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Speech Recognition Performance of Adults: A Proposal for a Battery for Telugu

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Abstract—Speech audiometry is an essential component of the audiological test battery, as it provides information concerning one's sensitivity to speech stimuli and the understanding of speech at supra-threshold levels. With regard to the history of materials for speech audiometry, different kinds of materials have been developed by several investigators in English and non-English languages. Several such attempts have also been made to develop and standardize materials for speech audiometry in Indian languages. With reference to Telugu (South Indian Dravidian Language) no such material is available for measuring open-set speech recognition score in adults. Telugu is mother tongue of the majority of people of Andhra Pradesh (Southern State of India) which is divided into three regions. Although, the mother tongue of majority of people of Andhra Pradesh is Telugu, some of the most familiar and frequently used words in one region may not be familiar to people belonging to other regions due to dialectal variations. The purpose of this study is to develop speech material in Telugu which can be commonly used to assess speech recognition performance of individuals belonging to three regions. Four lists of bisyllabic words in Telugu were developed and equivalence analysis of difficulty between the word lists was evaluated for three groups (from three regions) of subjects (age range of 18-25 years) with normal hearing. Subsequently, performance intensity (PI) function for each list was also measured for the three groups. The results revealed that there was no significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between scores obtained by three groups for each list and between four lists for each group. The four word lists developed were found to be equally difficult for all the groups. The performance-intensity (PI) function curve showed semi linear function, and the linear portion of the curve indicated an average linear slope showing 4.64%, 4.62%, 4.52% and 4.54% increase in word recognition score per dB for list 1, list 2, list 3 and list 4 respectively and were found to be in accordance with the findings of earlier studies. The four lists thus developed were found to have sufficient reliability and validity in assessing speech recognition performance.

Index Terms—speech audiometry, speech recognition score, equivalence analysis, performance intensity function, reliability, validity

I. INTRODUCTION

Speech perception is defined as the process of decoding a message from a stream of sounds coming from the speaker (Borden & Harris, 1980). The study of speech perception is concerned with the listener's ability to perceive the acoustic waveforms produced by a speaker as a string of meaningful words and ideas (Goldinger, Pisonic & Logan, 1991). The components of speech perception and production are closely related and have been studied extensively for decades. Hearing is a vital sense that is necessary for the development and maintenance of acoustic communication skills. Hearing is the building block on which our intricate human communication system is constructed. Speech is one of the most important vehicles of human communication system. In order to hear and comprehend speech, it requires good auditory integrity. Individuals with hearing loss are bound to have difficulty in perception of speech. Therefore, it is the essential duty of audiologists to identify, evaluate and rehabilitate aurally handicapped individuals.

Aural rehabilitation refers to services and procedures for facilitating adequate receptive and expressive communication in individuals with hearing impairment (ASHA, 1984). Aural rehabilitation is designed to minimize the communication deficits caused by hearing loss. The first step in this process is a thorough evaluation of the audiological dimensions of the hearing loss. There are several clinical tests, which help the audiologist to make an accurate and effective diagnosis. The evaluation of an individual's hearing involves administering a battery of tests and these assessments collectively complement each other in defining the degree, type and configuration of hearing loss. Audiological evaluations also intend to provide information that describes the functional impact of hearing loss on communication. The principle tool used in the process of evaluating a patient's auditory functioning is an audiometer. Audiometer is an electronic device that produces and delivers sounds as a stimulus to the patient and determines the intensity needed for a patient to hear those sounds. The sounds used to test a person's hearing must be clearly specified

so that his hearing thresholds are both accurate and repeatable. The two most common sound stimuli used clinically to assess hearing are pure tones and speech. Each of them can provide valuable information concerning the integrity of the auditory system. Audiological assessment using non-speech signal such as pure-tones is known as pure-tone audiometry. On the other hand, audiological assessment using speech signal such as syllables, words, sentences etc. is known as speech audiometry.

Pure tone audiometry often thought of as the hearing test that involves presenting a series of pure-tones or beeps to the listener at specific frequencies to establish a person's hearing acuity. The smallest intensity of a sound (pure-tone) that a person needs to detect its presence is called his threshold for that sound. Clinically we define the threshold as the lowest intensity at which the patient responds to the sound at least 50% of the time. The hearing loss of an individual is usually defined as the average of pure-tone thresholds at 500 Hz, 1000 Hz and 2000 Hz in the better ear expressed in decibels (dB) with reference to normal thresholds. Pure-tone audiometry reveals the degree and type of hearing loss, and also facilitates the decision as to the need for further tests or medical interventions. The process of pure tone audiometry is uncomplicated and easily administered. *"Identification of the stimulus by the listener presumes a relatively simple neural apparatus and the response usually raising the hand is not complex one"* (Schill, 1985). Pure-tone audibility thresholds are an important part of many specialized procedures for testing auditory function as well as in evaluating hearing aids and other rehabilitation devices and in rehabilitation planning.

In spite of having such advantages, pure-tone audiometry alone has many limitations. Pure-tone audiometry does not provide all needed information for assessment of the auditory system. It serves the possibilities but not realities and helps in estimation only. Assessment of hearing using pure tones provide information regarding the sensitivity but not on the receptive auditory ability (Marshall & Bacon, 1981). The conventional pure tone procedures fail to provide any information about a person's ability to hear above the threshold. Pure tone audiometry can only assess the auditory system's ability to hear a simple stimulus and does not provide information about the individual's ability to understand speech. Ability to perceive pure tones does not require any psychic integration or synthesization thus the results are inadequate in the diagnosis and differential diagnosis of various auditory disorders (Willeford, 1969; in Kholia, 2010, p. 2).

To find out the ability of a patient to hear speech involves testing him with speech stimuli, and this process is called speech audiometry. Carhart (1951) defined speech audiometry as the technique where in standardized samples of a language are represented through a calibrated system to measure some aspect of hearing ability. Speech audiometry means any method of assessing the state or ability of the auditory system of an individual, using speech stimuli or sounds as the response evoking stimuli (Lyregaard, 1976). The above two definitions are broadly similar and they emphasize that the purpose of speech audiometry i.e. to assess the ability of the auditory system to understand speech. According to James Jerger, speech audiometry is best friend in the clinic for audiological diagnosis (Kholia, 2010). Speech stimuli used in speech audiometry vary from consonants, phonetically balanced words, spondee words, digits, non-sense syllables, sentences and even continuous digit discourse. Speech sounds are more meaningful and reflect the critical activities of life and the comprehension of social communication. We live in an oral-aural society and hence the most measurable aspect of human auditory function should be the ability to understand speech. In summary speech tests are generally regarded as clinically more acceptable than pure-tone audiometry for identifying patients with poor auditory analytical capability, because they also involve the assessment of higher-level linguistic activities and the effects of contextual constraints in processing auditory information (Wang, Mannell, Newall, Zhang & Han, 2007).

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A. Speech Recognition Score (SRS)

Speech recognition score (SRS) or word recognition score (WRS) or speech identification score (SIS) is a procedure of establishing the percentage of correctly perceived phonetically balanced monosyllabic words or consonant vowel combination presented at a comfortable supra-threshold level. Evaluating speech recognition score is a method where in the subject is presented with a series of stimuli and is asked to identify what he has heard and results are reported in terms of percentage on the basis of correctly repeated words presented to him. The phonetically balanced lists (PB lists) refer to the list of words consisting of a group of single words so selected that the frequency of occurrence of speech sounds within a group is same as the frequency of occurrence of the same sound in a language. Carhart (1965) recommended the use of monosyllabic words for discrimination test since they are meaningful to the patient and are non-redundant.

B. Clinical Functions of Speech Recognition Score

Gelfand (2007) has listed the following clinical functions of speech recognition score testing: 1) to describe the extent of hearing impairment in terms of how it affects speech understanding 2) to differentially diagnose auditory disorders by determining the anatomical site of lesion 3) for determining the needs for amplification and other forms of aural rehabilitation devices like cochlear implants, bone anchored hearing aids etc. 4) for making comparisons between various hearing aids, amplification approaches and other forms of aural rehabilitation devices 5) for verifying the

benefits of hearing aid use and other forms of aural rehabilitation devices 6) for monitoring patient performance over time for either diagnostic or rehabilitative purpose.

C. Materials Available for Measuring Speech Recognition Score

With regard to the history of materials for speech audiometry testing, different kinds of materials have been developed by several investigators in English and used in clinics over a long period. The material available in English may not be appropriate for many of the world's other languages due to speaker's specific language or dialect. As it is difficult to test individuals whose native language is not English, there has been a spurt in the attempts to develop speech materials in non-English languages such as Spanish (Christensen, 1995), Italian (Bocca & Pelligrini, 1950 and Turrini, Cutugno, Maturi, Prosser, Leoni & Arslan, 1993), Portuguese (Harris, Goffi, Gygi & Merrill, 2001), Polish (Harris, Nielson, Mcpherson, Skarzynski & Eggett, 2004), Mandarin Chinese (Nissen, Harris, Jennings, Eggett & Buck, 2005), Russian (Harris, Nissen, Pola, Mcpherson, Tavartkiladze & Eggett, 2007) and Tongan (Seaver, 2008). Several such attempts have also been made to develop and standardize speech audiometric materials and tests in Indian languages including PB word list in English on Indian population (Swarnalatha, 1972), PB word list in Hindi (De, 1973), PB word list in Tamil (Dayalan, 1976), PB words in Manipuri (Devi, 1985), PB word list in Kannada ((Yathiraj & Vijayalakshmi, 2005), PB word list in Mizo (Mangaiahi, 2009), PB word list in Rajasthani (Kholia, 2010). With reference to Telugu (South Indian Dravidian Language) no such material is available for measuring open-set speech recognition score in adults. Hence there is a need to develop such speech material and the current study aimed at developing word lists in Telugu for assessing speech recognition scores in adult subjects.

D. Telugu (a South Central Dravidian Language Spoken in South India)

Telugu is South Indian Dravidian language and has the third largest number of native speakers in India, and is 13th in the ethnologic list of most-spoken languages worldwide. It is the official language of Andhra Pradesh (state in south India), one of the largest states of India and the mother tongue of the majority of people of Andhra Pradesh. It is also spoken in such neighboring states as Karnataka, Tamilnadu, Orissa, Maharashtra and Chhattisgarh, and is one of the 22 scheduled languages of India. Niccolo Da Conti in 15th century called Telugu as the 'Italian of the East' as the words in Telugu end with a vowel sound similar to Italian. Telugu is mother tongue of the majority of people of Andhra Pradesh state. Andhra Pradesh is divided into three regions namely Telangana, Rayalaseema and Coastal Andhra. Although, the mother tongue of majority of people of Andhra Pradesh is Telugu, some of the most familiar and frequently used words in one region may not be familiar to people belonging to other regions due to dialectal variations. A number of studies on speech audiometry have indicated that the validity and reliability of speech recognition testing can be influenced by several factors, such as familiarity, words in common usage, normal sampling of speech sounds and so on. The word list developed by keeping in mind 'familiarity and commonly used' words with reference to particular region may not be useful to assess speech recognition performance in people belonging to other regions of Andhra Pradesh. Hence there is a need to develop material for assessing speech recognition score which includes words which are familiar and commonly used by people belonging to all the regions of Andhra Pradesh.

III. METHOD

Till date with reference to Telugu language no such material is available for measuring open-set speech recognition performance. The purpose of the study was to develop and evaluate word lists in Telugu for assessing speech recognition performance. In order to fulfill the aim of the study, the following method was adopted. The study was conducted in four phases:

Phase I: Development of word lists in Telugu as a test material for assessing speech recognition performance.

Phase II: Recording of the test material.

Phase III: Equivalence analysis of developed word lists.

Phase IV: Assessing performance-intensity (PI) function of normal subjects.

A. Phase I: Development of Word Lists in Telugu

The following steps were involved while developing the word lists in Telugu for assessing speech recognition performance: 1) Collection of words 2) Familiarity assessment of collected words 3) Subjective validation of words 4) Pilot study for objective validation of words 5) Construction of final word lists.

1. Collection of words in Telugu

The words were collected from different sources like periodicals, newspapers, magazines, journals, general books, phonetic books and spontaneous speech. This resulted in an accumulation of about 500 words in Telugu. The words collected were disyllabic in structure. These words were further subjected to familiarity assessment, subjective validation and objective validation in order to construct final word lists in Telugu for assessing speech recognition performance.

2. Assessment of familiarity of the collected words

The collected words were assessed for familiarity in order to ensure that the selected words were known to native speakers of Telugu and were commonly used by people belonging to different regions of Andhra Pradesh. To assess the familiarity of the selected words, a total of 90 subjects (age range of 18-25 years) from different regions of Andhra

Pradesh who are native speakers of Telugu language (Coastal Andhra, Rayalaseema & Telangana) were included. The subjects were further equally subdivided into three groups (30 subjects in each group) based on the above mentioned regions. A three point rating scale was used for familiarity rating as: most-familiar, familiar and unfamiliar. From the obtained results, the words with most-familiar and familiar rating were listed for each group (three regions). The obtained words of most-familiar and familiar rating were further assessed for homogeneity across individuals from the three regions. A hierarchical arrangement of the most-familiar and familiar rated words was done. The words with most-familiar and familiar response from the three different groups were considered for further assessment.

3. Subjective validation of test items

Validity refers to a degree to which a study accurately reflects or assesses the specific concept that the researcher is attempting to measure. Validity is the extent to which the concept one wishes to measure is actually being measured by a particular scale. To fulfill the purpose of validity of words in the test material, content validity was carried out to the words. Content validity is based on the extent to which a measurement reflects the specific intended domain of the content (Caramines, 1991). Content validity is based on logic and expertise. This type of validity is used because this technique helps the researcher to review how the essential test items can attribute the test measures. For the purpose of carrying out the content validity, the developed familiar words were given to six experts working in the field of Speech Language Pathology, Audiology and Linguistics. The experts were explained about the purpose of test procedure and asked to respond whether the words selected would fulfill the purpose. The responses of the experts were collected as agree, disagree and suggestions. Word wise validation of the material was done. A hierarchical arrangement of the agreed words was done. The only words which were agreed by all the experts were selected for further assessment.

4. Pilot study for objective validation of test items

A pilot study is a miniature version of a study that the researcher uses to test the validity of the collected words prior to the actual study. The pilot testing involves administering the test procedure using the collected words on a sample of normal subjects and analyzing the obtained data. This was carried out to ensure whether the words collected on the basis of familiarity assessment and expert validation can fulfill the goal of the speech recognition score testing. It is important that the test procedure be given in a situation that matches the actual circumstances in which test will be done. The pilot study was intended to identify the words which would be recognized or identified by a group of normal hearing subjects at an intensity level where it is expected to be recognized or identified correctly. It is generally expected that high speech recognition scores are obtained at levels of 30-40 dB SL relative to the SRT (Gold, Lubinsky & Shahrar 1981; in Silman & Silverman, 1991, p.141). Hence a presentation level of 40 dB SL with reference to SRT is used for the pilot study.

a. Subjects

A total of 45 subjects in the age group of 18-25 years with normal hearing and no speech disorders served as subjects. All the children were native speakers of Telugu language. The subjects were further equally divided into three groups (15 subjects in each group) depending on their region of Andhra Pradesh. Group I: subjects belonging to Coastal Andhra region, Group II: subjects belonging to Rayalaseema region and Group III: subjects belonging to Telangana region.

b. Audiometric testing

The audiometric assessments including otoscopic examination, pure-tone audiometry, speech audiometry and tympanometry were conducted to ensure that suitable subjects with normal hearing were selected for the experimental procedures. The pure-tone average threshold (PTA) and speech recognition threshold (SRT) was obtained for all the subjects using Maico MA 53 diagnostic clinical audiometer with TDH 39 headphones. Tympanometry was carried out using Madson Zodiack 901 middle-ear analyzer.

c. Administration procedure

The subjects were tested in a sound-treated audiometric room. The examiner presented the speech stimuli using monitored live voice, ensuring that the deflection of the VU meter was zero. A distance of 6-9 inches was maintained between the microphone and the mouth of the tester. Each subject was given following instructions in Telugu "you will listen to the words presented through headphones. Listen carefully and when you hear a word repeat the word in a loud voice". Initially ten practice items were presented in order to familiarize the subjects about the test procedure. If the subjects felt tired during the test, a short break was given. All the words obtained after subjective validation were presented at presentation level of SRT+40 dB SL. The stimulus was presented through Maico MA 53 diagnostic clinical audiometer with TDH 39 headphones.

d. Selection of words for constructing final word lists

The words which were correctly recognized or identified by each group of subjects were arranged in a hierarchical order. The words which were correctly recognized or identified by the three groups of subjects were selected for preparing final lists of phonemically balanced bisyllabic words for assessing speech recognition performance. This has resulted in an accumulation of 320 words.

e. Preparation of final bisyllabic word lists

Classical Telugu consists of 35 consonants, 10 vowels and 2 diphthongs (Ramanarasimham, 1998). When it comes to spoken Telugu the lower mid vowel /æ/ is used in it (Krishnamurti, 1998). Out of the total consonants 23 are considered as core and 12 are considered as non-core phonemes (Ramanarasimham, 1998). Although such a classification of core and non-core phonemes exists in Telugu, the final word lists were prepared based on the frequencies of occurrence of

the phonemes in the Telugu corpus available in Centre for Applied Linguistics and Translation Studies Language Technology Lab, University of Hyderabad, India. The phonemes which have frequencies of occurrence of equal to or more than 0.5 were only considered while preparing the final word lists. The phonemes on which the test items were constructed were based on the frequencies of occurrence of phonemes in Telugu (Rao & Thenarasu, 2007). As the number of consonantal phonemes in each word list was coming to 49 and in order to balance the each word list with 50 phonemes (consonant), phoneme /l/ was repeated in the list 1 and phoneme /t/ was repeated in list 2, list 3 and list 4 as per the convenience. A total four final word lists and one practice word list were prepared for assessing speech recognition performance. All the words were disyllabic with the CVCV structure. However, words like /ūru/ 'village', /eṭ u/ 'which side' and /ēdi/ 'which one' which are VCV in structure were also included in the final word lists. Due to limited number of words with /ṣ / in CVCV structure, the word /ṣ āpu/ 'shop' is included in list 2 and list 4. Each final word list consisted of 25 words (with a total of 100 words) and a trial list consisted of 10 words. After constructing the four final word lists, each final word list was again randomized into five times forming five different lists (with a total of 20 lists) for further assessment.

