{only}(S)=$要$_{是就好了}(S)$; $SER_e=if\ only\ S!$; $SER_c=$要是 S 就好了! The part "if only" in this sentence denotes the subjunctive mood which should be extracted as the fix structure in the SER_e, and the corresponding Chinese translation part will also be extracted as the fix structure in the SER_c. The other words in the sentence should be extracted as the parameters in both SER_e and SER_c.

Case 2: In the simple sentence with modal verb "He could have taken a taxi. 他原本可以坐出租车去 *ta yuanben keyi zuo chuzuche qu*", the modal verb "could" and auxiliary verb "have" should be extracted as the fix part in the SER. The SE and SER of this sentence are: SS=could$_{have}$(N$_{person1}$, S-Z)=原本可以(N$_{person}$, S-Z); S-Z=(taken, V_{ed}) (N$_{vehicle}$)= 坐$_{…去}$(N$_{vehicle}$); SER$_e$= N$_{person1}$could have S-Z; SER$_c$= N$_{person}$ 原本可以 S-Z. Here, Z denotes the subject of a sentence; S-Z denotes a sentence without subject. Here, V_{ed} denotes the verb of past participle.

Case 3: For the complex sentence "If I were you, I should buy it. 如果我是你 *ruguo wo shi ni*, 我就买它 *wo jiu maile ta*", since the verb "be" can only be the form of "were" in subjunctive mood, "were" should be extracted as the fix part in the SER. The SE and SER of this sentence are: SS=if (S$_1$, S$_2$)=如果(S$_1$, S$_2$); S$_1$= were(N$_{person1}$, N$_{person2}$)=是 (N$_{person1}$, N$_{person2}$); S$_2$=should(N$_{person1}$, S-Z)=就(N$_{person1}$, S-Z); S-Z=buy(N$_{object}$); SER$_e$=if S$_1$, S$_2$; SER$_c$=如果 S$_1$, N$_{person1}$ 就 S-Z.

For another complex sentence which has the same sentence structure "If I'd heard the whole story, I would have taken another measure. 如果我听到了事情的全部经过 *ruguo wo tingdaole shiqingde quanbu jingguo*，我就会采取另外一种做法 *wo jiuhui caiqu lingwaiyizhong zuofa*", we can use another method to formalize this sentence. There exist the following style transformations for the first clause of this sentence: SER$_e$(heard(I′, story′))=<S$_1$>=I hear the story (without subjunctive mood/tense style)→SER$_e$((heard, *past perfect*) (I′, story′))= <S$_1$>=I had heard the story (with past perfect tense style). Here, (heard, *past perfect*) shows SE (heard(I′, story′)) with style. The SE and SER for the whole sentence are: SS=if (S$_1$, S$_2$)=如果(S$_1$, S$_2$); S$_2$= would have(N$_{person}$, V$_{ed}$, N)=就会(N$_{person1}$, V, N); SER$_e$=if S$_1$, N$_{person}$ would have V$_{ed}$ N; SER$_c$=如果 S$_1$, N$_{person}$ 就会 V N. Or we can represent the sentence as: SS=if (S$_1$, S$_2$)=如果(S$_1$, S$_2$); S$_2$= would have (N$_{person}$, S-Z)=就会(N$_{person}$, S-Z); S-Z=(taken, V_{ed}) (N) = 采取(N); SER$_e$=if S$_1$, S$_2$; SER$_c$=如果 S$_1$, N$_{person}$ 就 S-Z. The concept "Style" is shown again in formalize this sentence, just as that in case 1. The "style transformation" denotes a kind of tense transformation in this kind of translation of English subjunctive mood, especially in C-E translation.

Case 4: In the complex sentence "I prefer that he should end his speech.我更希望他结束演讲 *wo geng xiwang ta jieshu yanjiang*", the word "prefer" and "should" both indicate the subjunctive mood, so these two words should be the fix parts in the SER, and other words should be extracted as parameters. The SE and SER of this sentence are: SS=prefer$_{that…should}$(N$_{person1}$, N$_{person2}$, S-Z)=更希望(N$_{person}$, S); S-Z=end(N$_{event}$)=结束(N$_{event}$); SER$_e$= N$_{person1}$ prefer N$_{person2}$ S-Z; SER$_c$= N$_{person}$更希望 S. In this sentence, "prefer that" and "should" are both the symbol of subjunctive mood, so they should both be extracted as the fix parts in the SER.

Case 5: In the complex sentence "It's necessary that we should have a walk now. 我们有必要出去散散步 *women youbiyao chuqu sansanbu*" and "It is my suggestion that the students be sent to Tibet.我建议把那些学生派到西藏去 *wo jianyi ba naxie xuesheng paidao Xizang qu*", the words "necessary", "suggestion" and "should" all indicate the subjunctive mood. So just as case 3, they should be the fix parts in the SER. Moreover, the sentence structure "It is…that…" should also be as the fix part. SE and SER of the two sentences are: SS=It $_{is\ necessary\ that…[should]}$(N$_{person}$, S-Z)= 有$_{必要}$(N$_{person}$, S-Z); SER$_e$= It's necessary that N$_{person}$ [should] S-Z; SER$_c$= N$_{person}$ 有必要 S-Z；SS=It $_{is…suggestion\ that…[should]}$(A$_{possessive}$, N$_{person}$, S-Z)=建议(N$_{person}$, S); SER$_e$= It is A$_{possessive}$ suggestion that N$_{person}$ [should] S-Z; SER$_c$= N$_{person}$ 建议 S. Here, the symbol [ ] indicates the word inside can be omitted.

Case 6: The sentence "He would rather go by bus than by train. 我宁可坐汽车也不坐火车 *wo ningke zuo qiche yebu zuo huoche*" is a subjunctive mood sentence with a set structure. For this kind of sentence, we extract the set structure as the fix part in SER. So the SE and SER of this sentence are: SS=would $_{rather…than}$(N$_{person}$, S-Z, B)=宁可$_{…也不}$ (N$_{person}$, S-Z, S-Z); B=by(N$_{vehicle}$); SER$_e$=N$_{person}$ would rather S-Z than B; SER$_c$= N$_{person}$ 宁可 S-Z 也不 S-Z. Here, B indicates prepositional phrase.

For different kinds of subjunctive mood sentences, we need to use different formalization method, in which the fix parts and parameters in SER are extracted according to the sentence features. Above all, SER is extracted correspondingly from bi-lingual sentences for the sake of English-Chinese translation.

C.　The Construction of SER-base of English Subjunctive Mood

For each type of the English subjunctive mood and their formalizations, we construct the SER-base of subjunctive mood (SM-SERB), which includes the English sentences of subjunctive mood marked by adverbs (e.g. if, rather, although, etc), verbs (e.g. prefer, suggest, etc), adjectives (advisable, necessary, etc), modal verbs (e.g. could, should, etc) and subjunctive mood sentences with set structures. The English sentences with subjunctive mood, their Chinese translations, style, SER$_e$ and SER$_c$ should be stored in SM-SERB using the software Access.

The SER-base will be applied into some specific language studies. For example, the SER-base can be used as a corpus for the study on the translation of English subjunctive mood both in translation teaching and study; the SER-base can provide the rules for the machine translation of English subjunctive mood into Chinese; moreover the base can partly help us to correctly select the tense and aspect of the verbs while translating the Chinese sentence into English.

IV.　Conclusion

This paper focuses on solving one of the key problems of describing language phenomenon precisely in MT—the formalization of English sentences with subjunctive mood and their Chinese translation. Specific formalization methods are proposed based on the theory of SE, SER and Style in Unified Linguistics. The study in the paper will beneficial to the improvement of the quality of subjunctive mood translation in MT. More efforts should be made to put this method into practice.

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Testing and Technology: Past, Present and Future

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Abstract—The current article is an attempt to review the history of employing technology for the purpose of assessing English as a second/foreign language. The computer-based testing's state-of-the-art will be discussed extensively in this writing. Different kinds of computer systems which were used in the past will be reviewed, the present practices will be commented on, and the future trends will be predicted.