B. Phase II: Recording of the Test Material

The recording was done in a sound treated room and the noise levels were maintained as per the ANSI Guidelines S3.1-1991. Each randomized word list was spoken by a female native speaker of Telugu, and was recorded using 16 KHz sampling rate and 16 bit quantization using computerized speech lab (CSL) 4500 software. The signal was digitized at a sampling rate of 16 KHZ using a 12 bit analog to digital converter housed within the computer. Each word was saved as a separate file. The recorded material was then edited to carry out noise and hiss reduction. Amplitude normalization of the signals was done using adobe audition (version 3.0) software to maintain the constant amplitude across the words. The inter stimulus interval between the two words was set to 4 seconds. A calibration tone of 1 KHz was inserted before beginning of the word list to adjust the vu meter at zero. The material was then copied onto an audio compact disc using a compact disc writer.

C. Phase III: Assessing Equivalence Analysis of Word Lists

A formal study was carried out to evaluate the equivalence between four lists and comparing the performance of three groups for each list for further performance- intensity function assessment. In order to assess the equivalence between lists the following method has been formulated.

1. Subjects

A total of 90 subjects in the age group of 18 - 25 years with normal hearing and no speech disorders served as subjects. All the children were native speakers of Telugu language. The subjects were further equally divided into three groups (30 subjects in each group) depending on their region of Andhra Pradesh. Group I: subjects belonging to Coastal Andhra region, Group II: subjects belonging to Rayalaseema region and Group II: subjects belonging to Telangana region.

2. Audiometric testing

The audiometric assessments including otoscopic examination, pure-tone audiometry, speech audiometry and tympanometry were conducted to ensure that suitable subjects with normal hearing were selected for the experimental procedures. The pure-tone average threshold (PTA) and speech recognition threshold (SRT) was obtained for all the subjects using Maico MA 53 diagnostic clinical audiometer with TDH 39 headphones. Tympanometry was carried out using Madson Zodiac 901 middle-ear analyzer.

3. Administration procedure

A total of 100 words equally divided into four final lists containing 25 words in each list (list 1, list 2, list 3 and list 4) were used as stimulus. Each word list was randomized in order for 5 times to form five different lists and a total of 20 different word lists (random 1, random 2, random 3, random 4 and random 5 of list 1, list 2, list 3 and list 4). This was done to avoid order and practice effect. The developed test material was played through a CD player, which was routed through Maico MA 53 diagnostic clinical audiometer and delivered through the TDH 39 headphones. The stimulus was presented at five presentation levels (5 dB SL, 15 dB SL, 25 dB SL, 35 dB SL and 45 dB SL with reference to SRT). At each presentation level a different randomized list was used. The order of list was also changed. All the subjects were tested monaurally with four lists and ear selection was done randomly. An open set response in the form of an oral response was obtained. If the subject felt tired during the test, a short break was given. The subjects were tested in a sound-treated audiometric room. Each subject was given following instructions in Telugu "you will listen to the disyllabic words presented through headphones. Listen carefully and when you hear a word repeat the word in a loud voice". Initially ten practice items were presented in order to familiarize the subjects about the test procedure. The responses of the subjects were marked as either 0 or 1. Each correct response was given a score of 1 and an incorrect response was given a score of 0. The raw score was then converted to percentage as follows:

$$\text{Total score (\%)} = \frac{\text{Total number of correct response}}{\text{Total number of words presented}} \times 100$$

D. Phase IV: Performance-Intensity (PI) Function Testing

Performance-intensity function is a graphical representation of the percentage of words correctly identified or recognized as a function of the intensity level of the words. The group mean and standard deviation values for each list at different presentation levels were calculated. These mean speech recognition scores at different presentation levels were used to obtain performance intensity function curve of each group for four lists. Various researchers have stated that performance of the subjects vary with the level of intensity of presentation of stimulus. Therefore, in order to find out the intensity level at which the performance could be maximum, the presentation level was increased in 10 dB steps starting from the 5 dB SL. Curve estimation and regression analysis were carried out in order to find out linearity function of the performance intensity function curve and to find out the average percentage (%) increase per dB in word recognition.

IV. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

A. Equivalence Analysis of Word Lists

Speech recognition scores were calculated for each subject of three groups at each presentation level for four lists. Inter-list equivalence analysis was carried out by calculating the mean and standard deviation values of each group score for each list at different presentation levels. The mean and standard deviation values for each list at different presentation level for three groups are summarized in table 1. It has been found that with increase in presentation level, there was a corresponding increase in mean speech recognition scores in all the groups for four lists used. Each list showed normal distribution in all the groups. The data was subjected to ANOVA in order to find out significant difference in speech scores of each group between four lists. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between scores of each group between four lists ($p < 0.05$). In addition to this the group score comparison was also carried out to find out any significant difference in groups mean score between four lists. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in groups mean score between four lists ($p < 0.05$). Finally the mean score comparison between three groups for each list was also carried out to find out significant difference in scores of each list between three groups. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in mean score of each list between three groups ($p < 0.05$). Hence it can be concluded that all the four lists are equally difficult for all the groups and could be used in testing the PI-PB function.

TABLE 1
MEAN SPEECH RECOGNITION SCORES (%) OF EACH LIST AT DIFFERENT PRESENTATION LEVELS FOR THREE GROUPS

Word List	Presentation Level (reference to SRT)	Group I		Group II		Group III	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
List 1	05 dB SL	24.20	12.80	24.80	13.60	24.66	13.70
	15 dB SL	70.73	08.70	71.10	08.65	71.26	08.70
	25 dB SL	95.06	03.43	96.40	03.21	96.66	03.16
	35 dB SL	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00
	45 dB SL	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00
List 2	05 dB SL	24.40	13.34	25.73	14.91	25.86	14.50
	15 dB SL	71.40	09.17	71.53	09.04	71.80	09.04
	25 dB SL	95.73	03.57	95.73	03.47	96.26	03.67
	35 dB SL	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00
	45 dB SL	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00
List 3	05 dB SL	24.80	14.41	25.06	14.70	25.20	14.89
	15 dB SL	70.60	08.83	70.73	08.88	71.26	09.31
	25 dB SL	95.60	03.37	96.26	03.13	96.94	03.09
	35 dB SL	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00
	45 dB SL	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00
List 4	05 dB SL	25.20	14.89	25.86	15.28	26.13	15.03
	15 dB SL	71.13	09.09	71.40	08.61	71.13	08.59
	25 dB SL	96.00	03.48	96.40	03.53	96.66	03.16
	35 dB SL	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00
	45 dB SL	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00

B. Performance-Intensity (PI) Function Testing

TABLE 2
GROUP MEAN SPEECH RECOGNITION SCORES (%) AT DIFFERENT PRESENTATION LEVELS

Presentation Level (Reference to SRT)	List 1		List 2		List 3		List 4	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
05 dB SL	24.55	13.36	25.33	14.25	25.20	14.66	25.73	15.06
15 dB SL	71.03	08.68	71.57	09.08	70.85	09.00	71.22	08.76
25 dB SL	96.04	03.26	96.04	03.57	95.90	03.19	96.35	03.39
35 dB SL	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00
45 dB SL	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00	100.00	00.00

Performance-intensity function is a graphical representation of the percentage of words correctly identified or recognized as a function of the intensity level of the words. The group mean and standard deviation values for each list at different presentation levels are summarized in table 2. These mean speech recognition scores at different presentation levels were used to obtain performance intensity function curve of each list for three groups. Figure 1 shows group mean performance intensity function curve for list 1, list 2, list 3 and list 4. The mean word recognition scores increased as the presentation levels increased and the subjects reached 100% scores at SRT+35 dB SL for all the lists. This remained unchanged thereafter at higher intensity i.e. at SRT+45 dB SL. However, the normal range of recognition scores (90%-100%) was obtained at 25 dB SL with reference to SRT for all the lists. Clinically the most commonly used sensation levels are 25 to 40 dB SL. Twenty five dB SL corresponds to beginning of the plateau at which normal hearing subjects attains scores of 90% or better on most tests, and 40 dB sensation level represents a reasonably comfortable listening level for normal hearing subjects. The results revealed a narrow standard deviation for extreme presentation levels while broad standard deviation for low and mid presentation levels. When curve estimation and linear regression analysis were carried out, the performance intensity function curve represented a semi-linear function in all the groups. The lower segments of the curves are more linear as compared to less linear higher segments. Linear regression analysis showed that the linear portion of the function indicated an average linear slope showing 4.64%, 4.62%, 4.52% and 4.54% increase per dB in word recognition for list 1, list 2, list 3 and list 4 respectively.

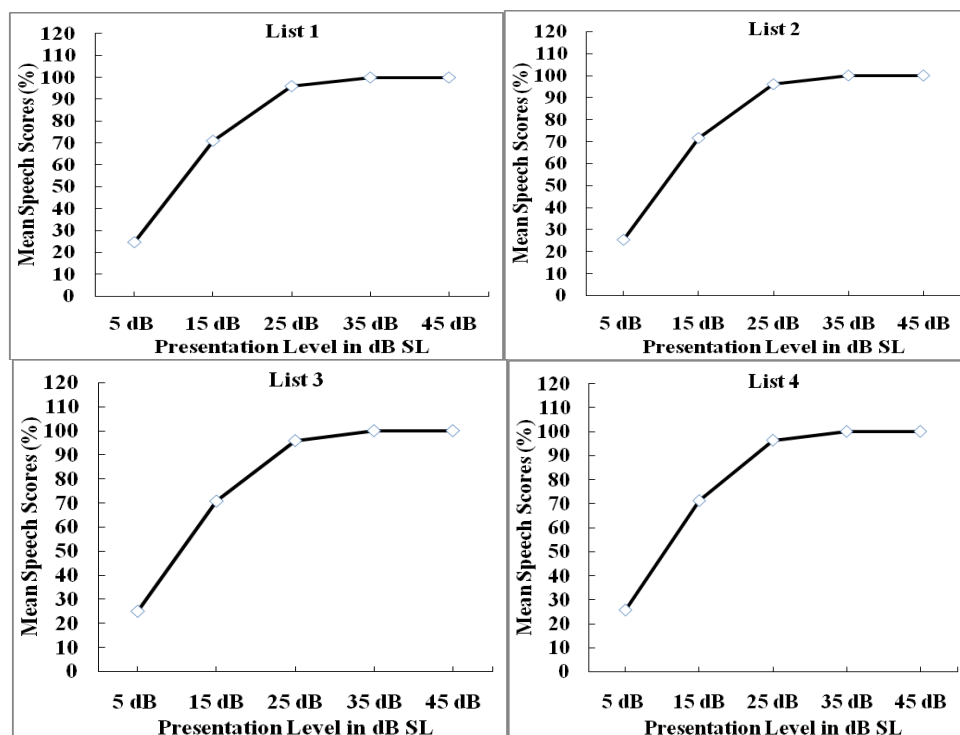


Figure 1: Group Performance Intensity (PI) function of List 1, List 2, List 3 and List 4

V. DISCUSSION

Speech audiometry testing is generally regarded as clinically more acceptable than pure-tone audiometry for identifying individuals with poor auditory analytical capability, because they also involve the assessment of higher-level linguistic functions and the effects of contextual constraints in processing auditory information. Telugu is South Central Dravidian language spoken most commonly in Andhra Pradesh a southern state in India. With reference to Telugu, only a limited number of materials have been developed for use in speech audiometry. To date no speech material is available in Telugu to measure open set speech recognition scores in adults. Hence, the current study aimed at developing speech material for assessing speech recognition performance of adults in Telugu. A number of authors have indicated that the reliability and validity of speech audiometry testing can be influenced by factors such as the familiarity, phonetic balance of the words and type of stimulus used (Mackie & Dermody, 1982; Borden & Harris, 1980 and Nissen, Harris, Jennings, Eggett & Buck, 2005).

As mentioned earlier, Telugu is the mother tongue of the majority of people of Andhra Pradesh state which is divided into three regions. Although, the mother tongue of majority of people of Andhra Pradesh is Telugu, some of the most familiar and frequently used words in one region may not be familiar to people belong to other regions. The word list developed by keeping in mind 'familiarity and commonly used' words with reference to particular region may not be effective to assess speech recognition performance in people belonging to other regions of Andhra Pradesh. Hence there is a need of material for assessing speech recognition performance which includes words which are familiar and

commonly used by people belonging to all the regions of Andhra Pradesh. Hence, by considering 'familiarity' as an important factor in developing the word list, the authors in the current study carried out familiarity assessment among the subjects with different regional background and developed four lists of bisyllabic words.

The concept of phonetic balance played a major role in the development of many speech recognition tests. The phonetically (or rather phonemically) balanced (PB) word lists are a long established tool for the study of speech intelligibility. They generally contain monosyllabic words that have been selected in such a way that the lists reflect the statistical distribution of the phonemes in that dialect. However, phonetic balance has been found to have little practical impact on the outcomes of speech recognition tests, and its clinical relevance is questionable (Carhart, 1970; In Gelfand, 2007, p.274 and Aspinall, 1973; In Gelfand, 2007, p.274). Boothroyd (1968; in Wang et al. 2007, p.1-2) did not follow the concept of phonetic balance and developed the AB monosyllabic word lists with 10 words in each list, and described the lists as isophonemic, as the thirty most common phonemes appear in each list. Martin, Champlin & Perez (2000) reported that speech discrimination scores for subjects with hearing impairment or normal hearing did not seem to be affected by whether the word list had phonetic balance or not. Hence, in terms of its relevance to speech recognition testing, the issue of phonetic balance is still an area of dispute (Nissen, Harris, Jennings, Eggett & Buck, 2005). However, the authors in the current study felt that phonemic balance is important at least for consonants.

Vowels are produced without obstruction in the airflow and perceived better than consonants because they are voiced and relatively high in intensity. Vocal tract is relatively open for them producing prominent resonance for vowels. The first two formant frequencies (F1 & F2) are essential for the discrimination of the vowel sounds. Vowels are more accessible to auditory analysis by virtue of their longer duration and may hold longer duration in the auditory memory (Stevens, 2002). On the other hand, consonants are produced with the obstruction in the airflow. Consonants are classified according to whether they are voiced or unvoiced, by manner of production (stops, fricatives, nasals etc.) and by place of production (labial, alveolar, palatal etc.). Consonant sound identification is more dependent upon the ability to receive the higher frequency components. If these are inaudible, the place of consonant articulation cannot be determined, thus precluding identification. Although, most of the consonants contain the least power than vowels, these consonants are the ones which provide the major contributions of speech intelligibility. They are affected by loss of intensity rapidly than vowels. Hence, consonants are less accessible to auditory analysis due to their brevity and relatively low intensity, and held briefly in auditory memory (Stevens, 2002). Thus it could be inferred from the above information that perception of consonants is much more complex than vowel perception, due to the low intensity, more susceptible to degradation and varied classifications. This makes it a priority to consonantal aspect of phonemic balance in the word lists. Hence, the authors in the study considered that consonantal aspect of phonemic balance is reasonable while developing the word lists.

Another important aspect is the type of speech material used for assessing speech recognition scores. Monosyllabic words are generally used for assessing speech recognition scores, because monosyllabic words are minimum meaningful unit of a language and are non-redundant. Monosyllables are adequately available in languages like English and other Indian languages, because they are both vowel and consonant ending languages. But some are vowel ending languages where the occurrence of monosyllabic words will be minimal. In such languages it is difficult to construct phonetically balanced monosyllabic word lists because of the inadequate occurrence of meaningful monosyllables. In language like Italian, bisyllabic words are most frequently used as compared to monosyllabic words for developing speech material in evaluating intelligibility function (Turrini, Cutugno, Maturi, Prosser, Leoni & Arslan, 1993). Bocca & Pelligrini (1950) and Turrini, Cutugno, Maturi, Prosser, Leoni & Arslan (1993) developed disyllabic words as a material for speech audiometry. This could be attributed to the reason that, there are very few monosyllabic words in Italian, and most of them are function words (Pagliuca & Monaghan, 2010) since Italian is a vowel ending language. Similarly in Kannada (south Indian Dravidian language) disyllabic words are used to assess speech recognition scores (Yathiraj & Vijayalakshmi, 2005) as Kannada is also a vowel ending language.

The authors in the current study also faced difficulty in collecting monosyllabic words for constructing test material in Telugu. There are very few monosyllabic words in Telugu as compared to bisyllabic words (Rao & Thenarasu 2007). Moreover, most of the monosyllabic words in Telugu do not convey meaning when they occur in isolation. These monosyllabic words gain meaning only when they occur in combination with some other word. This could be attributed to the reason that Telugu is yet another vowel ending language like Italian and Kannada. Hence, Niccolo Da Conti in 15th century called Telugu as the '*Italian of the East*' as the words in Telugu and Italian end with a vowel sound. Disyllabic words are frequently occurring minimum meaningful units of Telugu language. Hence disyllabic words were used in constructing test material for assessing speech recognition performance in Telugu. In summary speech recognition scores are the percentage of correctly identified or recognized monosyllabic words, provided the language contains adequate number of meaningful monosyllabic words. However, languages which end with vowel do not contain adequate number of meaningful monosyllabic words and hence disyllabic words can be used since they are the most frequently occurring minimum meaningful units of that particular language. Hence it can be concluded that *speech recognition score is the percentage (%) of correctly identified or recognized test words which are minimum meaningful units of a language and less redundant and presented at comfortable supra-threshold level.*

A total four final word lists and one practice word list were prepared for assessing speech recognition performance. All the words were disyllabic with the CVCV structure. However, words like /ūru/ 'village', /eṭ u/ 'which side' and

/ēdi/ 'which one' which are VCV in structure were also included in the final word lists. In Dravidian languages, especially in Telugu, the words beginning with front vowels /i/, /ī/, /e/ and /ē/ are preceded by the palatal glide /y/ when they occur in the initial position. Similarly, the words beginning with back vowels /u/, /ū/, /o/ and /ō/ are preceded by labial glide /w/ when they occur in initial position. Hence, the words like /ūru/, /eṭ u/ and /ēdi/ are considered as [wūru], [yeṭ u] and [yēdi] respectively in this study. In order to keep the phonemic balance and due to limited number of words with /ṣ/ in CVCV structure, the word /ṣ āpu/ 'shop' is included in list 2 and list 4. It is felt that this would not present problems, as there were a total of 100 disyllabic words in the lists (see appendix).

There are four different methods commonly used to determine the reliability of tests of speech recognition, including test-retest reliability, inter-list equivalence, split-half method and inter-item consistency reliability (Mackie & Dermody, 1982). In this study, the equivalence of difficulty between four lists of Telugu bisyllabic words was evaluated. The four lists developed in the study showed normal distribution and there was no statistically significant difference found between four lists for each group at each presentation level. When the data was further analyzed to identify significant difference in mean scores of each group, it was found that there was no significant difference found between three groups for each list. Hence, the four lists were found to have equal difficulty and these word lists can be used interchangeably for any group of subjects in clinical practice.

There are three categories of methods commonly used to determine the validity of tests of speech recognition, including construct validity, criterion related validity and content validity. Criterion-related validity indicates the validity of a test predicting an individual's behavior in specified situation (Anastasi, 1968). In this study performance-intensity function curve, which is the percentage correct identification of speech stimulus as a function of stimulus intensity, was measured. The standard deviation values reduced as the presentation level was increased in the mean performance-intensity function test. The results revealed a narrow standard deviation for extreme presentation levels while broad standard deviation for low and mid presentation levels. This indicates that at higher presentation levels the subjects' performance became less variable. This may occur because, as the presentation level increases, the relevant phonetic cues would become more reliably audible to these normally-hearing subjects. As the presentation level decreased the responses from the subjects became more variable. This may occur because phonetic cues would become less reliably audible and responses would increasingly depend upon guessing the words.

The group mean slope of the linear portion of the PI-PB function for Telugu bisyllabic words shows 4.64%, 4.62%, 4.52% and 4.54% increase per dB in word recognition for list 1, list 2, list 3 and list 4 respectively. Beattie, Edgerton & Svihovec (1977) reported a mean slope of 4.2% per dB and 4.6% per dB for English materials, the NU-6 word lists and the CID W-22 word lists respectively and for Indian materials, the authors Dayalan (1976), Devi (1985) and Kholia (2010) reported a mean slope of 3.0% per dB, 5.4% per dB and 3.7% per dB for Tamil, Manipuri and Rajasthani PB word lists respectively. The normal range of speech recognition score (90%-100%) was obtained between 25 dB SL and 45 dB SL stimulus presentation levels for all the lists. It is generally expected that high speech recognition scores are obtained at levels of 30-40 dB SL relative to the SRT (Gold, Lubinsky & Shahr 1981; in Silman & Silverman, 1991, p.141). Although, there is no other speech recognition test for adults available in Telugu language, most of the findings of the study are in line with the findings of earlier researchers.

VI. CONCLUSION

Speech audiometry is an essential component of the audiological test battery, as it provides information concerning one's sensitivity to speech stimuli and the understanding of speech at supra-threshold levels. Speech perception skills must be assessed routinely using valid and reliable clinical assessment methods suitable for native speakers of language. The current study developed four bisyllabic word lists in Telugu for assessing speech recognition performance in adults. They were found to be equally difficult, reliable and valid test material in Telugu. To continue the studies on the developed speech material, the test material can be administered on hearing impaired population and other clinical population to check the applicability. This test material can be used in selecting appropriate rehabilitative options and also to measure the efficacy of different rehabilitative devices. The same test material can be used to further develop speech in noise (SPIN) test, time compressed speech test, filtered speech test and other special test for differential diagnosis of auditory disorders.

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APPENDIX I: FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE OF PHONEMES IN TELUGU

S. No.	Telugu Letter	Phonetic Symbol	Occurrence Per 100 Phonemes	Occurrence Per 50 Phonemes	N L1	N L2	N L3	N L4
1.	క	k	7.80	3.90	4	4	4	4
2.	ఖ	kh	0.30	0.15	0	0	0	0
3.	గ	g	3.80	1.90	2	2	2	2
4.	ఘ	gh	0.10	0.05	0	0	0	0
5.	ఙ	ṅ	0.00	0.00	0	0	0	0
6.	చ	c	3.90	1.95	2	2	2	2
7.	ఛ	ch	0.60	0.30	0	0	0	0
8.	జ	j	1.20	0.60	1	1	1	1
9.	ఝ	jh	0.00	0.00	0	0	0	0
10.	ఞ	ṇ	0.10	0.05	0	0	0	0
11.	ట	ṭ	3.80	1.90	2	2+1	2+1	2+1
12.	ఠ	ṭh	0.10	0.05	0	0	0	0
13.	డ	*ḍ	3.80	1.90	2	2	2	2
14.	ఢ	ḍh	0.00	0.00	0	0	0	0
15.	ణ	ṇ	0.90	0.45	0	0	0	0
16.	త	t	5.90	2.95	3	3	3	3
17.	థ	th	0.40	0.20	0	0	0	0
18.	ద	d	4.60	2.30	2	2	2	2
19.	ధ	dh	0.90	0.45	0	0	0	0
20.	న	n	12.10	6.05	6	6	6	6
21.	ప	p	5.70	2.85	3	3	3	3
22.	ఫ	ph	0.30	0.15	0	0	0	0
23.	బ	b	1.50	0.75	1	1	1	1
24.	భ	bh	0.80	0.40	0	0	0	0
25.	మ	m	5.70	2.85	3	3	3	3
26.	య	y	4.10	2.05	2	2	2	2
27.	ర	r	9.00	4.50	5	5	5	5
28.	ల్	l	8.80	4.40	4+1	4	4	4
29.	వ	w	5.90	2.95	3	3	3	3
30.	శ	ḷ	0.70	0.35	0	0	0	0
31.	ష	ṣ	1.20	0.60	1	1	1	1
32.	స	ś	1.00	0.50	1	1	1	1
33.	హ	s	4.30	2.15	2	2	2	2
34.	ఘౌ	h	0.80	0.40	0	0	0	0
35.	ఱ	R	0.30	0.15	0	0	0	0

NL 1, NL 2, NL 3 and NL 4 - Number of phonemes in List 1, List 2, List 3 and List 4 respectively.

*/ḍ/ has an allophone [ɽ] which usually occurs in an intervocalic position. But there is no separate letter in Telugu for [ɽ] and it is always represented by the phonetic symbol [ḍ] i.e. 'డ' in Telugu.

APPENDIX II: FINAL WORD LISTS

APPENDIX II: FINAL WORD LISTS

N	List 1	List 2	List 3	List 4				
1	పాత	pāta	కోతి	kōti	పాట	pāṭa	తోట	tōṭa
2	నేను	nēnu	గోడ	gōḍa	కూర	kūra	నూనె	nūne
3	యాస	yāsa	రేటు	rēṭu	జాలి	jāli	రైతు	raitu
4	జేబు	jēbu	బాతు	bātu	ఏది	# ēdi	వేడి	wēḍi
5	పేరు	pēru	గాలి	gāli	నోరు	nōru	నీకు	nīku
6	లేదు	lēdu	దారి	dāri	కోడి	kōḍi	షాపు	ṣāpu
7	కాలు	kālu	తేలు	tēlu	లైటు	laiṭu	గోరు	gōru
8	తేనె	tēne	నాకు	nāku	షోకు	ṣōku	లేడు	lēḍu
9	రాడి	rauḍi	సేవ	sēwa	వాడు	wāḍu	కాశీ	kāśī
10	వాన	wāna	రోలు	rōlu	మూల	mūla	రాను	rānu
11	షాకు	ṣāku	నీడ	nīḍa	చీర	cīra	సైగ	saiga
12	మీరు	mīru	కసి	kasi	గాను	gaunu	పాలు	pālu
13	సూది	sūdi	నూరు	nūru	దోశ	dōśa	లారి	lāri
14	చాలు	cālu	జోకు	jōku	రైలు	railu	నాది	nādi
15	మేక	mēka	శని	śani	మేత	mēta	చాట	cāṭa
16	టీవి	ṭīwi	చేయి	cēyi	నస	nasa	నెల	nela
17	వాగు	wāgu	దోమ	dōma	ఊరు	# ūru	సరే	sarē
18	కోటు	kōṭu	షాపు	ṣāpu	బోను	bōnu	మాట	māṭa
19	లోయ	lōya	నేల	nēla	ఎటు	# eṭu	వాత	wāta
20	చారు	cāru	రాయి	rāyi	పూస	pūsa	బావ	bāwa
21	పైన	paina	పాము	pāmu	నీతి	nīti	మాయ	māya
22	మూడు	mūḍu	విను	winu	మూగ	mūga	జామ	jāma
23	లేను	lēnu	టోపి	ṭōpi	తోక	tōka	పీక	pīka
24	రాశి	raśi	చీమ	cīma	వీపు	wīpu	చేదు	cēdu
25	తీగ	tīga	వోటు	wōṭu	చేను	cēnu	కాయ	kāya

In Telugu, the words beginning with front vowels /i/, /ī/, /e/ & /ē/ are preceded by the palatal glide /y/ and back vowels /u/, /ū/, /o/ and /ō/ are preceded by labial glide /w/ when they occur in initial position. Hence, the words in the lists /ūru/, /eṭu/ and /ēdi/ are considered as [wūru], [yeṭu] and [yēdi] respectively in this study.

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Persuasive Discourse in EFL Debate

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Abstract—The aim of this article is to investigate the use of persuasive strategies in multinational university students' EFL debate, in which a group of multinational students had to act out the roles of proponents and opponents in debates carried out in an institutional setting. Their use of persuasive discourse was analyzed by using the principles based on Aristotelian rhetoric. According to the results, the students were able to use rhetorical devices, to express ethos, pathos and logos, in their argumentation. They were able to use logical reasoning, give examples and statistical information, and support their arguments with evidence. Their persuasive strategies consisted of restructuring, repetition, questions, appeals, and intonational, assertive use of voice. A comparison of crosscultural differences showed that the non-Finnish students used logical reasoning, restructuring, and appeals more frequently than the Finnish students in their L2 debating.

Index Terms—persuasive discourse, rhetorical devices, debating, crosscultural differences

I. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this article is to investigate elements of persuasive discourse in EFL debate. The genre of persuasion is amongst the oldest styles of discourse, studied and practised already in the antiquity. In the first part of my article I will present the background of my study and the reasons for it. My observations concerning university students' limited oral skills in English led me to investigate the possible reasons for the students' problems. Being aware of the dilemma known as the Finnish communication reticence (Sallinen-Kuparinen 1986; Sallinen 1994), I wanted to create a challenging and demanding language testing situation with exact instructions, which would facilitate the students' efforts to cope in English. After several efforts I noticed that role-games would help me achieve positive results. Furthermore, debating had become a popular form of practice for language teaching and this led me to develop the study in question. Accordingly, the empirical part of my research project is an analysis of the use of persuasive discourse in debates in which a multinational group of university students acts out either the proponents' or the opponents' roles in English. In this article, my main interest is in the investigation of persuasive discourse and crosscultural differences among the students of different nationalities. My research questions are:

- 1) What kinds of persuasive devices do the students have available in a demanding debating situation in English?
- 2) What kinds of crosscultural differences are there in Finnish and non-Finnish students' use of persuasive discourse?

In persuasive communication, the speakers try to influence the behaviour of others with the aim of trying to make them alter their opinions, beliefs, attitudes, and values. The role of the speaker in persuasion is the most important part of the process, but in addition, the nature and structure of the message and the role of the audience are also significant. Persuasion is successful, if it leads to attitude change (Simons et al., 2001).

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

I will start my theoretical framework with a historical survey of the origins of persuasive discourse and then investigate the central elements of rhetoric. After that I will explain my data and methods before presenting the empirical part of the study.

A. History of Persuasive Discourse

The history of persuasive discourse dates back to the antique times, practised first in Greece (Plato and Aristotle) and then in Rome (Cicero), where the main purpose of rhetorical studies was to become a good orator in political assemblies. After the fall of the Roman Empire in 275 the study of rhetoric fell into oblivion and was not practised until the 16th century when argumentation studies were reintroduced as an independent academic discipline. Rhetoric has often been regarded as belonging to the language of politics and religious discourse. Since the second half of the 19th century, courses on writing and public speaking inspired by classical rhetoric were introduced in North America and Europe, and now many universities provide courses on debating and argumentation based on classical rhetoric (van Eemeren & Grootendorst, 2005). I will present the main principles of Aristotelian rhetoric ethos, pathos, and logos in more detail in Section II.b below. Hovland, one of the earliest modern researchers who has done versatile research on persuasion and attitude change, developed the Social Judgment Theory concerning attitude change with his collaborators at Yale University in the 1950s (Hovland, Janis, and Kelley, 1953). Social Judgement Theory states that one has a statement or message and that one either accepts or rejects it on the basis of one's cognitive map. A part of the theory is Source Credibility Theory according to which people are more likely to be persuaded when the source presents itself as credible.