Index Terms—computer-based testing, computer adaptive testing, internet-based testing, natural language processing, automatic speech recognition

I. INTRODUCTION

As technology mingles rapidly with every aspect of human life, it becomes more invisible in the eyes of its users. The field of language learning, teaching and testing, however, is an exception. This is where the use of technology is not yet commonplace. The recent computerized technologies used for language learning and assessment are seen as strange entities to be discovered and studied on and even to be afraid of. Therefore, the need is for educators and practitioners to become aware of the current practices in the domain of computer assisted testing.

The current article is an attempt to review the history of employing technology (mostly computers) for the purpose of assessing English as a second/foreign language. In order to reach such an aim, a summary of the commonest computer-based testing systems is provided. It is also hoped that a preliminary image of the future of computer-aided testing would be drawn at the end of this paper.

II. COMPUTER-BASED TESTING

The very first application of computers in testing was for scoring objective test items. In 1935, the IBM model 805 was used for the first time in the United States to reduce the costly procedures of scoring multiple-choice tests. Since the computerized scoring of the tests was thought to produce more reliable results in comparison to the previous hand-scored ones.

With the rapid change of technology during the 1970s and 1980s, language testers started to use the new computer systems for purposes beyond the simple scoring of tests. As classified by Burstein, Frase, Ginther and Grant (1996) and reported in Fulcher (2000), computers were begun to be used in eight different areas: test design, test construction, tryout, delivery, management, scoring, analysis and interpretation, and reporting. From among these usages, however, only three – delivery, scoring and reporting – were paid enough attention in the subsequent years.

In fact, the emergence of what is today known as computer-based testing (CBT) goes back to the mid-80s. Drawing on the Classical Test Theory (CTT), the first CBT tests were "simply paper-and-pencil tests delivered through the new electronic medium" (Fulcher, 2000, p.96). But it was not until the 1990s that the use of computers for development and delivery of language tests was extended. For instance, in 1998, the computer version of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was presented to the US applicants. Obviously, the major negative attitude towards the computer-based version of TOEFL was the question of computer familiarity. In an attempt to find a relationship between test-takers' computer familiarity and their performance on the test, Taylor, Kirsch, Eignor and Jamieson (1999) compared examinees with high and low level of computer literacy. Their findings showed that there was no evidence of bias against candidates with low computer literacy. And as a survey by Stricker, Wilder and Rock (2004) revealed, despite examinees' differences, attitudes toward the computer-based TOEFL were moderately positive in three different countries of Argentina, Egypt, and Germany among different language learners.

Computer-based tests, in general, are considered to have some disadvantages as well as several advantages. In a comprehensive study, Alderson (2000) discusses a number of pedagogic and technical merits of CBTs. He believes that technically the computer-based tests can remove the constraints of test administration such as fixed delivery dates and locations. He also mentions that test results are available instantly and that the test security is greater as a result of examinees' access to a large database of items.

From a pedagogic point of view, again, Alderson (2000) reviews CBTs' major advantage; its user friendliness. To give an elaboration, he emphasizes that the tests would be more meaningful because of the feedback they give to the users. They also offer a range of support to learners from help facilities and dictionaries to clear instructions, examples and performance clues. In addition to these, Chalhoub-Deville (2001) also thinks that CBT allows new item/task types and tracking of student performance. According to this author, another exciting capability of CBT is the "adaptive approach"; a branch of testing which will be discussed later in this article.

Two of the main demerits of CBTs are the allowance of restricted types of items and the difficulty of assessing the highly productive skills of speaking and writing. And as mentioned before, the need for a degree of computer literacy is still of concern to many testers. A matter which led Educational Testing Service (ETS) to devise a tutorial for CBT TOEFL in an effort to remove any possible bias against computer illiterates.

III. COMPUTER ADAPTIVE TESTING: CAT

As many researchers have described before (Stanfield, 1986; Dunkel, 1991; Fulcher, 2000; etc.), computer adaptive testing (CAT) is the most important development of the 90s. The initial CAT systems were developed in the 1970s. The driving principle underlying CAT production and use was Item Response Theory which the discussion of its distinctive models is beyond the scope of the current paper.

In any given computer adaptive test, the testers are presented with one test item at a time. If the test-taker answers the first item correctly, s/he is provided with a more difficult item. If not, an easier test item is presented to him/her. This way, the computer can adjust/*adapt* the test items to each tester's level of language ability.

Two of the most well-known CAT instruments are MicroCAT which was released in 1984, and FastTEST which was produced by Assessment Systems Corporation in 1999. Many other testing organizations also engaged in the development of CAT systems. For example, Brigham Young University developed French, German, and Spanish CAT instruments for placement at universities. As another example, The University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES) also developed CAT instruments in various languages and for various purposes.

Today CAT programs are among the most desirable testing approaches. Computer adaptive tests are in many ways advantageous over the paper-and-pencil assessments. First, they contain a large item bank which enables it to match to the testers' needs. Second, no test-taker is given the same set of test items as the other; hence, test security is increased. Third, a computer adaptive test saves time and resources as a result of reducing the number of items required to be responded. Fourth, it provides immediate results. Finally, it has the ability to distinguish learners with extremely low or high abilities (Fulcher, 2000).

In general, it could be added that:

Computer adaptive tests are often argued to be more user-friendly, in that they avoid users being presented with frustratingly difficult or easy items. They might thus be argued to be more pedagogically appropriate than fixed-format tests. (Alderson, 2000, p.596)

As Fulcher mentions in the same article in 2000, CAT has a number of disadvantages. First, providing a large number of items for the item bank is time-consuming and costly. Second, achieving totally calibrated items is not as easy as it appears to be. Third, the question remains as whether CAT is forced to include a representative sample of items in terms of content validity. Finally, unlike paper-and-pencil tests, CAT does not allow language examinees to omit items or to review them at the end of the test.

IV. INTERNET-BASED TESTING

Testing on the Internet or what Roever (2001) calls web-based testing (WBT), refers to the instruments which assess language in the environment of the World Wide Web. The tests often would be downloaded on the users/clients' computer. The tests are normally the same CBTs or CATs delivered in a new medium. The kind of item types which can be presented through a WBT consists of multiple-choice items, C-tests, discourse completion tests, and reading comprehension tests accompanied with sound and video files.

But why do we need to apply WBTs while we already have enough access to a great range of computer-based assessments? Fulcher (2000), Alderson (2000), and Roever (2001) have answered this question by enumerating a number of advantages for language testing through the Internet. The main superiority of WBTs is their flexibility in time and space. Having a computer with an Internet connection, the test user can take a test whenever and wherever s/he wants.

The Web-based tests also are more flexible in terms of their design. A series of frames could represent texts, images, audio, and video at the same time. The users will have no problem in accessing to help facilities, databases, or libraries which are all updated constantly. Moreover, test results can be sent immediately to the score users. And as Roever (2001) adds, "WBTs are very inexpensive for all parties concerned" (p. 88).

The most recognizable Internet-based testing project is DIALANG funded by the European Union. The project was intended to be diagnostic at low stakes. In DIALANG, the language of administration and the skill to be tested is chosen by test users from 14 different European languages. But the program suffers greatly from limitations in testing productive skills. The most important constraint, however, is the risk of being broken by hackers; a problem which is more serious in case of the high-stakes tests of language.

As another example, the English as a Second Language Placement Examination and tests of Chinese, Japanese, and Korean at UCLA were being adapted in 2000 to be delivered on the Internet.

V. CURRENT RESEARCH

Since the computer/Internet based tests are not providing efficient ways of assessing productive skills of speaking and writing, many researchers opt for the technologies with extensive power of natural language processing (NLP) and automatic speech recognition.

In a most recent study, Chapelle and Chung (2010) elaborated rigorously on two examples of commonly used speech rating systems – namely PhonePass and SpeechRater[SM] v 1.0, stressing that a few attempts have been made to use the speech recognition technologies as means of testing learners' speaking abilities.

In 1997, PhonePass was investigated in detail by Bernstein. The test which is still used in some educational contexts, aimed at assessing listening and speaking abilities of second/foreign language learners. A number of tasks were included such as reading aloud, repeating sentences, and giving short answers to questions. Central to the program, was a speech recognition technology to score responses given through the telephone.