Hovland developed the Social Judgement Theory further with M. Sherif (1961), interpreting that individuals have three zones in which they accept or reject specific messages or attitudes, viz. acceptance, rejection, and non-commitment. C. & M. Sherif & Nebergall (1965) investigated the Social Judgement Theory further and emphasized the difficulty of position-taking from the persuadee's point of view.

Since the late 1950s the study of argumentation has gradually developed from a marginal part of logic and rhetoric into a genuine and interdisciplinary academic discipline. As an example, Roloff and Miller (1984) compiled a collection of articles addressing the effects of persuasion on various fields of life ranging from Marketing and Persuasion to Political Campaigns. Similarly, Burgoon & Bettinghaus have investigated Persuasive Message Strategies (1984). Argumentation has become an important field of studies, as seen in van Eemeren and Houtlosser's important volume *Argumentation in Practice* (2005) which introduces useful theoretical perspectives. Tannen, (1999, pp. 215-223) indeed states that the ways of expressing agreement and disagreement are different in different cultures and emphasizes the importance of argumentation studies. Many conflicts could be avoided if awareness of cross-cultural differences could be increased.

The notion of discursive power is frequently connected to persuasion. Power is always part of language use and if we think of persuasive discourse where we intentionally emphasize the influence of language, we agree that persuasion and power go hand in hand (Fairclough, 2001). In his *The Power of Persuasion: How We're Bought and Sold* (2003) Levine emphasizes that the content of the persuasive message is only one part of the persuasive process: how it is said, who says it, and where it is said are other important aspects in it. In addition to awareness of persuasive strategies the speakers should know how to behave in the oral persuasive situation and what kind of voice and tone one should use, in other words, the speakers should also be aware of the paralinguistic tools (see Metsämäki, 2011).

B. *Elements of Persuasive Discourse*

I will first present Aristotle's (1926) own definition in which he compares rhetoric with other fields of science and the arts:

Rhetoric can be defined as the faculty of discovering the possible means of persuasion in reference to any subject whatever. (This is the function of no other of the arts, each of which is able to instruct and persuade in its own special subject: thus, medicine deals with health and sickness). . . But Rhetoric so to (speak) appears to be able to discover the means of persuasion in reference to any given subject. That is why we say that as an art its rules are not applied to any particular definite class of things. (Aristotle 1926:p. 15)

What this shows is that awareness of rhetoric helps us resort to its tools in many fields of society. The following section will define the key terms of persuasion in more detail. Aristotle (1926) distinguishes three kinds of proofs or structural principles: persuasion by moral character (ethos), persuasion by putting the hearer into a certain emotional frame of mind (pathos), and persuasion by the speech itself (logos). On the basis of this analysis, we can draw the following conclusion: persuasive talk consists of the speaker, the message, and the listener(s)/audience. All elements are important, but the role of the speaker is most frequently considered to be the most significant of the process.

Ethos (Greek for character) refers to the trustworthiness or credibility of the speaker. Ethos is often conveyed through the tone and style of the message (Aristotle, 1997). According to Cockcroft (2005, p. 16), ethos can be divided into two aspects: personality and stance. Personality is recognizable in any spoken exchange which gives us confidence in the person we are talking to, whereas the notion of stance refers to a wider framework of attitudes, a sense of the persuader's position or viewpoint about what is being discussed (Cockcroft, 2005). Aristotle (1997) identifies the following qualities as communicating ethos: trust, benevolence and constructive competence, which means that success has been achieved with the help of right vocabulary, intonation, and structural organization. In addition, ethos involves that the persuader has taken a persuader's stance and has positioned him/herself as a persuader.

Pathos (Greek for suffering or experience) is often associated with emotional appeal. For achievement of success in persuasion, emotional appeals both towards audience and topic are needed. Emotional engagement can be created by a variety of linguistic means, the right language choice, and through imagination (Cockcroft, 2005:, p. 17).

According to Aristotle, logos means persuading by the use of reasoning. The Greek word logos means word and it refers to the internal consistency of the message, the clarity of the claim, the logic of its reasons, and the effectiveness of its supporting evidence. The impact of logos on the audience is sometimes called the argument's logical appeal (Aristotle, 1997). Dictionaries give a wide range of meanings for the word logos, and at different periods it has had many meanings directly relevant to rhetoric. In many contexts it has been defined as plea, arguments leading to a conclusion, thesis, reason or ground of argument, inward debate, speech, and verbal expression (Cockcroft, 2005:, p. 17).

C. *Persuasive Message*

According to Aristotle's definition, rhetoric is the ability, in each particular case, to see the available means of persuasion (Aristotle 1997). The persuasive message should consist of a clearly uttered main issue and the ideas supporting it. It should be rational and logical, it should be emotional and it should give evidence, and it should consist of logical statements. Depending on the topic, a persuasive message frequently contains appeals to authorities and famous people (Burgoon & Bettinghaus, 1984:, pp. 141-147).

Aspects of persuasive language use have been studied in various fields, not only in rhetoric. Speech act theory was

developed by philosophers Searle (1969) and Austin (1962). Austin (1962) described utterances as performative or constative and defined communication as 'a co-operative venture between writer/speaker and one (or more) reader(s)/listener(s)' (p. 95/1962: 94-101). In Austin's (1962) view this communication can be seen as either locutionary (the speaker), illocutionary (the message) or perlocutionary act (effect of the message): while illocutionary speech acts are expressive, descriptive, directive ways of making statements and conveying information, perlocutionary speech acts are intended to achieve certain results in a listener. The persuader will be able to draw on these speech acts to fulfill Cicero's three 'rhetorical duties': to teach, to delight, and to move (Cockcroft, 2005, p. 22). Tarasti (2008) explains persuasive discourse through Searle's speech act theory: a locutionary act corresponds to the grammatical statement proper, and the notion of illocution means the utterance in a certain situation with the aim to act (2008, p. 6). The final impression of the locution in the receiver/audience is perlocution (Tarasti, 2008, p. 6). One of the most accessible theories of successful speech derives from the Conversational Maxims defined by H. P. Grice (1975): these include the Maxim of Quantity 'give exactly the amount of information which is appropriate', the Maxim of Quality 'be truthful', the Maxim of Relation 'be relevant', and the Maxim of Manner 'be clear'. These maxims have been called the cooperative principle in persuasive discourse, and awareness of these principles when seeking to achieve success in conversation is important. It has also been a concern of Politeness Theory, a field the development of which started in 1967 when Erving Goffman noted the importance of face in conversation: positive face reflects our basic need to be approved of and negative face our need not to be imposed on. In successful conversation/persuasion we need to avoid face-threatening acts by respecting social distance and status (Goffman, 1981).

Persuasive discourse strategies used in the debates consist of the following ones: stating the idea and supporting it, being rational, judging syllogisms, using evidence, logical reasoning, statistical information, facts, examples, repetition, questions, and appeals (Roloff & Miller, 1984, pp.: 143-148).

D. Audience/Listeners/Opponents

While the speaker plays the main role in persuasive interaction, the role of the listeners/opponents/audience is also very important. The communicative situation may be a dialogue or a co-operative session. The forum may be a workplace or a public domain, formal or informal. The way in which the persuasive message is received depends on the character of the situation and the listeners. To be successful, the evidence used in the message should be clear and organized. Whether rational messages are more effective than emotional ones depends on the situation and the audience. The use of evidence is dependent on the topic of the message, age, sex, education, ethnicity, and other similar dimensions. Evidence persuasive to one audience would not be persuasive to others (Burgoon & Bettinghaus 1984), and there occur differences in receivers' reactions (Ylikoski, 1987). Hutchby's approach (1996, pp. 20-22) to the role of the recipient differs from the classical approach by Aristotle. Hutchby (1996) sees the argument as an interactional process and he focuses on the role of the opponent in debating situations. In L2 teaching and role games in particular, the role division may help the participants to take their stands and overcome the linguistic breakdowns (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007).

E. Debate

As mentioned in the previous section, the history of persuasive discourse goes back to the days of antiquity, as does the history of debating. Sons of rich aristocratic families had to study debating at the universities in order to learn argumentation skills. Debating consists of several types of debates and the best known genre of debate is parliamentary debate. Presidential and political debates form one of the most popular types of debates. According to Aristotle (1997), rhetoric means the ability to perceive the convincing thing in every issue. The traditional definition claims that debating means skills of confirming, persuading or appealing, but it can also be understood as skills of argumentation or reasoning. The main aim of the studies is to learn how to act in the debating situation as well as in the roles of proponent and opponent. Dialectics was used as a synonym for rhetoric and Aristotle identified them as logical ways of thinking, which aim at reliability, whereas logic and philosophy aim at truth.

Aristotle (1997) divides rhetoric into three parts: 1) political, 2) judicial, and 3) representing. Political speeches deal with the measures, which should be implemented or omitted in the future. Judicial speeches aim at clarifying the truth in the measures which have been done in the past. Explanatory speeches concentrate on praising or accusing a person or a matter at present.

Debate can be defined as assertive interaction between two parties, affirmative and negative, with different views on given topics (Ylikoski, 1987). The number of participants may vary. There may be two persons or two groups, or one person may debate against a group, yet the main idea is that the parties are either 'for' (pro) or 'against' (con) the theme given. There may be a moderator acting as a chair, but sometimes the debate is conducted without any leader. The most common type of debate deals with opinions or beliefs (Kakkuri-Knuuttila & Halonen, 2007).

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS, DATA, AND METHODS

A. Research Questions

The aim of persuasive speech is to try to influence the listeners and make them persuaded of the credibility of the speaker. My research questions were:

1. What kinds of rhetorical means are the students able to use in a demanding debating situation in English? (RQ1)
2. What kinds of crosscultural differences are there in Finnish and non-Finnish university students' use of persuasive discourse? (RQ2)

B. Data Collection

The study was implemented at the Department of Clinical Medicine and Nutrition of the former University of Kuopio, Finland, in spring 2006. The subjects of the data consisted of 34 (N=34) multinational university students of medicine, both Finnish 22 (N=22) and foreign 12 (N=12) students. The language of the course was English as a first foreign language (EFL). The proficiency level of the students was higher intermediate or advanced level. The group had completed a two-semester MPH (Master of Public Health) course at the University of Kuopio and the language of the course had been English. During their course, the students, under the guidance of experts from different fields, had dealt with most of the essential issues related to the field of Public Health. The methods of instruction had included lectures, group discussions, individual presentations, and essay writing. The final part of the course was participation in a debate, which was videorecorded. The course leader had chosen the following topics for the final debates:

- Restriction of alcohol under the age of eighteen encourages alcohol abuse among young people
- Abstinence is the best possible solution to prevent HIV/AIDS

C. Method

The students had been divided into four groups, but they did not know the themes of the debates. Upon entering the videoing room, they were subdivided into two groups: 'For' and 'Against'. Two groups debated the theme on 'Alcohol legislation in Finland' and two groups on the theme of 'HIV/AIDS'. The topics of the debates were given to the students right before they entered the room. After a short introduction to the theme and the research project, the students were asked to start the debate. There was no moderator nor a chair in the debates. The leader of the course, the video technician, and I were present in the videoing room during the recording.

The debates were transcribed in a way that allows analysis of both discursive and non-discursive features. For the purposes of this article, the data were analyzed on the basis of the context, speech acts, rhetorical techniques, and argumentation. Participation framework was compiled on the basis of the length of the turns of the speakers and the groups.

In order to find answers to RQ1, a list of persuasive discourse strategies was compiled. Finally, a comparison between the use of persuasive discourse strategies between Finnish and non-Finnish students was made.

After the debate sessions the students could view the videos and they were given questionnaires with questions concerning the debate session, their previous studies of English, their own evaluation of their proficiency level in English, the problems they had probably had, and their opinions about possible courses of argumentation. The topics of the debates did not please all students. A new debating session with new themes was provided for the students, but only three foreign students were present.

IV. RESULTS

The aim of the study was to examine what kinds of elements of persuasive discourse the multinational group of students would use while debating in English. Furthermore, crosscultural differences in students' debating were studied. On the basis of the data it can be concluded that the students had in their use several elements of persuasion as defined by Aristotle. Examples of the use of ethos, pathos, and logos will be given in the analysis in the next section. In addition, the students were able to use collaborative strategies and paralinguistic tools, such as intonational use of voice, gestures, eye-gaze, facial expressions, head and body movements, smile, and laughter (see Metsämäki, 2011).

A. Analysis of the Debates

In argumentative talk, the first step that the participants have to take, is to express the goal of the debate or the argument. After this, the goal, the main issue, must be supported by different rhetorical means (Burgoon & Bettinghaus 1984). The utterances have to be logical, short, and clear. The structure of debating must be very concise and logical, and the arguments have to be clearly stated and assertive.

The subgroups consisted of 4-5 participants and in each group there was at least one non-Finnish student. The general atmosphere showed a joint effort to create an active debate and the participants managed to work like cooperative teams. The average length of the debates was 11.30 minutes. There were not any long pauses in the debates, and the pauses and breakdowns were mainly due to lexical problems. Problems were solved by restructuring and collaborative discussions. Debates 1 and 2 dealt with alcohol legislation in Finland and Debates 3 and 4 dealt with prevention of HIV/AIDS. The initial turn in Debates 1 and 2 was taken by a non-Finnish student in Group 'Against'. In Debates 3 and 4, the initial turn was taken by a Finnish student in Group 'For'. In a way, the first speaker took the chairing role for the whole debate.

According to the results, the students were able to use the following means of persuasive discourse in their debates: logical reasoning, repetition, questions, repeated questions, restructuring and appeals. The following table was compiled to elicit the students' use of these elements. The most frequent forms of persuading were logical reasoning (N=61) and

restructuring (N=55), and this was apparent in both Finnish and non-Finnish groups. In the order of frequency, the next group was the use of appeals (N=31) which is a very important element in rhetorical discourse. Repetition (13), questions (13), and repeated questions (10) were the next means of persuasion. The following table indicates to what extent the students were able to use the elements of persuasive discourse in their debates.

TABLE 1.
USE OF ELEMENTS OF PERSUASIVE DISCOURSE IN FINNISH AND NON-FINNISH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' DEBATE.

Form of persuasive discourse	Finnish	Non-Finnish	All participants
Logical reasoning	32	29	61
Repetition	7	6	13
Questions	9	4	13
Repeated questions	7	3	10
Restructuring	26	29	55
Appeals	13	18	31
Total	94	89	183

In the following analysis, I will first discuss the use of rhetorical means by giving examples illustrating the persuasive features based on Aristotelian principles. The abbreviations refer to the following words: D = Debate, G = Group, F = For, A = Against.

I will start the rhetorical analysis by analyzing the use of ethos. According to Cockcroft, the focus of ethos is on the persuader and his/her personal stance, and the best way to understand stance is to stretch the imagination and powers of empathy by trying to speak in such a way that the possible audience is convinced (Cockcroft, 2005:, p. 191). An appeal to ethos can be seen in the following example in the Dutch student's appeal to Dutch drinking habits and in her way of defending Dutch youngsters:

Ex. 1

D2 A1 Yeah I found data about the difference between the USA drinking habits and the Netherlands and there was in . . . there that er in the Netherlands they drink LESS than in the US and that's because er the young people are not so courageous about how it is to drink because it's . . . they are allowed to in the Netherlands and in the USA it's a big deal for them . . . because they . . . they can do it . . . and so they do everything to have a night together to drink a lot ...

By taking this example of her own country, the Dutch student has a safe ground to position herself as an opponent in the debating situation concerning Finnish drinking habits. In the next example, a Finnish male student from Group 'For' wants to check the credibility of the message and makes a clarifying question. This shows that student F2 uses double questioning: the student presents first a reinforcing question with a question tag and then an assertive question/statement in order to be convinced of the alcohol regulations in the Netherlands. The sequence is also a good example of a short argument – counterargument sequence. The above excerpt and the following example show both ethos and pathos, which is indicated also by very assertive use of voice:

Ex 2

D2 F2 But there ARE age restrictions in the Netherlands, aren't there?

A2 ah . . . sixteen

F2 yeah but there ARE restrictions. . .