SpeechRater[SM] is an automatic speech rating system which is now used in TOEFL Internet-based test (iBT) Speaking Practice Test. The aim is to test the users' speech as an evidence for their ability in constructing communication. Based on a multiple regression scoring model, it examines the examinees' fluency, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.

Several analysts have argued for the issue of validity in relation to the SpeechRater[SM]. For instance, Clauser, Kane, and Swanson (2002) focus on the factors to be considered in the inferences to be drawn based on test scores. And Xi (2008) takes a new approach in introducing the validation of tests as something beyond the simple correlations between scores obtained by human raters and automated procedures.

In the same vein, but this time in the area of writing assessment, e-rater was developed by Educational Testing Service (ETS) to score the examinees' essay responses. Today, e-rater is utilized as a second rater in Graduate Management Admissions Test (GMAT), in Graduate Record Examination (GRE) and in the independent writing task of the TOEFL iBT; also as the sole rater in the TOEFL Practice On-line (TPO), and Criterion.

Most of the research today, however, is focused on different aspects of the development and implementation of CAT systems. For instance, in 2009, Huang, Lin and Cheng designed an adaptive testing system which could support several assessment functions and different devices. The test could precisely measure learners' ability with large estimates of reliability and validity. Evaluation of the system's usability on the Web truly indicated that it was successful in providing an adaptive testing for different devices and supporting versatile assessment functions.

In 2009 Frey and Seitz also examined the multidimensional adaptive testing (MAT) presented by Segall (1996). They believed that "the concept of MAT is very promising for the assessment of different competencies" (p. 89). In this new approach, in addition to a great reduction in the number of items, simultaneous testing of multiple constructs was possible. According to the writers, this is "an attractive new step to more theoretically based testing that is likely to enhance the validity of test score interpretations within educational and psychological assessments" (p. 93).

In an innovative study, Lazarinis, Green and Pearson (2010) constructed a pilot study to test the capabilities of a hypermedia Web assessing tool. Based on computer adaptive testing, this framework also contains a number of "user-customizable rules" for a fully personalized assessment. These factors include learners' knowledge, educational background, goals, and preferences, as well as their performance. The advantage of this approach over the previous CAT systems is "the offered flexibility to both learners and educators. Educators are able to reflect their instructional experience in order to create tests more tailored to the characteristics of their learners. Learners can take advantage of their previous knowledge or their current goals and be examined in shorter tests with more focused items" (p. 1742).

The recent advances in the area of mobile technologies, in turn, provide suitable conditions for the use of mobile phones in the delivery of systems such as CAT. Having this in mind, Triantafillou, Georgiadou and Economides (2008) attempted to describe the design issues related to the development and implementation of a CAT on mobile devices (CAT-MD). The results showed that, according to its users, CAT-MD was an effective and efficient assessment tool; it was accurate, exact, and reliable and more importantly it was very desirable to work with since it could be used almost anywhere.

VI. FUTURE TRENDS

Like all other language testing research, the concept of construct validity is central to the area of computer-based assessment. The need for reconsideration of the construct validity and generalizability of CBTs is often emphasized by the researchers in the field. Bachman (2000), for example, reviews a number of studies which examined the nature of constructs to be tested in computer assisted tests. It is always important to know exactly what the test measures. As Alderson (2000) puts it, research is needed "that will reveal more about the validity of the tests; that will enable us to estimate the effects of the test method and delivery medium" (p. 603).

In the same paper, Alderson asks for a research agenda which could help the developers to take decisions in relation to the nature of the most effective and meaningful feedback, the best ways of diagnosing strengths and weaknesses, the most appropriate clues, and the integration of media and multimedia; and also on the impact of the use of technology on learning, learners, and the curriculum.

Fulcher (2000) adds another major concern for the prospective uses of technology in language testing. According to him, the ethical aspect of computer based testing has to be considered; whether the test ranks the examinees the same way as paper-and-pencil tests do, and whether factors such as age, gender, educational background, previous experience, and attitudes to technology affect the test scores or not.

Throughout the same article, Fulcher reminds us of a predicted fourth generation of assessment known to calculate trajectories in language learning. Taking advantage of the advances in artificial intelligence (AT), the system would be able to predict the progress of individuals in a meaningful way. Alderson (2000) along with Chalhoub-Deville (2001), also, hope that in the near future many of today's open-ended productive tasks could be tested meaningfully by means of computers.

Referring to some of the shortcoming of NLP and speech recognition technologies, Xi (2010) concludes that computers can improve the effectiveness of language assessments, only if they will be used appropriately and responsibly. Last but not least, Roever (2001) stresses that "the Web greatly expands the availability of computer-based testing with all its advantages and will undoubtedly become a major medium of test delivery in the future" (p. 92).

VII. Conclusion

The computer-based testing's state-of-the-art was discussed extensively in this writing. Different kinds of computer systems which were used in the past were reviewed, the present practices were commented on, and the future trends were predicted.

It is worth noticing that the innovation and flexibility present in the CBTs, CATs, and other computer-based assessing systems should not result in the ignorance of the problems associated with these new mediums. All the users and developers are needed to become knowledgeable and comfortable with the new test administrations. The researchers also have the responsibility to inform others about the different aspects of the newly introduced testing procedures. On the whole, it is obvious that implementation of computer-based testing systems require a great amount of research and expertise. Therefore, without enough degree of proficiency in the area, it is far better for test administrators and examiners to remain with the same familiar conventional tests.

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On Interrelations between Language Teaching and Speech Teaching

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Abstract—There exists a universal problem in college English teaching among most colleges in China: most teachers have laid too much emphasis on language teaching, but awfully neglected speech teaching. Thus the competence of language application and intercultural communication students urgently needed cannot be developed and the phenomenon of "deaf English" appeared. The amount of language teaching and speech teaching are out of rate. In order to change the situation, the current college English teaching system should be changed in time mainly from the two aspects of the teaching mode and syllabus design to strengthen the amount of speech teaching. At the same time teachers should also pay attention to the role students play to mobilize their activity to develop their intercultural communicative competence. This thesis attempts to explore an effective way to balance language teaching and speech teaching to improve the quality of college English teaching, and to pursue its guiding and operational significance to college English teaching.

Index Terms—language teaching, speech teaching, communicative competence, syllabus design

I. INTRODUCTION

As we all know that English today is becoming an international language. With the fast progressing of modernization at home and abroad, international communication occurs more and more frequently. College students are playing an important role during this process. So the quality of college English teaching has been put on a higher level. In order to improve the communicative competence of college students, many efforts have been made and the most straightfoward way is to pay more attention to speech teaching while making sure that students can master a good command of knowledge from language teaching.

II. THE THEORETICAL BASIS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND SPEECH TEACHING

A. Saussure's Distinction between Langue and Parole

The distinction between langue and parole was made by the Swiss linguist F.de Saussure in the early 20th century. Langue and parole are French words, In English they refer to language and speech respectively. Langue refers to the abstract linguistic system shared by all the members of a speech community; and parole refers to the realization of langue in actual use. Langue is the set of conventions and rules which language users all have to abide by, and parole is the concrete use of the conventions and the application of the rules. Langue is abstract; it is not the language people actually use. Parole is concrete; it refers to the naturally occurring language events.

Since Saussure (1989) proposed the theory of binary division of langue and parole, people have gradually sensed that foreign language teaching should include both language teaching and speech teaching. However, we have not paid enough attention to it .Until now there are still so many people who do not pay much attention to the essential differences between the definitions of langue and parole. The binary division of langue and parole states that neither langue nor parole can be dispensed with in the performance of language communicative function." Langue is the tool of parole", "Parole is the actual use of langue", and human beings carry out communication through applying langue and parole activity. Therefore, in order to be able to communicate with others by using a foreign language, first of all we must master the rule of the language system to carry out communication. Thus it can be seen that if foreign language teaching aims to reach the goal of training students to communicate freely, it must include not only language teaching but also speech teaching.

B. Chomsky's Theory of Competence and Performance

Similar to Saussure's distinction between langue and parole is the distinction between competence and performance, which was proposed by the American linguist N. Chomsky in the late 1950's.Chomsky defines competence as the ideal user's knowledge of the rules of his language; and performance the actual realization of this knowledge in linguistic communication. Only having possessed competence, people are able to produce and understand an infinitely large number of sentences to reach the goal of communicating. In fact, this kind of binary theory provide unanimous theoretical basis for the study and research of foreign language teaching from different aspects (Dai Weidong, He Zhaoxiong,2002).

C.   Inspiration to College English Teaching

Learning a language as a natural human accomplishment involves getting to know something, and being able to do something with that knowledge. Language learning has two sides to it: knowing and doing (competence and performance), the first associated with a medium and the second with a mediation perspective on meaning. Different approaches to language teaching have tended to emphasize one rather than, and often at the expense of, the other. Most of current college English teaching focus their attention on getting students to know something but neglect the aspect of doing something. In foreign language teaching i.e. college English teaching, language teaching enables students to acquire language competence while speech teaching makes the language competence students acquired be applied and developed, and also develop a kind of ability to communicate by using a foreign language. Obviously, foreign language teaching just relies on the unity of these two kinds of teaching to accomplish its duty.

III.   PROBLEMS EXISTING IN ENGLISH TEACHING

At present, there exists a universal problem in college English teaching among most colleges in our country, i.e. most teachers have laid too much emphasis on language teaching but awfully neglected speech teaching. The language teaching and speech teaching are out of rate.

In language teaching, the emphasis is laid on correctness, literary excellence, and the priority of the written language. Textbooks based on traditional grammars take prominent writers of the previous centuries as language models. They favor the past "purest" language form rather than the present "degenerated" form; they prefer the written language to spoken language; they concentrate on detailed points instead of the construction of the whole text. Under traditional language teaching, students learn to know many taboos, for example, in English one cannot use "split infinitives" or end sentences with prepositions, because they are not allowed in Latin grammar. Language teaching involves the presentation of numerous definitions, rules and explanations, and it adopts a teacher-centered grammar-translation method, i.e. the main teaching and learning activities are grammar and translation study. In order to pursue the high examination-passing ratio, so many teachers pay almost all the attention to students' language proficiency. Thus the capacity of speech application and intercultural communication urgently needed cannot be developed. Learning is divorced from use and the phenomenon of "dumb English "and "deaf English" appeared.

As we all know that English is a tool, we learn it to communicate with others and express ourselves. But if we just learn the dumb or deaf English, what is the aim we learn a foreign language? Under this kind of teaching structure, classroom teaching is still teacher-centered which makes that students' learning modes and methods are not scientific and the effects and enthusiasm are also badly influenced. Such an approach to language teaching is damage to language learning. In communication, one should learn first to "speak" the language; not to "read" the language. In D.H.Hymes' view, the learner acquires knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical but also as appropriate. The aim of language learning is the ability to perform a repertoire speech acts so as to take part in speech events. This is another way of saying that learning language is learning to perform certain functions.

In college English teaching most teachers are still adopting an structural approach which pays almost all attention to language. The emphasis on structures was associated with the process of learning, as the means towards an end, and this was not at all intended to preclude a communicative purpose. It has been pointed out often enough in recent years that the disadvantage of structural approach is that it does not allow the learners to use language in a natural way. They tend to fixate on form for its own sake, internalize the language system as a separate body of knowledge and fail to learn for themselves how to use it. Having been trained to direct what they do in the service of knowing; they have difficulty in reversing the dependency and so to direct what they know in the service of doing. This is not surprising .For the structural approach requires the learners to conceive of the foreign language as something very different form their mother tongue, something designed as a subject with its own rules for learning which seem to have very little in common with the learner's own experience of language. So that in effect learners do not learn how to do communicative things with what they have acquired as knowledge, but simply learn how to display their knowledge according to conventions established by teaching and to meet the requirements of the examinations based on the same conventions.

IV.   SOLUTIONS TO THE PROBLEMS

Then how to change the situation? i.e. how can we put much more attention to speech teaching? Of course, this is not an easy question to answer. But we can try to find a solution from the following aspects.

A.   Change the Current Teaching Mode

In view of the above-mentioned disadvantages of the structural approach to college English teaching, to make the means of teaching conform to the communicative ends of learning, we adopt a communicative approach to foreign language teaching which will pay much more attention to speech teaching. More recent revisions of foreign language learning experience can be best described as communicative approaches. They are partially a reaction against the artificiality of "pattern-practice" and against the belief that consciously learning the grammar of a language will necessarily result in an ability to use the language. Although there are different versions of how to create "communicative" experiences in foreign language classroom, they are all based on a view that the functions of language

(i.e. correct grammatical or phonological structure). Lessons are likely to be organized around concepts such as "asking for things" in different social contexts, rather than "the form of the past tense" in different sentences.

Speech teaching focuses attention on students' communicative competence which can be defined, in terms of three components, as the ability to use foreign language accurately, appropriately, and flexibly. The first component is grammatical competence which involves the accurate use of words and structures in foreign language. Concentration on grammatical competence only, however, will not provide the learner with the ability to interpret or produce language appropriately. The learner will know when to say "Can I have some water?" versus "Give me some water!" according to the social context. Much of what was discussed in terms of pragmatics has to become familiar in foreign language if the learner is to develop sociolinguistic competence. The third component is called strategic competence. This is the ability to organize a message effectively and to compensate, via strategies, for any difficulties. In foreign language use, learners will inevitably experience moments when there is a gap between communicative intent and their ability to express that intent. Some learners may just stop talking (bad idea), others will try to express themselves via a communicative strategy (good idea). For example, a Dutch first language speaker wanted to refer to "een hoefijzer" in English, but did not know the English word, so she used a communication strategy. She referred to the things that horses wear under their feet, the iron things and the listener understood what she meant (horseshoes). This flexibility in second language use is a key element in communicative success. In essence, strategic competence is the ability to overcome potential communication problems in interaction.

B.   To Make an Appropriate Syllabus Design

Having seen the teaching mode, then we come to the syllabus design

a. What is Syllabus?

Syllabus is the planning of a course of instruction. It is a description of the course content, teaching procedures and learning experiences(Liu Runqing1999). The task for teacher is to realize the syllabus as a course of action by whatever methodological means seem most appropriate for the activiation of learning. The syllabus itself is an innert abstract object. It has much the same relationship to learner activities as does any abstract model of knowledge to the actuality of behavior. Its function is not to provide a prospectus of everything that the learner has to do. It is, so to speak, a set of bearings for teacher action and not a set of instructions for learner activity. What learners do is not directly determined by the syllabus but is a consequence of how the syllabus is methodologically mediated by the teacher in the pursuit of his own course of instruction.

b. The Effects of a Structural Syllabus to College English Teaching

So whether we put much more emphasis on language teaching or speech teaching to a great extent depends on what kind of syllabus we adopt. Language teaching mainly adopts a structural syllabus which is a grammatical oriented syllabus based on a selection of language items and structures. The vocabulary and grammatical rules included in the teaching materials are carefully ordered according to factors such as frequency, complexity and usefulness. The linguistic units in a sentence may appear in slots:

eg.   My friend | sent | me | a birthday card | last week.

This pattern is probably followed by group of substitutional words, also put into slots:

eg.   My sister | bought   him | a new hat | yesterday.
John | gave   her | a bundle of flowers | that evening.
The mother | lent | the little girl | a dictionary | on Sunday.