Pathos, or emotional appeal, seeks to appeal to the needs, values, and emotional sensibilities of the audience. Argumentation emphasizes reason, but when used properly there is often a place for emotion as well. According to Cockcroft (2005:, p. 17), emotional engagement or pathos includes the need to orient emotional appeals towards the audience and the topic. In brief, persuasion is implemented by using rhetorical speech and by putting the hearer into a certain emotional frame of mind. The link between emotive source, persuader, and audience constitutes engagement, and although individual experiences of emotion vary, most people can access a wider range of emotions through the power of imagination. This can be seen in the following example, in which the speaker is a female student who tries to illustrate the feelings and emotions of a young girl in a difficult and delicate situation. The delicate theme refers to the listeners' emotions, and at the same time it takes the topic into account. The question 'Do you think that . . .' is an additional marker of emotional appeal:

Ex. 3

D3 F1 we are also discussing about the abstinence as a way of prevent and if you think like . . . the thirteen . . . the twelve or thirteen-year-old girl . . . if they are like . . . er . . . have a boyfriend who has something . . . is fifteen year old . . . like normally it is . . . that . . . the boy is older than the girl . . . do you think that they are ready to say the girl . . . the boy who maybe doesn't want to use the condom because it's uncomfortable or some other stupid reasons . . . and . . . do you think that this girl has the guts to tell the boy that I don't want to have sex if you don't use the condom . . . it's like . . . because it's very sensible situation and th . . . and the girl wants to be cool and say that it's okay it's okay we are going to have sex . . .

The following example shows how the speaker uses pathos by trying to change the beliefs of the audience by referring to young people in developing countries and by using the effective means of persuading by three-word-sequencing, uttering it in an expressive and effective speech rhythm. Her intonation was thus assertive.

Ex. 4

D4 F2 . . . and of course . . . er . . . trying to . . . er . . . change the way . . . er . . . young people in developing countries . . . er . . . feel about sex in . . . in younger age . . . trying to . . . er . . . change their beliefs and their thoughts would be a good idea . . . in in . . . in terms of . . . making them think that IT'S NOT COOL, IT'S NOT NICE, IT'S NOT FUNNY . . . IT'S NOT ANYTHING that you should do when you're young . . . er . . .

In Debate 3 concerning HIV/AIDS and discussing abstinence as the best solution to prevent it, Student F1 tries to appeal to emotions when trying to find the best ways to make young people postpone their sexual experiences.

Ex. 5

D3 F1 do you think that . . . like . . . okay . . . do you think about like in western countries and there are lots of youngster who are like twelve or thirteen year . . . do you think . . . that this is the best way or . . . or do you think that they are ready to . . . use condoms . . . they are ready to have the sexual intercourse . . . or the best way for them is the abstinence . . . of course you can promote that in many other ways then . . . like don't sex . . . you can . . . you can make reasons for that like . . . okay . . . that . . . you . . . first thing what you have to . . . it's not cool to have sex when you are twelve . . . nowadays lot of the young they think that it's very cool to have sex when you are twelve or thirteen year . . . so . . . this abstinence is maybe the best way for them . . . but . . . there are many possible ways to promote that . . .

The topic of Debates 3 and 4 (D3 and D4) – the prevention of HIV/AIDS – was not unproblematic for the students, because the groups consisted of students from many different cultures and from various age groups. The attitudes varied according to the cultures, which was reflected for example in the following two examples. Example 6 shows how difficult abstinence can be for a mature, married man during his stay far from home and wife because of his studies, but he is willing to talk about his own personal life (ethos and pathos):

Ex. 6

D3 A1 I may abstain this time when I'm here in Europe but up to . . . next to . . . next week I go to my country . . . Tanzania . . . I'll meet wife . . . I'll have sex . . . then I need to know what is abstinence . . . whenever I go back . . . I will have sex with someone who is already infected . . . I'll be already . . . I'll be affected . . . therefore I will abstain when I was here . . .

Crosscultural issues are also present in the following example in which Finnish female student (A3) is questioning the African male student (F4) about African young people's sex habits. The turn begins with the African student's rational argumentation and corresponds to the rhetorical use of logos. The Finnish female student is curious to know more about the forms of sexual behaviour in Africa and uses repeated questions in her speech.

Ex. 7

D3 F4 I think . . . er . . . educating people to use these . . . condoms or other . . . is . . . more expensive than the . . . dating them or telling them . . . to abstain . . . because the normal . . . natural . . . knowledge of the people is also there . . . in most African countries . . . for example in my country . . . er . . . people naturally abstain from sex . . . they keep their virginity . . .

D3 A3 . . . until when . . .

D3 F4 . until they get married . .

D3 A3 and when is that . .

D3 F4 . . in twenties . . twenty . . er . . twenty-two . . three . . could be more than that . .

Logos or the appeal to reason relies on logic or reason and often depends on the use of inductive or deductive reasoning. The term refers to the internal consistency of the message, the clarity of the claim, the logic of its reasons, and the effectiveness of its supporting evidence (Aristotle, 1997). In the debate situations, the students were well aware of the subject matter of the various themes of the debates, because they had learnt to prepare themselves for the most frequent topics of public health science during their two-semester course. In the next example, a Finnish male student refers to background information and bases his view on evidence:

Ex. 8

D3 F1 But . . . if we promote abstinence . . . it definitely should be like . . . you said . . . no no you should not have sex . . . it is more . . . if we think of the prevention of HIV/AIDS . . . then it's more effective . . . if we combine it to . . . er . . . the sexual health education . . . because I found some information that if is combined to these kind of measures . . . er . . . and even only the sex health education . . . it promotes abstinence although it would not be the target of it

This was followed by another student of the same Group 'For' by appeals to both reason and emotions:

Ex. 9

D3 F4 I think we should increase the responsibility of . . . hmm . . . of the spread of HIV . . . among people because . . . er . . . now there is . . . quite unclear . . . legislation . . . because . . . about . . . and responsibility of . . . for example . . . taken sexual intercourse with positive HIV status of HIV information if . . . about . . . own HIV status and so on . . . it's quite (unclear)

The third member of the same Group 'For' continues:

Ex. 10

D3 F2 . . . and of course . . . erm . . . trying to . . . er . . . change the way . . . er . . . young people in . . . er . . . change their beliefs and their thoughts would be a good idea . . . in in . . . it's not anything that you should do when you're young . . . erm . . . the same way that it's considered here in Finland . . . if . . . if a person very young age . . . age has sex . . . he or she . . . is considered to be a little bit . . . erm . . . I don't know how do you say . . . er light headed . .

In addition to showing appeals to reason, the above sequence of three Group 'For' students' arguments is a good example of a collaborative joint effort.

In addition to the use of ethos, pathos, and logos by the students, the data also show other relevant features of persuasive discourse such as persuasive messages, false arguments, and astonished questions. Persuasive messages are expected to include a clear idea or issue and provide supporting material (van Eemeren & Houtlosser 2005). This can be seen in the following example:

Ex. 11

D3 F4 . . .for the first argument . . . most of the HIV cases in developing countries . . . subsahara . . . and Asian countries . . . that covers over more than 60 per cent of the total HIV population in the world so . . . in such areas HIV/AIDS is transmitted mainly by sexual intercourse . . . and . . . abstinence in these cases . . . very important to reduce the risk of HIV/AIDS in in . . . the majority of those . . . er . . . risk population in developing countries . . . for your latter argument . . . HIV is highly prevalent in sexually active population . . . the young population from fifteen to twenty-five years . . . so abstinence for this population is very important . . .

D3 A2 . . . but I think that abstinence is . . . er usually connected to sociocultural or religious . . . issues like . . . it considered that sex is taboo . . . and then it is not talked about and . . . er . . . I think it's better to give information . . . er . . . and just the condoms . . . and that kind of stuff . . . so bring responsible sexual behaviour and not telling not to have sex . . .

In the above example, the message of student F4 is an example of a well-organized persuasive statement, in which statistical information of the HIV/AIDS situation in the world is given and risks are mentioned. The counterargument made by student A2 refutes the argument of Group 'F'.

In persuasive discourse, the speakers are warned of false arguments (Cockcroft, 2005, p. 131). In the following example, a student from Group 'Against' launches topics that do not belong to the sphere of Debate 2:

Ex. 12

D2 A2 er . . . we think that restriction is not a good way to come through alcohol abuse . . . for example the same the . . . sex education I can give you example . . . in China . . . no longer there are no longer sex education . . . this theme is forbidden by the university or schools so . . . but at that time the rate of teenage mothers are very high . . . so . . . er . . . for that . . . ten years ago we began to spread sex education . . . during education system in that education system not that . . . teenage . . . er teenage mother . . . the rate is very low so you see tha restriction is not a good way to come through to better things . . .

D2 F2 yeah . . . the first thing is that education and then restriction . . . what's wrong with the restriction

The student from Group 'For' (F2) seizes the opportunity to repeat the question 'What's wrong with the restriction?' One of the frequently used persuasion strategies in proponent groups was such repetition of the reinforcing question, uttered in a very emotional and sometimes demanding voice.

During the argumentation, the interesting phenomenon of the astonished or surprised question was used by the students. An example of this can be seen in the following example:

Ex. 13

D3 F4 I think . . . er . . . educating people to use these . . . condoms or other . . . is . . . more expensive than the . . . dating them or telling them . . . to abstain . . . because the normal . . . natural . . . knowledge of the people is also there . . . in most African countries . . . for example in my country . . . er . . . people naturally abstain from sex . . . they keep their virginity . . .

D3 A3 . . .until when . . .

D3 F4 .until they get married . . .

D3 A3 and when is that . . .

D3 F4 . . . in twenties . . . twenty . . . er . . . twenty-two . . .three . . . could be more than that . . .

At the same time, the above sequence is an illustrative example of interaction between speakers from different cultures, here an African male student (F4) and a Finnish female student (A3): first a longer argument, then the sequence of short questions and short answers with the aim of providing more evidence and questioning it. Selting (1996; p. 231) has studied prosody as an activity-type distinctive cue in conversation and noticed that there is a difference between a 'normal' question and so-called 'surprised' or 'astonished' question. In the above extract the student has applied the same cue in a successful way. Debating means interaction between the proponent and the opponent, and in the above example the students achieve this requirement of the genre in question.

The first research question was 'What kinds of persuasive devices do the students have available in demanding debate situations in English?' (RQ1). In persuasive discourse, the first thing to start with is the use of rhetorical devices, i.e. ethos meaning personality and stance, pathos indicating emotional engagement, and logos meaning modelling and argumentation (Cockcroft, 2005). The features of persuasive discourse used in the debates consisted of the following: logical reasoning, repetition, questions, repeated questions, restructuring, and appeals to emotions. Logical reasoning, restructuring, and frequently used questions were the most frequently used means in both Finnish and non-Finnish student groups (see Table 1).

B. *Comparison of the Use of Persuasive Tools between Finnish and Non-Finnish Students*

In order to answer the second research question 'What kinds of differences are there in the use of persuasive means

between Finnish and non-Finnish students' (RQ2), the results were examined from a comparative perspective. Table 1 shows the distribution of persuasive discourse features in Finnish (N=94) and non-Finnish students' (N=89) debating. Logical reasoning, restructuring, and appeals were the most frequently used markers of persuasive speech in debating. Since the number of Finnish participants (N=22) was higher than that of non-Finnish ones (N=12), the figures given in Table 1 have to be divided by the number of participants in order to obtain comparable results. These results, shown in Table 2 below, indicate that there were distinct differences in the use of the most frequent persuasive features by Finnish and non-Finnish participants.

TABLE 2.
THE USE OF PERSUASIVE TOOLS BY FINNISH AND NON-FINNISH PARTICIPANTS

Form of persuasive behaviour	Finnish participants	Non-Finnish participants
Logical reasoning	1.45	2.4
Restructuring	1.18	2.4
Appeals	0.5	1.5
Repetition	0,3	0,5
Repeated questions	0,3	0,25
Questions	0,4	0,3

The results show that non-Finnish participants used these three persuasive means, logical reasoning, restructuring, and appeals, more frequently than the Finnish students: In Table 2, the figure showing the use of the persuasive feature was obtained by dividing the corresponding figure of Table 1 by the number of the participants of Finnish and non-Finnish groups. This gave the figure indicating the average use of the persuasive feature in each group. Repetition and repeated questions are typical features in argumentative speech: in these debates both questions and repetitions were used equally by Finnish participants and by non-Finnish participants.

Collaborative strategies are essential features in small group debating, and both Finnish and non-Finnish students used them in all debates. This may be based on the fact that role-games help creating a collaborative atmosphere, and students immediately adopt their roles in them¹. Both Finnish and non-Finnish students were committed to their communicative task and their involvement was apparent. The theme of the debate is an essential factor while assessing the results. The first theme on alcohol legislation in Finland was not very motivating for the Finnish students, whereas the second theme on HIV/AIDS was interesting, but difficult. In any case, the limited number of participants has to be taken into consideration when assessing the results.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aim of the study was to study multinational university students' debating skills and to investigate how well they would manage in role games while acting out the roles of proponents or opponents in English. The first research question concerned the students' use of persuasive devices in debate and can be answered in the following way. According to the results, the students could use in their argumentation such rhetorical means as ethos, pathos, and logos: these were seen in their use of repetition, and questioning, restructuring and appeals, as well as in their use of logical reasoning, deduction, and induction, and ability to give examples. They were also able to give statistical information and use collaborative strategies in their debates. The second research question addressed crosscultural differences. The results show that the non-Finnish students used persuasive discourse markers, viz. logical reasoning, restructuring, and appeals more frequently than the Finnish students.

These results can be compared with the results of an earlier study showing that the non-Finnish students had more and a wider array of paralinguistic tools available than the Finnish students to support their argumentation (see Metsämäki 2011). Gestures, which were always connected with speech, were the most frequently used paralinguistic means in these debates. The use of gestures has not been very common in the Finnish speech culture, although their use is increasing as a result of ongoing cultural change (Wilkins & Isotalus, 2009, p. 6). The use of assertive voice is another paralinguistic means used more by non-Finnish students than Finnish students (see Metsämäki 2011). This means that Finnish students who are used to the monotonous Finnish speech communication, may find it problematic to use the English intonation or assertive voice in a natural way when speaking English (Wilkins & Isotalus, 2009, p. 112). While the crosscultural differences in the use of rhetorical strategies appear limited, the relationship between gender and argumentation needs further study. The results indicate that female students used more appeals to emotions whereas male students, particularly non-Finnish males, used more effective logical reasoning in their debating. It has been shown in earlier research on Finnish speech culture (Wilkins & Isotalus, 2009, p. 63) that it is very message-centred. The results of this study reveal the same feature, particularly in the turns by several Finnish male participants.

The aim of persuasive discourse is to alter the old beliefs, attitudes, and opinions and create new attitudes and beliefs. In the case of a role game it is impossible to say whether the participants achieved changing the opinions of the opposing team, because they realized that the whole effort was a game. The students seemed to be very pleased with the final result, because they had tried their best and they had been committed to their task. On the basis of the results it can be suggested that debates provide good tools for teaching foreign languages at the university level. Awareness of

¹ Kaipasi pehmennyst äilmaisun.

new problem-solving methods and new techniques helps both the teaching personnel to promote language teaching and the students to face new, challenging learning environments. Furthermore, new innovative research is needed to address crosscultural differences among multinational university students in the globalizing academic world.

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Iranian EFL Learners' Attitudes Towards the Use of Computer-mediated PowerPoint Presentations

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Abstract—The application of educational technology, especially in EFL learning and teaching, has remarkably increased. Although many previous studies have been done on the effect of educational technology on learners' performance, a few of them investigated MA Iranian students' attitudes towards PowerPoint presentation. Therefore, an attempt has been made in the current study to determine MA students' attitudes towards the effect of PowerPoint presentations on their course-related behaviors and elicit the participants' evaluating the effectiveness of their instructor's performance in the PowerPoint classes in comparison with the traditional ones. Sixty MA freshmen TEFL students' perceptions were investigated through 2 sets of questionnaires, as well as 10 sessions of class observation. The analysis of the results revealed that although PowerPoint presentation had positive effect on the learners' class discussions and weblog usage, it did not enhance the students' class attendance and note taking. The learners rated their instructor's performance above average in the traditional classes, while they evaluated the teacher in the PowerPoint class average. The findings of this study can assist decision-makers to explore the merits and demerits of applying PowerPoint in classes according to the participants' perceptions.

Index Terms—attitudes, CALL, educational technology, PowerPoint presentation, traditional class

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last decade, the usage of technology in higher education, especially in the field of foreign language learning and teaching, has become remarkably widespread (Conner & Wong, 2004). PowerPoint (PP) is one of the media created in 1987 mainly for the preparation of business slides (Nouri & Shahid, 2008). The presentations were only linear and were always proceeding from one slide to the next, but PP has gone through dramatic changes and gained prominence in presenting visual information along with lectures. Today PP has the capacity to integrate graphics, sounds, animations and so on; therefore, it has become suitable for education and has quickly penetrated the higher educational settings. Apparently, this way of transmitting information has revolutionized the traditional chalk and blackboard, and maybe non-effective, educational methods. Although the content of the lesson stays the same, the materials are presented differently.