Thus by substituting new elements in one or other of the slots, learners practice the same sentence pattern repeatedly until they can produce it automatically. They are expected to accumulate pieces of vocabulary and grammatical rules, combine them into natural sentences, and thus acquire some linguistic perfection. The major drawback of such a syllabus is that it concentrates only on the grammatical formsand the meaning of individual words, whereas the meaning of the whole sentence is thought to be self-evident, whatever its context may be. Students are not taught how to use these sentences appropriately in real situations. As a result, students trained by a structural syllabus often prove to be communicatively incompetent.

c. Syllabuses Paid Much More Attention to Speech Teaching

The following two syllabuses both focus their attention on speech teaching. First of all let's see the notional-functional syllabus. It was first proposed by D.Wilkins & J.A.van Ek, and it has a strong theoretical basis — it is directly influenced by Halliday's functional grammar and Hymes' theory of communicative competence. The concept of NOTION refers to the meaning of one wants to convey, while that of FUNCTION refers to what one can do with the language. For example, while saying "Would you please tell me how to get to the library?" the speaker expresses the notion of inquiry and performs the function of asking the way. This kind of syllabus is initially concerned with what the learner communicates through the language not with what the grammatical structure is, or when or where he uses the language. This approach to language teaching views all course components as a systematic whole and classroom activities should be learner-centered. The functional-notional syllabus relates the abstract language form to its use in real situations. Since the relation between notions /functions and language forms are culture specific, the learner's attention is drawn to the special way a native speaker expresses himself. For example, the Chinese way of responding to others' compliment may not be permissible in the English culture, so the Chinese learner has to learn the special language forms in English to perform this function. Another advantage of this function is that the learner's motivation is

highly stimulated, because there exists a close link between the learning objective and the learner's personal needs. Through the whole learning process this motivation is reinforced by his own success. The learner is constantly aware of what he is doing and every progress he has achieved leads him a step forward towards his learning objective.

Next one is communicative syllabus which aims at the learner's communicative competence. It teaches the language needed to express and understand different kinds of functions, and emphasizes the process of communication. The syllabuses mentioned above put much more emphasis on speech teaching but not on language teaching. Their aim is to train the students to communicate freely with others by using a foreign language not just study the form and structure of that language. Of course, in the course of teaching, college English teachers can choose the one which is best appropriate or they can also combine the two to find a more appropriate way to develop students' speech competence.

C. The Role Students should Play in Solving the Problem

What kind of role students should play in changing the situation? Students should mobilize the enthusiasm of learning, and take part in the classroom activity actively. On the basis of mastering a sound knowledge of English, i.e. its correct form and grammar, students should also develop their communicative competence. Thus students cannot only acquire more language knowledge but also express their ideas freely. There will be more feedback between teacher and student. In this way students can know about the effect of learning while teachers can find the drawbacks of current teaching method and then change it in time. The phenomenon of time-consuming and effectiveless college English teaching will be changed.

Obviously, we emphasize speech teaching does not mean that there is no need of paying any attention to language teaching. The major premise is that language teaching and speech teaching have been in a state of imbalance among most college English teaching. From Saussure's view we also know that langue(language)and parole(speech)are indispensible. During college English teaching, teachers should make out a rational division of language teaching and speech teaching. Thus makes the students competent in communication with English based on a solid foundation of its structures.

V. CONCLUSION

It can be seen that in order to remedy the harmful state of college English teaching, the key point is that we must grasp the rational structure and change the amount of language teaching and speech teaching during the general course of college English teaching.

In the language of teaching we must make a well overall arrangement, such as the use of syllabus, curriculum, choices of textbooks and teaching method should come along with the dealing with the relationship between language and speech so as to generate the integrity of the course of the teaching system. At the same time we also have to set about the concrete teaching and research from the two sides to meet the purpose of developing students' language competence and speech competence effectively in the end.

With the fast progressing of modernization at home and abroad, intercultural communication occurs more and more frequently. The times call for the personnel who have professional knowledge and are able to communicate with native as well as non-native speakers of English successfully. In accordance with the need of the world, it is commonly accepted that the ultimate goal of English teaching is to develop students' communicative competence. The quality of college English teaching is put on a higher level to meet the needs of the new era. In handling the contradiction between language teaching and speech teaching more efforts should be made not only by the teachers but also by the students themselves.

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The Issue of Translating Culture: A Literary Case in Focus

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Abstract—**Translation is a social practice which inevitably involves at least two languages and two different cultural identities. There are some cultural concepts and cultural phenomena that are present in one language but not present (in the same way) in another. Nord (1997: 34) uses the term 'cultureme' to refer to these culture-specific items. The problem of how to render culture-specific items (especially in literary translation) implied in the source text (ST) and finding the appropriate equivalence conveying these cultural aspects successfully in the target language (TL) can be the most challenging task for the translator. This paper attempts at exploring the problems involved in the transferring of 'cultureme' in translation of a literary text (Blind Owl) from Persian into English. In this regard, instances of culture-specific items were compared by their translations. After analyzing data, it was observed that the strategies used in dealing with culture-specific items in the process of translation by D. P. Costello were 'Cultural Equivalence', 'Generic word with a descriptive phrase (paraphrasing)' and in rare cases 'domesticating' translation.**

Index Terms—**literary translation, culture-specific items, cultural equivalence, domestication, source language, target language**

I. Introduction

Translation always occurs at a multi-level process and a broad interpretation that it can be understood in many different ways. Therefore, many different definitions have been offered by scholars, each one reflecting a particular aspect and theoretical model of translation. On the issue of translation and culture, different views have been emerged; Newmark, (1988) argues that language is not a component or feature of culture (p. 95). If it were so, translation would be Impossible. Language dose however contain all kinds of cultural deposits, in grammar, forms of address as well as the lexis. The more specific a language becomes for natural phenomena the more it becomes specific in cultural features, and therefore create translation problems. More cultural overlap between the source and the target language, there will be less translation problems.

Discussing the problems of correspondence in translation, Nida (2000) confers equal importance to both linguistic and cultural differences between the SL and the TL and concludes that "differences between cultures may cause more severe complications for the translator than do differences in language structure". Thus, the cultural implications play a pivotal role in translation as well as lexical concerns.

Lotman's theory state that "no language can exist unless it is steeped in the context of culture; and no culture can exist which does not have at its center, the structure of natural language". Bassnett (1980) emphasizes the importance of this issue and states that language is "the heart within the body of culture", that is, they are both dependent to each other (pp. 13-14). Linguistic notions of transferring meaning are seen as being only part of translation process and a whole set of extra-linguistic criteria such as cultural ones must also be considered. In this regard, Bassnett further points out, "the translator must tackle the SL text in such a way that the TL version will correspond to the SL version […].To attempt to impose the value system of the SL culture onto the TL culture is dangerous ground" (Bassnett, 1980: 23). Therefore, in translation, not only the lexical impact on the reader is important and should be taken into account, but also the way in which cultural aspects may be perceived and affect translators choices.

A further point should be pointed here regarding the various translation strategies, or methods. According to Schleiermacher, what he has called "the roads open to the translator" throughout the history of translation, the different strategies can be divided into two categories: 'domesticating' and 'foreignizing' strategies (cf. Venuti, 1998).

According to Venuti (1995, p. 18) the aim of translation is:

To bring back a cultural other as the same, the recognizable, even the familiar; and this aim always risks a wholesale domestication of the foreign text, often in highly self conscious projects, where translation serves an appropriation of foreign cultures for domestic agendas, cultural, economic, and political.

Elaborating more on domestication and foreignization, Venuti sees that the predominant trend in Anglo-American translations has been 'domestication'. He disapproves the phenomenon of domestication since it involves "an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to [Anglo-American] target-language cultural values". This produces a translation in a fluent and invisible style in order to minimize the foreignness of the TT. Venuti associates it with Schleiermacher's description of translation that "leaves the reader in peace, as much as possible, and moves the author towards him" (cited in Munday, 2001: 146). In Hatim and Mason's words, the result of applying such a strategy by English translators has been "depriving source text producers of their voice and re-expressing foreign cultural values in terms of what is familiar to the dominant culture" that is, the Anglo-Saxon culture (Hatim & Mason, 1997, p. 145).

According to the above framework, this paper will present a selective sample of culture-specific items (culturemes) which have been rendered from Persian into English by different strategies such as 'cultural equivalence', 'paraphrasing' and in some rare cases 'domestication' strategy in the English translation of Hedayat's *Blind Owl* by D. P. Costello.

II. RESEARCH QUESTION

Translating culture-specific items in literary translation is one of the most delicate situations in which the translator would encounter with. The foremost concern of the translator is how successfully recreate these situations form SL to the TL. Taking into consideration this fact that not all cultures express the same cultural phenomenon in the same way, this paper attempts to determine which solution(s) is used by translator to handle cultural problems in translation of *Blind Owl* (*Bouf-e kour)* from Persian into English.

III. METHOD

Material and Procedure

A Persian novel written by Sadegh Hedayat, *The blind owl* [*Bouf-e kour*] has been selected as a literary source text (ST) to be compared with its corresponding translated target text (TT) in English by D. P. Costello (1957). Two texts were compared sentence by sentence and instances of culture-specific items were selected to find an appropriate answer to the research question.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The following sample of instances has been selected according to socio-textual and socio-cultural features of the original text. They are cultural concepts existing in the source language but lacking in the target language (in the same way). In addition, some idioms have been chosen, because they are mostly culture-bound expressions and very language specific. In some instances translator has resorted to 'Cultural Equivalence', 'Paraphrasing' and in others neutralizes specific socio-cultural elements present in the source text; therefore, they might be considered as 'domestication' instances of the translated text.

(1) ST: …, bæraye inke *væght ra bekoshæm* (p.12).

TT: …, in order somehow or other to kill time. (p. 12)

Since idioms, are culture-bound, the translation takes us a stage further in considering the question of meaning and equivalence. When two languages have corresponding idiomatic expressions, in the process of interlingual translation one idiom is substituted for another. That substitution is made not on the basis of the linguistic elements in the phrase, nor on the basis of a corresponding or similar image contained in the phrase, but on the function of the idiom. The SL expression is replaced by a TL expression that serves the same function in the TL culture.

In translating idioms and culture-specific items translator must look for the natural equivalent to express the intended meaning. Here expression 'kill time' in English and 'væght koshtan' in Persian have almost the same meaning and a 'Cultural Equivalence' strategy is used by translator to transfer the meaning.

(2) ST: …, bæraye inke *sær faregh* næghashi bekonæm, … (p. 13).

TT: … in order to be able to concentrate on my painting. (p. 15)

Translating idioms needs great care since they are figurative use of language. The translator needs to find out and recognize the idioms and other figures of speech of the source text. The real jeopardy comes in translating an idiom literally, since the result will usually be nonsense in the receptor language; in other words, a literal translation of idioms will usually result in nonsense convey of meaning. The translator must first be sure of the meaning of the idiom and then look for a natural equivalence to transfer the meaning of the idiom correctly. Sometimes a good idiom in the target language may be used but some times it will be necessary to translate it with a nonfigurative expression (cf. Larson, 1984, p. 116). In the above example, a nonfigurative translation is used to convey the meaning. The expression 'sær faregh' imply the meaning of 'without disruption' and a better translation can be as follows:

[… in order to be able to paint without disruption.]

(3) ST: …, mesle inke ækse mæn rooye *aieneye degh* oftade bashæd (p. 14).

TT: … like a reflection in a distorting mirror. (p. 15)

The Persian expression 'aineye degh' is figurative and as a socio-cultural element conveys the meaning of grief, misery and frustration. But this meaning is not being transferred into the TT. As Larson (1984, p. 116) asserts, in some

cases, it is necessary to translate an idiom with a nonfigurative expression. In above case, a more accurate translation of this expression can be a literal one as 'a sorrowful mirror' or 'a depressing mirror'.

(4) ST: æsayesh be man *hæram shode bud* (p. 19).

TT: Repose was utterly denied me. (p. 23)

Sometimes a figurative expression may not be used in the TT to render the ST cultural item or idiom; rather a more 'Generic word' may be used to convey the intended meaning, and in this example, translator have used this strategy for Persian expression 'hæram shode bud'. Here 'deny' as a more generic word is used in TT.

(5) ST: Mæn *be dæræk…* (p. 30).

TT: Not that I mattered. (p. 37)

The Persian expression 'be dæræk' is used by people when they are so angry about something or with somebody and in fact it is a curse and swear. The target text does not convey such a meaning and it lacks any emotion and excitement of the original expression. Here also a more generic expression is used by the translator.

(6) ST: … æz hærkæte kaleskeye na'sh kesh *ab to delæm tekan nemikhord* (p. 31).

TT: … the movement of the hearse *did not import itself in any degree to my body* (p. 40).

"When words found in the source language, it may be especially helpful to analyze the source language word to discover its generic component, the contrastive components and the function of the word in its context"(Larson, 1984: 166). Accordingly, by using a generic term and stating the other meaning components, i.e. 'paraphrasing' an adequate equivalence may be found in the target language. In translation of this expression, a generic word with a descriptive phrase (paraphrasing) is used in the TT.

(7) ST: migoft: *"binæmazæm"* (p. 57).

TT: … would only say, *"It's the wrong time of the month."* (p. 78)

This sentence has an expression involving socio-cultural and religious values, that is to say, a Muslim woman is not allowed to say her prayers during her monthly period and implying that she can not have sexual relationships. The translator has selected a rather neutral expression that is denying its socio-cultural and religious values and reducing it to the target cultural values by the expression 'the wrong time of the month'; therefore, it may be considered as a 'domesticating' translation (cf. Ghazanfari, 2005).

(8) ST: ba æmameye *shiro shekæri* va se ghæbze rish vared shod (p. 63).

TT: He came into the room in *an embroidered* turban… (p.83)

The Persian term 'shiro shekæri' refers to the color of the turban. This term has the meaning of a yellowish color, not the embroidery of the turban.

(9) ST: be yek *cheshm be hæm zædæn…* (p. 66).

TT: In the course of a single second … (p. 87)

The Persian expression 'be yek cheshm behæm zædæn' is an idiomatic expression and has a figurative meaning. One way of transferring the meaning of the idioms to the target language is 'Functional Equivalence' or 'Cultural Equivalence'. In this way, the target readers of translated text receive the same impression that the source reader would receive reading the text in the original language. Here translator has chosen this strategy to convey the meaning.

(10) ST: … yek ketabe do'a bærayæm aværdeh bood ke ruyæsh yek vajab khak neshæsteh bud (p. 81).

TT: she brought me a prayer book with *half-an-inch of dust* on it. (p. 109)

In this case also the translator has opted for a cultural equivalence to convey the intended meaning of the source text. He has substituted an idiom of the source text with an idiom in the target text.

(11) ST: sedaye naleye sægi æz labelaye *æzan-e* sobh shenideh mishod (p. 83).

TT: Mingled with *the cry* was the sound of a dog howling. (p. 112)

In translation of this sentence, 'the cry' in the TT does not refer to 'the call for pray'. In this specific case 'the call for morning prayer' is being rendered as 'the cry' that not only fails to convey the intended meaning of the author, but also it entails a reduction of the socio-cultural framework and religious values of the source text and in the expression 'the cry' there is noting to do with religion in TT.

(12) ST: … va ba khodash *zekr mikærd* (p. 89)

TT: … was muttering some *formula* to herself. (p. 119)

In this sentence, while the source expression conveys a religious meaning, the translation has been reduced to a more neutral one, i.e. 'formula', and does not include a religious connotation.

(13) ST: mokhtæsær ba *hæft ghælæm arayesh* varede otaghe mæn shod (p. 100).

TT: In a word, she was *turn out to perfection.* (p. 135)

The Persian expression 'hæft ghælæm arayesh' conveys a socio-cultural sense of exaggeration in wearing make-up by a woman. Although in the translated text, this sense of exaggeration is being denied, a cultural item of the source text is being substituted by a cultural equivalence of the target text.

(14) ST: vali ægær *khoon rah mioftad* mæn hazer næbudæm ke pirhæn ra ræd konæm (p.   107)

TT: I would not have given it back to her *to save my life.* (p. 144)

In this case the meaning of the source sentence seems to be different from what has been rendered in the target text. The Persian term 'khoon rah oftadæn' has noting to do with 'saving one's life'. The intended meaning by the author is 'strong insistence' or 'determination' in the ST, but the translated text conveys a different meaning from the original.

V. Conclusion

In most societies literature is being considered as the product of the dominant ideology. For Lefevere (1992a: 41, cited in Munday, J. 2001: 146) this ideology and the dominant poetics of the TT determine the translation strategy and the solution to specific problems. Translator as a mediator has different choices in the process of translation and may exert an intervention in this process producing a text that is more compatible to the socio-cultural framework and norms of the target language. This was observed in some of the above cases and they may be considered as domestication translation.