Like other technologies, PP has its own proponents and opponents. Supporters of this educational technology believe that the application of PP enhances students' learning; they also claim that due to shortage of time in presenting course materials, more materials can be covered in one session. While, on the other hand, opponents argue that using PP diminishes students' creativity and innovation (Tufte, 2003). They claim that reducing complex issues to bulleted points is detrimental to students' learning process. In other words, because the amount of information in the presentation must be condensed, viewing a PP presentation does not give students enough detailed information; thus, it is more difficult to see logical relationships between different sets of the data (Simon, 2005). Nowadays, PP has become popular and almost every university allocates rooms equipped with a computer and data projector to present the course data allowing teachers to benefit from a variety of materials, examples, and methods in their lessons.

Since learners are involved in learning and using PP as an educational technology and are exposed to its advantages and disadvantages, there is a need to survey and to consider their attitudes and ideas towards PP use. Personal attitudes are a major factor to affect individual use of educational technology. It is strongly believed that attitudes play a crucial role in academic achievements. They are the hypothetical constructs that represent an individual's degree of like or dislike of something. It is generally accepted that positive attitude can have crucial and a very positive effect on learning by enhancing students' motivation and leading them to achieve educational goals, while, on the other hand, negative one adversely affects learning. The negative attitude usually exerts a detrimental effect on students' motivation and learning.

Supplying universities with computers and PP software does not necessarily mean that educational goals are accomplished by integrating this technology into higher educational curriculum. Many studies have reported failure in incorporating this technology into an educational environment (e.g., Dooley, 1999; Eteokleous, 2008; Keengue &

Onchwari, 2008 as cited in Paradi, 2010). These studies show that only making this technology available to the teachers and introducing it to the educational environment are not sufficient to achieve educational goals; therefore, the effective integration of technology into educational instruction is a very crucial issue. Serving this purpose, it is an essential value to determine students' perceptions. If they perceive PP as an efficient and beneficial technology, the integration will be achieved much more easily. Hence, successful implementation depends upon students' having a positive perception towards it.

When teachers, students and administrating officials are not completely aware of how to use a new technology and how to combine it with other methods and technologies effectively in higher educational settings, consequently, it would lead to the emergence of different problems for those who are being involved in teaching and learning process.

II. BACKGROUND

There are many definitions of the term "attitude". The researcher adopted the following definition of the term "attitude" as it is convenient to the context of the present study, "the positive or negative changes that may happen in MA TEFL students towards the application of the multimedia in their English classes". (Glazewski, Newby, & Ottenebeit, 2010, p. 1325). When students use an exciting curriculum with high motivation, the curriculum will improve their learning. Their motivation and satisfaction in using the technology is embedded in their perceptions and attitudes toward it. Simpson et al. (1994, p.47) noted that "the key to success in education often depends on how a student feels toward home, self, and school." Attitudes towards learning and teaching language have been found significant in predicting success in the learning or acquisition process. The educational technology a student receives can be a determining factor of satisfaction. So, researchers have given much attention to attitudes because of the relationship between attitudes and other variables, such as academic achievement. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) stated the most important reason for studying attitudes in the relationship of attitude to behavior. The behavior a student exhibits during a learning process can be associated with student's satisfaction of a course (Arbaugh, 2000).

Over the last ten years, many scholars have done research on the issues of technologies and their applications in educational setting especially in high educational environment. Some of them were interested in examining and evaluating PP presentations in comparison with TR ones in different areas of language learning and teaching. These researches have investigated, discussed and elaborated different aspects of this prevalent multimedia, i.e., PP, but a few of them have focused on learners' perceptions regarding PP usage in the classroom. In the study conducted by Nouri and Shahid (2008), the researchers' purposes were to explore whether providing lecture notes when PP is used for class presentation affects accounting students' performance and attitudes towards the instructor. This study argued that writing the notes in class rather than providing them to students before the class can have positive effect on students' attitudes and performance. Students' scores on their exams were analyzed and the results showed that there were no significant differences in students' exam performance between the control and experimental groups. Regarding students' attitudes, those who are in the class without providing PP notes evaluated the instructor higher just on such attributes as receptiveness to student concern, efficiency, understandability, and effectiveness. The other attributes were not significantly different.

Susskind (2008) performed a study on the effects of accompanying lectures with computer-mediated PP presentations on students' self-efficacy, attitudes, and class-related behaviors, i.e., performance on exams, class attendance, participation in class discussions, and course website usage. Susskind expected that students would be more interested in material with the PP lectures; this in turn, should enhance their motivation and these motivated students have higher self-efficacy and display better performance on the exams. The results showed that the students displayed a clear preference for lectures accompanied by PP presentations even though the lecture content was the same. They believed these lectures were more organized, more interesting and enjoyable. Further, they reported that the professor did a better job with PP presentation. Students were more motivated to attend those classes. Regarding the students' performance, no effects of teaching format on the students' performance were observed. Considering the website usage, although both classes had access to the same course website, students who saw computer mediated-presentations viewed the website content as more interesting and useful. The students also had stronger academic self-efficacy beliefs when PP presentations were employed. Susskind reported that although the participants claimed they were more motivated to attend lectures with PP presentation, the lecture format did not affect attendance.

To investigate the relationships among access to online notes, examination performance and student absenteeism, Christopherson and Grabe (2005) conducted a study in which 170 psychology participants were provided with the opportunity to complete a questionnaire to gather information concerning attendance and descriptions of how often the participants used online notes. Correlations between note access and examination performance were significant, but weak. Students' questionnaire responses indicated that online resources were used as a way to compensate when students missed class. According to Christopherson and Grabe's study, providing lecture notes reduces class attendance.

The effect of online lecture notes availability on the participants' attendance, participation, and exam performance are the objective of Babb and Ross's (2009) study. It was hypothesized that students in classes that had slide available before lectures would show a higher attendance rate compared to students in classes that had slides available only after lectures. The results showed that classes in which slides were posted before lectures had greater satisfaction. These participants claimed that the slides were more thorough than did those who had access to slides only after class.

Students in the before-lecture class notes had a significantly higher mean proportion of participation than did those in the after-lecture notes available. Students' exam performance was measured applying multiple-choice midterm and final exams. It was noted that the mean exam percentage of the before-lecture class was higher than the after lecture class.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Although several studies such as Rozalind and Muir (2004), Christopherson and Grabe (2005), Nouri and Shahid (2008), Susskind (2008), Salvendy (2009), Savoy (2009), Betson et al. (2010) have been conducted to figure out the pedagogical benefits of PP and to indicate its impact on students' performance, information retention, learning, PP effectiveness in lectures, self-efficacy and the like, it seems that its impact on MA students' attitudes towards the effectiveness of its application have been overlooked.

EFL learners' attitudes would be a key element when it came to take practicing the use of PP in English classes. Therefore, assessing students' attitudes toward this technology is essential. Based on the researcher's knowledge, it seems that the efficiency and the way to apply PP as a supplementary tool is not clear enough for teachers and learners in foreign language teaching and learning process, so its success and effectiveness can be more obviously determined by eliciting learners' attitudes to make them sure about its usefulness and to remind those in charge of learning process the efficiency of such teacher-aided tool in English classes. One way to ensure that instructors are positively influencing the learning environment by using this technology is by asking the students about their opinions regarding the technology use. Otherwise, it may lead to the creation of some demotivating factors for the learners and at the same time waste the teachers' efforts and energy in presenting the course materials and in providing students with the academic skills, and thus wasting the university budget and fund.

Therefore, the main concern of this study is to shed light on the impact of PP presentations (as a higher educational technology in English classes) on the participants' course-related behaviors– i.e., class discussions, class attendance, teacher's personal weblog usage and note-taking– and to elicit the participants' attitudes towards evaluating the effectiveness of the instructor's performance in the PP classes as compared to the TR classes.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the problems and objectives, this study has made an attempt to seek appropriate answers to the following questions:

1. Does the use of computer-mediated PowerPoint presentations affect MA students' attitudes regarding their course-related behaviors such as participating in class discussions, class attendance, course weblog usage and note-taking?
2. Does the use of computer-mediated PowerPoint presentations influence MA students' attitudes towards the evaluation of their instructor's performance?

V. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Based on the above mentioned questions, the following hypotheses have been formulated in this study:

H01: Computer-mediated PowerPoint presentation does not have any effect on students' course-related behaviors such as their attendance in the PowerPoint classes, participation in class discussions, note-taking, and using the teacher's personal weblog.

H02: PowerPoint presentation does not have any effect on students' attitudes, who are taught by PowerPoint slides, towards their instructor's performance in PowerPoint classes in comparison with traditional presentations.

VI. METHOD

A. Participants

The study was carried out with 60 MA freshmen students, majoring in TEFL, aged 23 to 40 at three Iranian Universities. The participants were taking 2 compulsory courses in the first semester; both were two-credit courses at MA level, namely, *Phonology* and *Research Methodology*. The courses were presented once a week for 90 minutes. One of the reasons for selecting the aforementioned courses was that *Research Methodology* was taught applying PP, while *Phonology* was not presented taking advantage of PP slides. The other reason was that both courses were taught by the same instructor.

B. Materials

To achieve the current research goals, 2 sets of questionnaires were distributed among the participants, and 10 classroom observation checklists were filled in during one semester by the researcher.

Reviewing the questionnaires used by Apperson, Laws, and Scepanisky, (2006), Nouri and Shahid (2008), Austin and Tang-Ping (2009), Demirci (2009), Babb and Ross (2009), and Betson et al. (2010), two sets of questionnaires were prepared and altered to meet the requirements of the study. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale including strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). At the end of each questionnaire there was some room left for the participants' comments.

The first questionnaire consisting of 19 items was designed to collect data regarding the participants' course-related behavior attitudes towards using PP in class. The questionnaire also contained 3 open-ended questions concerning the participants' previous experience with PP in order to see whether they already had such an experience in their BA programs; since the extent of such experience may have had an effect on their attitudes, those who answered yes to this question were excluded from the study. The reasons about their attendance in the PP class and their general ideas concerning more desirable items of the PP class in comparison with the TR one were included in the second and third open-ended questions.

The second questionnaire including 18 items was prepared to elicit the participants' overall perceptions and attitudes towards evaluating the effectiveness of their instructor's performance in both classes, TR and PP. In order to elicit students' ideas about a more effective and favorable feature regarding the instructor's performance in the PP class in comparison with the TR one, an open-ended question was designed.

In addition to the questionnaires and in order to explore the participants' course-related behaviors directly in the two classes (PP and TR), 10 sessions of class observation were conducted by the researcher. To this end, the observation checklist was already available and was taken from Nunan (1989) and Ullmann and Geva (1985). Since the researcher intended to determine class attendance and discussions, the checklist was modified to meet the objectives of the research. The observation checklist was filled out by the researcher for both classes.

C. Procedures

In order to observe the participants' course-related behaviors (i.e., class discussions and class attendance) directly, ten sessions of observation were conducted by the researcher during one semester. To habituate the participants to observer presence, the observations were conducted from the first session of the courses. To access inter-observer reliability, two other observers also filled out the checklists. The inter-observer reliability was 0.84, which showed a high inter-observer reliability. For being minimally intrusive, the observers sat in the back of the class, in order not to make the participants distracted by their note taking or gaze.

Since observations could not be considered sufficient for the researcher to have access to all participants' attitudes and ideas, in addition to class observations, two sets of questionnaires were administered to the participants.

Since some items of the questionnaires were taken from Nunan (1989) and Ullmann and Geva (1985) and some others were adapted or designed by the researcher herself, before administering the questionnaires to the research participants, the two sets of questionnaires were given to 6 competent and experienced English teachers (each questionnaire to three teachers), in order to test and finalize the material, on the one hand, and to make sure of the validity of the questionnaires on the other. The teachers have analyzed the content and found one to one correspondence between the content and purpose of the questions. So, the content validity was confirmed. Their comments and suggestions were also gathered. After reviewing the questionnaires, a pilot study was carried out.

To ascertain the reliability of the questionnaires, the questionnaires were pilot tested with 12 sophomore MA TEFL students at the same 3 universities. They were not supposed to take part in the main phase of the study and already passed the two major courses (i.e., *Phonology* and *Research Methodology*). After carrying out the pilot test, necessary revisions were made.

After collecting the data, the reliability indexes for the questionnaires were computed. The Cronbach Alpha was used to estimate their reliability indexes and it was acceptable. The questionnaires reliability were .70 and .82, respectively.

In the next stage, the main participants were provided with the opportunity to complete the first questionnaire in week 11 of the semester aiming at eliciting their attitudes towards course-related behaviors. Before administering the questionnaires, the students were informed of how to fill them in; they were asked to write the code number, not their names, so that their identities would remain confidential.

The second set of the learners' questionnaires were administered in the same way in weeks 12. The timing for administering each questionnaire was about 20 minutes.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Results regarding Course-related Behavior Questionnaire

Research question one focuses on whether PP presentation has effect on students' course-related behaviors. To address this question, the data collected through the first questionnaire analyzed. Table 1 indicates the effect of PP presentations on the students' class attendance which was concluded based on the learners' answers to the second open-ended question on the same questionnaire.

TABLE 1
THE IMPACT OF PP PRESENTATIONS ON LEARNERS' CLASS ATTENDANCE

Items	Frequency	Percent
Enthusiasm	32	53.3 %
course regulations	15	25 %
enthusiasm and course regulations	3	5%
No answer	10	16.6 %

As the table indicates, the majority of the students (53.3%) claimed that they attended PP classes because of their enthusiasm and the terrible feeling caused by missing these classes. They noted that lots of problems could be solved by teachers in the PP classes and they did not want to lose discussions in such classes. Twenty five percent of the participants, mostly males, attended PP class due to the course regulations, 5% of the participants attended PP classes because of both enthusiasm and course regulations. About sixteen percent of them did not answer this question. Table 2 presents the results considering the third open-ended question, focusing on more desirable item in the PP classes in comparison with the TR ones.

TABLE 2
DESIRABLE ITEMS IN PP CLASSES

Desirable Items	Frequency	Percent
attention-capturing	15	25 %
organized content	8	13.3 %
passive note taking	12	20%
better presentations	7	11.6 %
discussion-centered	15	25 %

As Table 2 represents, 25% of the students stated that PP classes were more interesting and attention capturing than TR ones. About 13% mentioned that the course content was more organized and easier to follow by PP slides. Another 20% believed that they were not engaged in taking notes. Saving time and better presentations were among the other desirable items in the PP classes which were held by about 11%, and finally, discussion-centered class was the other desirable feature of PP which accounted for 25% of the learners choices.

To address this question, the data have been collected through the first questionnaire were subjected to Chi-square test for each item. Table 3 summarizes the data analyzed through Chi-square test.

TABLE 3
THE RESULTS OF CHI-SQUARE TEST FOR COURSE-RELATED BEHAVIOR QUESTIONNAIRE

NO	Item	χ^2	df	Sig.
1	information retention	32.333	4	.000
2	staying focused	32.667	4	.000
3	enthusiasm maintenance	24.833	4	.000
4	structured lectures	47.167	4	.000
5	being motivated	24.500	4	.000
6	following presentations	42.833	4	.000
7	useful notes	20.167	4	.000
8	organized notes	34.833	4	.000
9	passive discussion	8.333	4	.080
10	less interaction	8.833	4	.065
11	asking questions	24.167	4	.000
12	boring class	14.167	4	.007
13	active students	16.333	4	.003
14	instructor-centered	20.500	4	.000
15	unwilling attendance	3.833	4	.429
16	enhancement of note posting	34.833	4	.000
17	weblog	35.167	4	.000
18	getting access to complete text	8.500	4	.075
19	time consuming download	2.667	4	.615

As it is shown in Table 3, the results confirm that the students have positive attitudes towards most of the items mentioned in the questionnaire; therefore, PP presentations have a positive effect on the learners. According to the data in Table 4.3, the participants expressed that PP helped them to retain information more ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 32.333, p=.000$), it was easy to stay more focused on the lectures ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 32.667, p=.000$), and their enthusiasm was maintained more in such classes ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 24.833, p=.000$). They cited that lectures were better structured ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 47.167, p=.000$), and they were more motivated to be the audience of PP classes ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 24.500, p=.000$). Slides helped them follow the presentations more easily ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 42.833, p=.000$). The participants claimed that due to taking complete, useful and more organized notes in the PP classes, they only relied on their notes taken in these classes to be prepared for the test ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 34.833, p=.000$). They believed that they were more active to answer the teacher's questions ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 16.333, p=.003$), PP classes were more student-centered ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 20.500, p=.000$), discussions in such classes were not boring ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 14.167, p=.007$), and slides helped them to ask more questions about the content of the materials ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 24.164, p=.000$). The learners felt that using the teachers' personal weblog helped them to reinforce their understanding of the course ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 35.167, p=.000$) and posting the slides presented in the class on the teacher's weblog enhanced their learning ($\chi^2 (4, n=60) = 34.833, p=.000$). According to all data analyses, therefore, the first research hypothesis is confirmed. To sum up, PowerPoint presentations have positive effect on the students' attitudes in accordance with their class attendance, class discussions and the usage of the teacher's personal weblog in comparison with the TR classes.

B. Results regarding Instructor's Performance Evaluation Questionnaire

The second questionnaire included an open-end question asking the participants about more desirable feature of the teacher's performance in the PP classes. Table 4 shows the descriptive data.

TABLE 4
DESIRABLE FEATURES OF THE INSTRUCTOR'S PERFORMANCE IN THE PP CLASSES

Items	Frequency	Percent
main points presentation	7	11.6 %
organized teaching	12	20 %
learners attraction	6	10 %
discussion engagement	20	33.3 %
passive note taking	12	20 %
too quickly presentations	3	5 %

Regarding an open-end question and according to the table briefs, 11.6% of the participants tended to express that due to enough time for organizing the materials, the teacher presented main points and objectives of the lesson clearly, her teaching was organized and due to the sequence of the slides, she did not jump from one topic to another (20%). The learners stated that the instructor attracts learners more in the PP classes (10%). A good number of the participants (33.3%) cited that the teacher engaged them in the class discussions more by providing more required examples. Twenty percent of the students believed that they were not worried about taking notes due to posting prepared slides through the teacher's weblog. Only a few students, about 5%, had negative attitudes towards teacher's performance in the PP classes; they claimed that slides were presented too quickly for note taking, and occasionally the instructor skipped some slides.

Participants were asked to evaluate the effectiveness of the instructor's performance in the PP class through research question two. To address this question, the answers provided by the participants to the second questionnaire were considered by conducting Chi-Square test. Table 5 tabulates the data for instructor's performance questionnaire.

TABLE 5
CHI-SQUARE TEST FOR INSTRUCTOR'S PERFORMANCE QUESTIONNAIRE

NO	Item	χ^2	df	Sig.
1	mastery	15.167	4	.004
2	keeping interest	30.500	4	.000
3	time management	4.667	4	.323
4	skills application	19.167	4	.001
5	problem solving-critical thinking	7.167	4	.127
6	clarifying objectives	12.833	4	.012
7	explanation of problems	16.833	4	.002
8	eye-contact	12.667	4	.013
9	examples and exercises	12.500	4	.014
10	input solicitation	29.167	4	.000
11	instructor's presentation	5.500	4	.240
12	being engaged	8.833	4	.065
13	non-lecture activities	8.500	4	.075
14	occasional use of board	8.167	4	.086
15	fast coverage of slides	19.500	4	.001
16	out of class activities	11.833	4	.019
17	rate of performance in PP	34.500	4	.000
18	rate of performance in TR	29.667	4	.000

As it can be seen in the table 5, the responses to this questionnaire varied considerably. Students mentioned that the instructor's mastery of subject was more thorough in the PP class (χ^2 (4, n=60) =15.167, $p=.004$), and she was more effective in keeping the students interested (χ^2 (4, n=60) =30.500, $p=.000$). The instructor offered more opportunities to apply learned skills through exercises and projects (χ^2 (4, n=60) =19.167, $p=.001$), she presented the objectives of the course more clearly than in TR classes (χ^2 (4, n=60) =12.833, $p=.012$). The teacher engaged audience through her eye contact (χ^2 (4, n=60) =12.667, $p=.003$) more in the PP classes. The instructor used more examples and out-of-class activities, explained more about students' problems and elicited students' input more (χ^2 (4, n=60) =12.500, $p=.014$) in the PP class. In spite of all the aforementioned items, students reported that the instructor went through the materials too fast to explain all main points (χ^2 (4, n=60) =19.500, $p=.001$). Learners were asked to rate their instructor's performance in both classes overly. Both answers were significant (χ^2 (4, n=60) =34.500, $p=.000$ for PP classes and χ^2 (4, n=60) =29.667, $p=.000$) for TR class). However, they believed that their instructor's performance was above average in the TR classes while it was average in the PP ones. According to all these analyses it was concluded that despite all mentioned positive attitudes towards instructor's performance in PP classes, the learners claimed that the instructor's performance was better in the TR classes, so the second null hypothesis was confirmed i.e., PowerPoint presentation did not have effect on participants attitudes towards instructor's performance.

C. Observation Checklists Analysis

In order to analyze the data gathered through observation checklists, independent sample *t*-test was run to find the differences between traditional and PP classes. Table 6 indicates the descriptive statistics and Table 7 shows the results of independent sample *t*-test.

TABLE 6
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR OBSERVATION CHECKLISTS

Items	Class type	N	Mean	SD	Std. error Mean
q for clarification	PP	30	5.40	4.222	1.335
	TR	30	6.70	4.762	1.506
adequate response	PP	30	3.80	2.30	.727
	TR	30	2.80	1.874	.593
inadequate response	PP	30	2.50	1.179	.373
	TR	30	1.40	.699	.221
students' attention	PP	30	2.40	1.647	.521
	TR	30	1.90	.876	.277
talking instead of listening	PP	30	2.00	1.826	.577
	TR	30	2.60	1.647	.521
Participation	PP	30	2.20	1.549	.490
	TR	30	2.40	1.506	.476
active involvement	PP	30	1.60	1.265	.400
	TR	30	2.20	1.135	.359
Interaction	PP	30	.40	.516	.163
	TR	30	1.00	1.491	.471
note taking	PP	30	2.60	1.647	.521
	TR	30	5.10	1.449	.458
use of whiteboard	PP	30	1.60	1.075	.340
	TR	30	6.70	3.268	1.033

TABLE 7
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PP AND TR CLASSES

Case	t	df	Sig.	Mean diff.
Question for clarification	-.646	18	.526	-1.30
Adequate response	1.066	18	.301	1.00
Inadequate response	2.538	18	.021	1.10
Students' attention	.848	18	.408	.50
Talking instead listening	-.772	18	.450	-.60
Participation	-.293	18	.773	-.20
Active involvement	-1.116	18	.279	-.60
Interaction	-1.203	18	.254	-.60
Note-taking	-3.604	18	.002	-2.50
Use of whiteboard	-4.688	18	.000	-5.10

Among all 10 items, significant differences were found for taking notes, using the whiteboard and responding inadequately to the teacher's questions between the two classes. As Table 7 represents, the difference between the two types of presentation (that is, PP and TR) regarding inadequate responses were significant ($t= 2.538$, $p=.000$). By considering the obtained means which were indicated in Table 6 above (2.50 for PP versus 1.40 for traditional class) it is concluded that although the answers to the teacher's questions were inappropriate and inadequate, the learners were more active to answer the instructor's questions and were more involved in class discussions in the PP class.

The second item which was significant for the two classes (that is, PP and TR) ($t=-3.604$, $p=.002$) is related to students' note taking which, according to the obtained means (2.60 for PP class and 5.10 for TR one), showed that the students were more engaged in note-taking in TR classes, and also according to the course-related behaviors questionnaire analysis, learners claimed that their notes were more organized and more complete in PP classes; therefore, there was no need to take notes in such classes.

Finally, the last significant item ($t=-4.688$, $p=.000$) is related to teacher's using whiteboard which, according to the obtained means (for PP class 1.60 and for TR 6.70), was more in the TR class.

VIII. DISCUSSION

The analyses of the learners' course-related behavior questionnaire, designed in order to answer the first research question, reveals that computer-mediated PP presentation has positive effects on MA students' class discussions and teacher's weblog usage. Although PP presentation enhances the aforementioned behaviors, it does not affect the learners' class attendance and note taking. The results also indicates the participants' positive attitudes towards some desirable features of the PP classes such as attention capturing, discussion-centeredness, and more organized presentations.

The findings of this study are in contrast with Nouri and Shahid's (2008) study. Although students in their study viewed PP presentation as more favorable than TR, had positive attitudes towards it, and reported higher understandability about the course content, according to data analysis of the research no significant differences were

found. The results of the current study showed that MA students believed this style of presentation was more effective for remembering lecture materials and it enhanced their understandability than TR style. The possible reason for this is maybe due to attention capturing nature of the PP which motivates students to discuss more to answer to teacher's questions in order to remove the ambiguity they encounter in the course content. It seems that discussion-centered feature of PP assists the students' understandability.

The results of Susskind's (2008) study showed that the students displayed a preference for lectures accompanied by PP presentations. The participants believed that those lectures were more organized, more interesting and enjoyable. Students were more motivated to attend those classes. Considering the weblog usage, students who were presented applying computer-mediated presentations viewed the weblog content as more interesting and useful. The results obtained in the current study are in accord with Susskind's study regarding the learners' preference for lectures applying PP, class discussions, and weblog usage enhancement. It seems that the learners are more interested in materials with PP lectures, this in turn, should enhance their motivations and these motivated students have positive perceptions towards attending the PP classes, participating in class discussions and accessing the course weblog.

Although the participants claimed they were more motivated to attend lectures with PP presentation (see table 1), their attendance was not affected by the lecture format, and the number of their absences in both classes reveals it; in other words, the number of the participants' absences was identical in both (TR and PP) classes. The main reason for attending class for the participants in the current study can be due to difficult nature of the content of the two mentioned compulsory courses at MA level that they do not want to miss the teachers' clarifications of the courses. The results relating to the learners' class attendance is not consistent with that of the Christopher and Grabe's (2005) study. They reported that when students were provided with the opportunity to use Online Notes, i.e., PP slides were presented to the students posted on the weblog, the students used them as a way to compensate when they missed a class. In their study 79% of the participants who took the advantage of accessing class weblog and posted PP slides used slides as a replacement for their class attendance.

Concerning the second research question which was meant to find out whether the participants who were presented with PP had positive attitudes towards the instructors' performance, according to the findings of this study, although the learners stated that the teacher engaged them in PP classes more, her/his teaching was more organized, and she/he was more informative, effective, and prepared than in TR classes, they rated the overall performance of their teacher higher and above average in TR classes. This result does not support Susskind's (2008) and Nouri & Shahid's (2008) study in which professors were evaluated more favorable in PP classes. It seems that above average rating of the instructor's performance in traditional class by the students, was mostly due to instructor's whiteboard usage in providing notes for the participants. It is important to keep in mind that instructor's board use, which is considered as one of the noticeable characters of an active teacher, according to the students' point of view, may influence participants' attitudes towards her performance.

IX. CONCLUSION

The basic objective underlying the present study was to investigate MA TEFL students' perceptions of computer-mediated PP use in presenting course materials. This study also sought to figure out whether or not this kind of educational technology presentation affected the learners' class behaviors and the instructors' performance. The findings of this study indicated that MA students tended to express that they were motivated and had positive attitudes towards PP usage in their classes. Their responses to the questionnaire align with analyzing observation checklist confirmed that although applying such technology enhanced the learners' class discussions and teacher's weblog use in order to download the presented slides, PP did not influence their note taking and attendance in the class. Students' taking notes was more in the TR classes than in the PP classes. The rate of their absence was identical in both classes.

With regard to the evaluation of the instructor, in spite of the learners' positive attitudes towards the effectiveness of the instructor's performance in the PP class, they rated the teacher above average in TR class and indicated that she/he was more efficient in the TR presentation.

X. IMPLICATIONS

Research findings regarding students' perceptions may have important implications for administrating officials, faculty members, and students. The findings of this study are hoped to be useful for administrating officials and decision-makers at the universities who make effort and spend money to integrate such overwhelming technologies in teaching curriculum to improve the quality of PP classes which are currently used to teach at MA level. Educational decision-makers of the universities are the people who are responsible for improving the use of this technology. It will be more effective if they hold in-service training for the professors who are applying this technology in their classes to improve the quality of such classes. Moreover, the results of this study can help professors to focus on students' perceptions concerning the use of this technology as a training aid tool to enhance students' learning. By eliciting students' attitudes an interaction is built; the interaction with the given technology between the professor and students plays a significant role in learning. This interaction may lead to evaluating the teachers' lesson plans, the software, how it is used, and its impact on students' learning. Regarding the students' attitudes and beliefs, professors can make more

efficient and more useful slides which are accompanied by sound, diagrams and more examples (specially in Phonology classes) to enhance students learning. In this way, professors are able to maintain students' attention during the lecture. According to the students' comments if handouts and slides are given to them before professor's presentations, due to their familiarity with the topic, it will enhance their class discussions. Depending on the mentioned results, some implications can be given in relation to the learners. Since learners have positive attitudes towards using PP, such attitude can contribute to creating a more attractive, desirable educational environment.

XI. LIMITATIONS

There are several limitations in the current study which researchers should be aware of. Regarding one of the students' course related behaviors, i.e., note taking, may be posting the slides on the teacher's personal weblog before or after instructor's presentations affect their attitudes towards note taking in both classes.

Another considerable limitation related to students' class discussions, attendance, and note taking, is the nature of the courses (i.e., Phonology and Research Methodology). The difficulty and nature of the two courses may likely to have influence participants' mentioned class behaviors. It is assumed that aforementioned students' course behavior may change in the other compulsory or optional courses.

XII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The current research focused on determining students' attitudes towards the two different compulsory courses with different natures and difficulties. For future research, investigations can be fulfilled concentrating on one course with different presentations (e.g., presenting Phonology in two classes, both with the same instructor, one with PP as a delivery system and one with using a traditional delivery system). The same course with 2 different ways of presentation for two groups of participants may affect learners' course-related behaviors and their attitudes towards instructor's performance.

The participants in this study were engaged in their note taking and demonstrated their attitudes and effect of PP on their own notes. It is possible to do more research and find the effects of teacher's note; that is, teacher provides his/her own handouts and make them available to the learners either before or after lecture to find out whether this way of note availability affects students' attitudes towards learners' course-related behaviors or not. Other researchers can replicate this study by larger sample sizes to ensure the generalizability of the findings.

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Changing the Message from ‘Don’t’ to ‘Do’: Awareness-raising Strategies for Responsible Alcohol Use at a South African University

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Abstract—This paper provides an overview of research on drinking behavior at a South African University. It describes new interventions, aimed to focus more positively on norms and the environment, and using Systemic Functional Grammar as a tool, provides a comparative linguistic analysis of the language used in ‘public’, alcohol-related texts before and after these interventions, in order to highlight the powerful effect of language in influencing attitudes to alcohol usage. After a brief discussion of these findings, some implications for practitioners are suggested

Index Terms—alcohol misuse, awareness-raising strategies, university students, SFG, appraisal

It is an oft-quoted and irrefutable fact that alcohol use is problematic at Universities all over the world (Johnson et al., 2006, p. 27, Presley et al., 1995), and that alcohol-related problems pose a very serious public health threat on campuses (e.g., Wechsler et al., 1994). While studies of usage patterns on South African campuses are very limited, there is no dearth of reliable research on such patterns in the USA (e.g. Wechsler et al., 1994, 1995, 1997; Wechsler & Isaac, 1991), and in Europe, where alcohol misuse poses a huge public health problem (of all World Health Organization regions, Europe has the greatest proportion of alcohol related ill health and premature death) (Groves, 2010).

Most campuses struggle continuously with the negative consequences of heavy drinking, often viewed by students as a rite of passage, which predictably results in high-risk behaviors such as drunk-driving, assaults and aggressive behavior, unsafe sex, damage to property, as well as accidents and death (Eigen, 1991; Presley et al., 1995; Wechsler & Isaac, 1991). Unlike some campuses, which avoid research on student alcohol use, for fear that what they might find could negatively impact the institution’s reputation, during the past three years, some serious research has been conducted on drinking behavior at Rhodes University (Young & de Klerk, 2009, Young & Maysom, 2010), using the Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test developed by the World Health Organisation. It showed that only about half of the students who completed the survey were drinking safely, another third were drinking hazardously, and the rest (18.4%) were drinking at levels that are regarded as harmful, with many of them possibly dependent on alcohol.