Paraphrasing was another observed strategy in the above instances. According to House (2001) in covert translation, the translator reproduces the source text function by applying a 'cultural filter', modifying cultural elements and adapts the target text to the preferences of the target receivers. On the other hand, in overt translation, the translator attempts to reproduce the function of the source text to the target text by staying close to the original text.

In some cases, based on the above findings, the translator has resorted to paraphrasing as a middle ground which is neither source-oriented nor target-oriented but the one that goes between these two extremes of a cline. This strategy reproduces the text through taking the generic term from the SL and describing it in the TL to be comprehensible for the reader. Therefore, paraphrasing will be helpful when these two extremes cannot be used in specific cases especially translation of culture-specific items.

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The Influence of Computer Applied Learning Environment on EFL or ESL Education

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Abstract—Due to the impact and influence of information technology on society and education, more and more colleges or universities start to employ computers for foreign language teaching and learning. Computer applied learning environment has been taken as an ideal way to facilitate second language acquisition in recent years This thesis investigates the effects of a computer-assisted "Fundamental English" course teaching program on the development of English-majors' motivation, learner autonomy, learning strategies and interactive & cooperative learning in a Chinese context. The roles of teacher in autonomous learning are still under research; as a result, the situation in college English teaching now is a little confusing. On the basis of language output and language test techniques, teachers are playing a more important role in the relation between class-room teaching and autonomous learning-homework-design, and it also proposes some possible teaching techniques and methods, and reveals some significance for effective application of the technology in the Chinese context and points out some limitations of this study.

Index Terms—computer applied learning environment, English autonomous learning, new learning concept, interactive & cooperative learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese learners of English always suffer from mastering real, normal and fluent English for lack of a live language environment. To facilitate effective and efficient English learning, we propose an ensemble approach that combines the findings from information technology, linguistics and second language acquisition in order to construct a better English learning environment for Chinese students. In this coming information age, no one can escape from the influence of knowledge explosion. There is no longer a fixed amount of knowledge that can be readily transmitted to learners. Only when learners avail themselves of each learning opportunity to find or create different types of knowledge, and continue life-long learning, can they meet the requirements of the new information age.

However little has been done in the field of English majors' English learning, especially in the reform of "basic English" course which is the trunk course for English majors not to mention empirical studies to investigate learners' changes in the process of development. Main reasons for it are that our state lays more emphasis on the teaching reform of non-English majors' College English learning since it will influence greater numbers of learners' language learning outcome; on the other hand, since the course is the trunk course for first and second year English major students, teachers of this course usually have much work to do during the first year.

Through a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods, this study explores the changes such a program has brought about in learners' motivation, autonomy, learning strategies, and interactive & cooperative learning. The underlying factors leading to the changes are also discussed. In other words, it aims to gain a better understanding of the relationship of the CALE to perceived changes in learners' motivation, autonomy, learning strategies as well as interactive & cooperative learning, so that we can design and implement such programs more effectively in the future.

II. THE RESEARCH

Chinese students have long been accustomed to the traditional teaching methods and rigid curriculum. They have been passive learners for many years. Whether they will feel comfortable in the flexible and active learning environment provided by CALE and whether the advocated merits of CALE environment can help them to learn better still remains questionable. In an effort to find the effects of CALE environment on EFL teaching and ESL education in Chinese environment, the writer has conducted an empirical research on 30 freshmen with English as their majors who have undergone a computer assisted most important course (according to the years it has been taught) teaching program implemented in the academic year of 2009-2010 at Hairpin University, China. The study's purpose is to answer the following questions:

1) What are learners' perceptions of the CALE?

2) What impacts does the CALE exert on learners' motivation, autonomy, learning strategies, and interactive learning?

3) What factors enhance or inhibit learner motivation, autonomy, learning strategies, and interactive & cooperative learning in the CALE?

A.   Context

Through language foundation training and discourse explanation and analysis, students' discourse reading ability can be improved, their knowledge of various English stylistic expressions and characteristics will be accumulated; meanwhile, their vocabulary will be enlarged, and they will become familiar with frequently used English sentence structures and have fundamental oral and written expression ability.

B.   Subjects

Results of the pre-program survey show the educational and technical background of the subjects. They have been learning English for about 9 to 12 years, with an average of 9.6 years. As English majors of Anhui University which is a key university of the state "211" project, all of these students have a very good English foundation since they have achieved high scores in the strict national college entrance examination, with an average of 117 on the subject of English. They are all qualified to take part in the experimental program. Before participating in the program, 46.7% of these students have never used any operating system or software,

C.   Procedures

The research was undertaken by the writer teaching College English to Class 1, Grade 2002. The purpose of the experiment which is also a trial reform of the teaching is to provide the participants with an opportunity to practice new electronic literacy through a hands-on way and cooperation with their classmates. They meet in the lab four times a week, two class hours for each time. Also, they regularly have three hours' self-access time every Monday afternoon and sometimes two hours before or after each meeting. During their self-access time, they can complete their course work which has to be done on computer or the Internet, or they can surf on the Internet to practice language competence, or to review teacher's courseware which has been stored on the server.

D.   Data Collection

As teacher of the class, the writer has designed and observed the whole program. To examine its impacts on learners, both quantitative and qualitative data have been collected through surveys, interviews, records of the students' e-mails and reports as well as the writer's observation notes.

Surveys Two surveys have been administered: Pre-program Survey and Post-program Survey. Both surveys ask similar questions related to learners' motivation, autonomy, learning strategies, and interactive & cooperative learning etc. Part I of both surveys consists of questions to investigate learners' attitude toward computer and CALE. Part II was designed on the basis of the 4 major influences of CALE environment discussed in Chapter 2, i.e., motivation, learner autonomy, learning strategies, and interactive & cooperative learning. Influence on motivation is investigated from three motivational factors: communication, empowerment and learning effects; influence on learner autonomy is investigated from three essential elements: goal-setting, independent action and evaluation; influence on learning strategies is investigated from the two non-traditional strategies: information processing and inferring, perception of courseware and learning methods in a CALE classroom; and influence on interactive & cooperative learning is investigated from five aspects: interdependence, interaction, accountability, interpersonal skills and group processing.

Interview An interview of some open-ended questions has also been conducted. The interview questionnaire is related to students' overall assessment of the program and the benefits and deficiencies as they perceive. The interview questions are as follows: What have you learned from the program? How is the experience different from that in the normal classrooms? Which one do you prefer in your future learning: CALE or traditional way of teaching? What are the special difficulties or problems you have to cope with in this program? If you have a chance to participate in a similar program, what would you suggest for improvement?

Students' Reports Students are supposed to write reports of reflections on the program twice, once in the middle of the program, i.e., the end of the first semester; the other at the end of the program, i.e., the end of the second semester. These reports are authentic data for study.

Researcher's Notes Throughout the whole program, the writer has kept watching the major events, and making notes about them. This is also useful data with which the writer can trace the students' changes when undergoing the program.

E.   Data Analysis

Quantitative Data Analysis

SPSS is first operated to examine the inside consistency of each category, with the purpose of identifying whether the classification of the twenty-five questions meets the statistical requirement. The value of each question's internal consistency is termed as Alpha. The result indicates that Q13 and Q20 need to be deleted in order to achieve the internal consistency for statistical purpose. After the two questions are deleted, values of the internal consistency of pre-program questionnaire and post-program questionnaire arrive at 0.7139 and 0.9178 respectively, both higher than 0.5 which is the least acceptable value acknowledged by most scholars. SPSS is used to obtain the mean and standard deviation of each item and categories (which is calculated from the mean of every item contained in that category), make paired-sample t-tests with the purpose to see whether there is any statistically significant change for all the subjects in each of the categories. But when typing in the data from the raw material, responses of those negative questions should

be reverse coded again to ensure the accuracy of questionnaire, i.e., change the original 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (completely agree), 5 to 1, 2 to 4, and 4 to 2. Since the value of 3 does not change, 3 remains unrecorded (Qin, 2003).

The analysis formulas used in the present study are listed as follows (Han, 2000; Qin, 2003):

<table>
<tr><td>Mean:</td><td>Standard Deviation</td></tr>
</table>

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x}{N}$$

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2}{n - 1}}$$

Qualitative Data Analysis

Data collection includes the interview transcripts, students' responses, students' reports and researcher's observation notes are considered as raw data. They have experienced the points coding firstly. Then all these key-points extracted from the raw materials are classified into the diversities of motivation, learner autonomy, methodology and interactive & cooperative learning. Quotations of some of these extracts are taken as proof in this thesis. They are marked heavily inside quotation marks to indicate that they are the original data collected from the students.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter presents the results on the research questions mentioned in the previous chapter and the discussions of the reasons underlying the changes. It consists of four sections. The first section reports and discusses changes in motivation in terms of factors of communication, empowerment and learning effect. The second section is devoted to learner autonomy in terms of factors of goal-setting, independent action and evaluation. The third section presents changes in learning strategies. The last section is for interactive & cooperative learning which is discussed in five sub-sections: interdependence, interaction, accountability, interpersonal skills and group processing. In these sections, changes are presented, alongside discussion of the enhancing and inhibiting factors.

A. Uplifted Motivation

The research results show that the program has been effective in intriguing learners' interests in language learning and greatly enhanced their self-esteem. Put it in students' own words cited from one of their reports, in a CALL environment,

"We felt active and joyful instead of depressing and insipid. Our enthusiasm for study increased!"

1. Changes in Communication

Mean score of the factor of communication in post-program survey is 4.2167, which is 1.5667 points higher than that in pre-program survey. Standard deviation drops from .75601 to .70324. The increased mean score indicates that learners' communication with others has been facilitated while the decreased standard deviation suggests variation of learners' perception on this category has become more homogeneous. Result of the t-test (t=-9.560, p=.000) shows that the change in this category reached the statistical significant level (p<.001).

Causes that contribute to this change can be summed up as follows:

In the first place, the long-distance, sometimes even cross-cultural network communication has helped sustain their interests. As a student talked to the writer in the interview,

"I felt so excited when I saw there were responses to my message left on 'Dave's ESL Café'. I value the chance to communicate and exchange opinions with those Indian, German, Australian and many other countries' students."

Then, with the aid of computers and the Internet, learners can publish, revise, move or delete any part of their own language performance conveniently. At the same time, when facing a computer, learners have more time to think and can work at their own pace, their anxiety of being afraid of making mistakes or losing face seems to have reduced to an optimal level.

2. Changes in the Factor of Empowerment

The mean score of changes in the factor of empowerment in the post-program survey is 3.29433, much higher than that in the pre-program survey 2.48333. The standard deviation drops from .59427 to .51572. More students tend to agree with each other in this category. Thus, the result of paired samples t-test (t=-12.801) shows the factor of empowerment has undergone a statistically significant change at the level of zero.

There is a computer literacy training phase before the formal implementation of this research. During that period, the subjects are given classes on the Internet search engine, modem database, information retrieval rules and symbols, and some other related technology and skills such as the use of agent server, popular download soft ware's, document styles and so on. After being empowered of efficient knowledge of information retrieval, learners are able to find any information they want on the Internet or in some specific databases.

3. Changes in Learning Effect

The mean score increases by 1.8999 points from 2.2100 before the program to 4.1000 after the program. However, it is out of expectation that the standard deviation increases, which means that learners' perception in this category tends to be more diversified.

There is left one point for question, i.e., Q5 in this category. Usually, most students' self-esteem and learning motivation have been strengthened by positive learning effects obtained in this study. In their findings, students uniformly claim that they have a great interest in exploring the computer and their confidence have been enhanced for their increased familiarity with computer operation. They absorb knowledge about language as well as other subjects. The Internet broadens their horizon. At the same time, they practice their skills to solve some problems in reality.

B.   Improved Learner Autonomy

1. Changes in Goal-setting

The result of the paired samples t-test (t=-1.153, P=.258) indicates that the change in this category did not reach the statistical significant level (P>.05). In other words, students' perception on goal-setting does not change obviously after the program. However, this result is not out of our expectation.

However, upon scrutiny of the statistics, it can still be found that the mean score has increased from 3.8667 in the pre-program survey to 4.0333 in the post-program survey. And the result of the standard deviation decreases greatly from .86037 to .31984. It is themselves who determined their own focuses on learning. When they take more control over their goals of learning and achieved favorable results of their own decisions, their awareness of setting a definite goal at the beginning of a learning process increases. One of the students expresses it in the interview like this:

"I think it (learning goal) is very important. If you can make arrangements for yourself, you can then carry out your learning plan systematically to achieve this goal. ...without a definite goal, in self-access period in the Internet lab, sometimes we would just wander on the net in great idleness, visiting some websites only for entertainment and killing time."

2. Changes in Independent Action

Great changes have taken place in the element of independent action, since the mean score in the post-program survey is higher than that in the pre-program survey, being improved significantly from 2.3200 to 4.0933Actually; the training of learners' sense of responsibility has been successful. At the very beginning of the program, some of the subjects feel at a loss when they are told that teacher will no longer occupy the privileged role of sole input of language and linguistic knowledge and they themselves should be responsible for their learning. They are discontent with receiving the confined knowledge arranged for them or being spoon-fed by the teacher. They believe that they should have freedom in choosing learning resources and that is important to the success of their English learning.

IV.   SIGNIFICANCE AND CONCLUSION

As introduced in Part Three, the computer-assisted "Fundamental English" course program is a tentative study, which attempts to explore how English-majors' English learning will be influenced by a CALE in a Chinese context. The results show comparatively satisfying outcomes of the study as well as many implications and limitations.

A.   Significance

1. Supporting Teacher's Preparation

While conducting CALE programs, teachers tend to relinquish some of their power and authority to the students. However, they play an even more important role as guides and coordinators of the learning process. Secondly, most language teachers think the biggest obstacle to implementing CALL is the technology problem. To successfully integrate CALE into language teaching and to be qualified to teach the computer-literacy courses, language teachers themselves should be familiar with basic hardware and software knowledge, the Internet and LAN, and so on; and be capable of developing basic forms of courseware. Thirdly, teachers should offer learners psycho-social support in the CALE environment to spur them on at the moment of uncertainty and support them in their efforts to overcome various obstacles.

2. Improving Students' Inveteracy

Although most students made much progress on many categories, there are still a few who stood still or even refuse to fit into the CALE, or had difficulty in getting rid of certain inveteracy. With regard to this kind of student, the best suggestion is to quit this program temporally to make up for both. Otherwise, not only the computer operation ability can not be improved, but the development of language proficiency will be hindered. Therefore, the inveterate concepts of traditional ways of learning have to be cleared; otherwise, all learners' integrative improvement can never be achieved.

3. Bettering Low-Tech Conditions

Computers and servers are linked and they are connected to the Internet through the campus network, a part of CERNET (China Education and Research Network). One is the unstableness of the Tell How Multimedia Classroom Software 3.0. The other one is the slow network transmission rate. All PCs in the Internet lab have only domestic IP. If the teacher and learners want to visit foreign websites, they have to use agent server, which cause unbearable slow network transmission rate. As we all know, most authentic language materials can only be found on foreign websites. Therefore, the low-tech conditions have to be upgraded in future study.

B.   Conclusion

In the present research, the writer has tried to explore the significance that a CALE program is of to supporting the learners' language learning. The result is that the program has achieved comparatively satisfying outcomes.

To begin with, most students in the study feel more confident and comfortable to join discussion via computer, and they enjoy using computer to communicate in English. What's more, the program has improved the subjects' learner activeness. After the program, the subjects put more emphasis on the setting of a specific and final learning goal. Lastly, the program has enriched the subjects' learning strategies. Since the courseware has helped them to understand the text in a more direct, visual, vivid and even interactive way, the subjects' perceptions of courseware are also significantly improved. In brief the CALE program is perceived by the subjects as a new enjoyable way to learn English effectively.

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