The aim of this paper is to explore one of the underlying factors which might possibly be contributing to this sort of behaviour, namely, the effect of the type of language used to address this problem on campus. After a critical review of the efficacy of interventions against alcohol abuse on the campus during the past three years, the paper focuses on recent efforts by the Dean of Students Office to construct a more positive, norms-related approach to awareness-raising, focussing on students who drink moderately, or do not drink at all, rather than using the negative language commonly used to highlight the dangers of binge drinking (Johnson et al., 2006).

The paper then provides a comparative overview (using Systemic Functional Grammar as a tool) of the type of language used in alcohol-related texts before and after this change in strategy. This analysis reveals how powerful language can be in driving strategic change and ultimately influencing underlying attitudes to alcohol usage. The paper ends with some suggestions for practitioners.

I. THE NATURE OF RECENT USAGE STUDIES

The methodologies employed in alcohol usage studies on campuses vary, but tend predominantly to rely on self-reported behavior (e.g. Thombs et al., 2003) which by its very nature is not very reliable (Harrell, 1997). There is a growing need to balance these studies with more ‘scientific’ objective measures of consumption patterns, such as that described by Johnson et al. (2006), who cites similar studies by Foss et al., (2003), Geller et al., (1991), and Voas et al. (2002). Such studies have typically focussed on self-assessed risk and breathalyzer tests (Foss, Marchetti, & Holladay, 2000; Foss et al., 2003).

Another branch of research into alcohol usage focuses on the efficacy of a range of interventions aimed to reduce consumption. An example of a successful intervention using a blend of social norms and environmental management is

the University of Arizona where a 29% decrease in heavy drinking is reported by Johannessen et al. (1999). Similar research by Johnson et al. (2006) provides a longitudinal evaluation over three years of a social norms program designed to reduce drunk driving and heavy drinking among students at San Diego State University. Based on voluntary, anonymous, and confidential interviews with 4,816 students (chosen at random, individually and in groups) on well-known campus routes, followed by a breath sample, the research reports marked improvements, and recommends the efficacy of norm-linked interventions.

Most surveys and objective tests reveal that while there is evidence of heavy drinking among many participants, there are equally high numbers of students who drink moderately, or do not drink at all. Norm-related programs are based on the behaviors of this latter group, and try to use their behavior as a model around which new norms can be constructed, rather than using the negative imagery currently associated with the dangers of binge drinking (Johnson et al., 2006).

Research by Perkins and Berkowitz (1986) led the way in using such social norms as a basis for interventions around alcohol usage. They postulated the view that students typically over-estimate the use of alcohol by their peers, and as a consequence tend to increase their own consumption accordingly, in order to be one of the 'gang'. In a vicious cycle, the exaggerated perceptions tend to feed in to the construction of commonly accepted views (or myths) about how much students drink, and also inevitably contribute to an increase in the actual amounts that students feel pressured into drinking, in order to be 'normal' students. As Johannessen et al. (1999) stated "students become carriers of the misperception, regardless of their level of personal use" (p. 4). Perkins and Berkowitz emphasized the need to ascertain the difference between actual and perceived drinking norms, based on demographic characteristics such as race, gender and place of residence, and speculated that giving students accurate feedback about these norms could "effectively reduce drinking for heavier drinkers (who represent the minority of students) and support the safer behaviors of the moderate drinkers and non-drinkers (who represent the majority of students)" (Johannessen et al., 1999, p. 4).

According to several recent studies, social norms interventions can contribute to reducing alcohol-related harm in university contexts (Borsari & Carey, 2003; Moreira, Smith, & Foxcroft, 2009), both in terms of actual quantities, and in terms of attitudes. Reasons for the over-estimation are unclear, but they include the highly visible nature of anti-social drunken behavior (Young & Maysom, 2010) – something that is especially relevant in a small-town context like Rhodes University – and a misconception that students who get drunk and behave badly personally believe that this is generally acceptable (without taking contextual factors into account).

Haines (1992, 1996) spearheaded the launching of such a program at Northern Illinois University, using social norms marketing techniques to counteract campus drinking misperceptions by providing reliable information about the actual behavior of the majority of students – whom their surveys had shown to be moderate, responsible drinkers. These marketing techniques are rooted in what he refers to as the PIE philosophy (Haines, 1998), with all messages in posters, adverts etc. being Positive, Inclusive and Empowering. Johannessen et al. (1999) describe such social norming as the repeated transmission and marketing (through a range of different media) of content which provides normative information aimed at replacing inaccurate misperceptions.

The actual marketing involves close collaboration with those individuals and organizations on campus and in the community who are concerned about the social ills of alcohol abuse, in order to agree on which strategies to adopt in order to achieve maximum public support for policy development and other proactive interventions. These stakeholders are obviously likely to differ widely, ranging from conservative academics and concerned residents of the town to students with liberal views and owners of bars eager to profit from alcohol sales, but it is important to acknowledge the complexity of their various agendas and work towards a common positive purpose. It is this positive, norms-based approach that informs the recent shift in intervention strategies at Rhodes University, and this shift and its consequences form the focus of the rest of the paper.

II. THE LOCAL CONTEXT

Rhodes is primarily a residential University, which occupies a very prominent position in the small town of Grahamstown, because it is the primary employer and because the annual influx of approximately 7000 students has a visible and very significant impact on the town, bringing with them huge buying power and a desire for entertainment. These factors contribute to the University's rather unenviable reputation as a "drinking university". The problem is regarded as serious, and there has been growing pressure from staff, the community and the police about student abuse of alcohol and its negative effects.

In the first awareness-raising campaign around alcohol usage launched by the Dean of Students office in 2007, the prevention strategies tended to be somewhat reactive rather than proactive in nature: a new *Policy for the Responsible Use of Alcohol* was passed by Senate and Council, bringing together a range of rules and regulations (which had been in place for many years) and incorporating new guidelines in relation to marketing and sponsorship, encouraging alternatives, increasing awareness, and providing support to addicted students. Other interventions included training and workshops for student leaders, an on-line usage survey and public campus discussions about the negative consequences of alcohol, particularly in relation to the annual Intervarsity sports competition, which had acquired a reputation for drunken, riotous behavior.

Two years later it was becoming clear that there had been little tangible or measurable success. While consecutive surveys over the two years did reveal a slight but statistically reliable 'improvement' (Young & de Klerk, 2009, Young

& Maysom, 2010), in the big picture such results are probably negligible. For this reason, following the lead of Johannessen et al. (1999), in 2010 it was decided that using a social norming approach and positive environmental management might prove to be more effective, and a concerted effort was made to replace consistently negative, judgmental statements with more positive messages about the behavior of responsible students who could be role-models. The Rhodes Dean of Students Office adopted a new strategy focussed on addressing common misperceptions that most students drink heavily and harm themselves and others. The Dean of Students Office began to make an effort to counteract the perpetuation of such 'myths' (the norming aspect), while at the same time working at strategies to change the nature of campus events traditionally associated with unsafe drinking practices (e.g. orientation, intervarsity). The ultimate aim: to use more subtle, positive messages in order to convert heavy drinkers to moderate drinkers.

Among various strategies, a special effort was made to encourage Halls of Residence to enter into the Dean of Students alcohol-free challenge, the idea being to devise on-campus entertainment for large numbers of students and develop a different sense of what 'having fun' could mean for Rhodes students. In response to a claim in the local newspaper (*Grocotts Mail*) in early February that the prospect of a new student intake would inevitably mean more trouble, in the 'love-hate' relationship between the town and Rhodes students, the Dean of Students sent an open letter (4/2/10), emphasizing the many positive contributions that most students make during their time at the University (A rather jaded and very humorous piece followed in the student press, expressing amazed disbelief at the naivety of the Dean of Students). In a further effort to set a different tone during Orientation, student leaders postponed the traditional street party, and organized a range of alcohol-free events instead. They invited staff (who were requested to wear academic dress) and parents to a Jazz evening, the only event which did provide alcohol, thereby providing role models and setting the tone. Two weeks later, during the annual awareness-raising campaign around alcohol, a new event, the Dean of Students Variety Show, was staged, and 900 students filled the theatre for an enjoyable evening with staff and students performing a range of acts and creating good institutional and community memories in a proactive and positive way. The picture in the advertising poster depicted a happy, laughing female student having fun, unlike previous posters, which deliberately used shocking, provocative negative imagery.

During that week, a newly devised on-line alcohol usage survey was launched on the students' homepage, in which students were reminded that drinking is normal social practice, and were invited to ascertain where their drinking patterns fitted in, relative to their peers. Instant electronic feedback was provided to each respondent. In another intervention aimed to spread the word about responsible drinking in the community and promote cooperation with local alcohol purveyors, a 'publicans forum' was held to discuss common concerns, and following this, a joint open letter was sent to *Grocotts Mail* (text 7). Extensive press coverage about these events, both on and off campus, all assisted in slowly building a more positive attitude to the use of alcohol by students. The spontaneous, tongue-in-cheek, slang term "pulling a Viv" (an abbreviation of the Dean of Students' name, meaning 'having a night of relative abstinence from alcohol') appeared in at least three campus media during this time.

In order to test the effect of this change in strategy, an analysis of the type of language used in public, alcohol-related texts on campus before and after the change has been conducted, using the Appraisal system of Systemic Linguistics, which is described in the next section. The aim is to show how the deliberate decision to adopt a proactive, positive approach is actually manifested in language, and to provide some substance to the claim that this might lead to a change in underlying attitudes on campus.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Appraisal as an Analytical Tool

One can use the Appraisal system (a recent development within Systemic Functional Linguistics (see Droga & Humphrey, 2002; Macken-Horarik, 2003; Martin, 2000, 2003; Martin & White, 2005; Martin & Rose, 2003) to explore how interpersonal meanings are constructed in texts, both explicitly and implicitly, through the use of evaluative and attitudinal language. The Appraisal system has been effectively applied in a wide range of disciplines, such as drama (Martin, 2000), and the media (Martin, 2004), and several studies on the role of persuasive language have proven to be very useful in highlighting which words are particularly powerful in influencing attitudes (Adendorff & de Klerk, 2005; Mackin-Horarik, 2003; Marshall, Adendorff, & de Klerk, 2009; Myers, 1989). Appraisal offers a powerful analytical tool for the purposes of uncovering attitudes in texts (spoken or written) and showing how they affect attitudes and create solidarity by negotiating their positions and aligning listeners and readers.

Briefly, Systemic Functional Linguistics classifies language in use into three broad metafunctions: the experiential, the interpersonal and the textual. The experiential metafunction is concerned with the way we use language to try to build a logical and comprehensive picture of the way we experience the world, and its impact on us. The interpersonal metafunction focuses on language use when people interact, negotiate and establish relationships; and the textual metafunction is concerned with the logical organization of language that enables texts to function coherently as a whole. All three functions are interlinked in any text, but it is most particularly the interpersonal metafunction that concerns us here, because it is a tool designed to explore the ways in which language is used strategically to communicate attitudes, evaluations, feelings, judgements of others and appreciation of entities, as part of a process of aligning an audience and creating a 'community of feeling' (Droga & Humphrey, 2002; Martin & White, 2005).

In particular, this paper concerns itself with the expression of attitude: ‘the resources used to make either a positive or negative evaluation of phenomena’ (Droga & Humphrey, 2002, p. 75). Attitudinal evaluations, are classified according to the expression of one’s feelings or emotions (Affect), a normative or moral judgement of peoples’ behavior (Judgement) and the evaluation of objects, artefacts or situations (Appreciation).

Within the subsection of Affect, feelings (either positive or negative) are categorized according to Happiness, Security and Satisfaction, as exemplified in words such as *cheerful*, *confident*, *impressed* (positive affect) and *hate*, *anxious*, *bored* (negative affect) (Martin, 2000). Examples of words expressing Judgement are: *lucky/tragic* (normality), *clever/slow* (capacity), *brave/cowardly* (tenacity), *honest/deceitful* (veracity) and *moral/evil* (propriety) (Martin, 2000). Other aspects of the system, including Appreciation, Graduation and Engagement, are not of immediate relevance to this discussion, which focuses primarily on Attitude.

B. Data

Two sets of texts (texts 1-5) were selected for analysis and comparison in term of the expression of attitude, using the Appraisal framework. The first set comprised key public alcohol-related texts issued between 2008 and 2009, before the decision had been made to develop a positive norm-based strategy. The second public texts (texts 6 and 7) were issued in 2010, after the norms-based approach had begun. In the first set, Text 1 is the University’s Responsible Use of Alcohol Policy (<http://www.ru.ac.za>); Text 2 is the editorial (5/3/08) of one of the student newspapers, “*The Oppidan Press*”, expressing students’ views on what was perceived as a ‘clamp-down’ by the Dean of Students on the use of alcohol by students. Text 3 is the response of the Dean of Students to these views, published a month later in the local newspaper, *Grocotts Mail*; Text 4 is a collection of angry letters to the Dean of Students from members of the public following intervarsity weekend (September 2009), during which the loud and unruly behavior of drunk students caused a public outcry; and Text 5 is a public statement on campus made by the Dean of Students on the intranet, immediately following this outcry. The second set comprises Text 6, a letter to the editor of the *Grocotts Mail* (4/2/10) from Rhodes’ Dean of Students, emphasizing the many positive contributions that most students make during their time at the University, and Text 7, another letter to the editor (05/10) from the ‘publicans forum’, commenting on the efforts of town and gown to respond to students’ use of alcohol.

The tables below reflect the total number of evaluative terms which express attitude in each text. The percentages in the right-hand column of each table represent the proportion of negative terms in relation to the number of positive terms in that particular text.

IV. RESULTS

EXPRESSIONS OF ATTITUDE IN ALCOHOL-RELATED TEXTS
SET 1: TEXTS WRITTEN BEFORE THE INTRODUCTION OF A POSITIVE NORM-BASED STRATEGY

Text 1:		Alcohol Policy	67% negative
	Attitude <i>happiness, security satisfaction</i>	risk (8); violence, injuries, death, harm (2), exacerbated, difficulties, toxicity, problem(s) (4), negative, avoid, enjoy, safe(ty) (4), pleasant, health(y) (3), well-being	Negative: 22 Positive: 10
	Judgement <i>Capacity Tenacity Normality Propriety</i>	restrict(ed) (3), supervision, limit (5), prohibit(ed) (2), forbid(den) (2), control (4), permit / permission (10), allow, monitor, approved / approval (3), discipline (3), authorities, abstinence, addiction, dependency, heavy (2), excessive (4) support (10), encourage (9), assist, help (2), care, enlightened, mature, normal, balanced, moderate, responsible (5)	Negative: 45 Positive: 33
	Appreciation <i>Reaction Valuation</i>	unacceptable, complain, dissatisfaction, noise, rowdy, drunken, intoxicated (5), alcohol- / glass free (6), non-alcoholic (4)	Negative: 21 Positive: 0
Text 2:		Oppidan Press Editorial 5/2/08.	85% negative
	Attitude <i>happiness, security satisfaction</i>	rapes, man-handling, crack-down, clamped down, herded, rough, worrying (2), self-conscious, harsh, spoil fun, safe, commendable	Negative: 11 Positive: 3
	Judgement <i>Capacity Tenacity Normality Propriety</i>	got to stop, sweeping generalizations, wouldn't dare, regulations, supposed to; dragon, breathing down your neck, mistakes (2), wrong, learn (2), drinking habits, misuse (2), dependant responsible, mature /-ity (2)	Negative: 16 Positive: 3
	Appreciation <i>Reaction Valuation</i>	chill out (2), severe, unforgiving, alienate, badmouthing, doubt, not making light	Negative: 8 Positive: 0
Text 3:		Response from the Dean of Students.	69% negative
	Attitude <i>happiness, security satisfaction</i>	violence, rape, alcohol(ism) (3), scary, poisoning, risk (3), harmful, rushed to hospital, life-threatening, crisis, accident, death, issue alert, poisoning, marvellous, fun, enjoy, safety (2), wellbeing	Negative: 18 Positive: 6
	Judgement <i>Capacity Tenacity Normality Propriety</i>	expose, stop (drinking), over-reacting, clamping down, disciplinary, police, dependent, addict, alternatives, drunk, responsible /ity (4), encourage, promote, support	Negative: 10 Positive: 7
	Appreciation <i>Reaction Valuation</i>	unenviable reputation, complain, unwanted pregnancies, serious injuries, binge drinking care (2)	Negative: 5 Positive: 2
Text 4:		Public complaints about Intervarsity	86% negative
	Attitude <i>happiness, security satisfaction</i>	problem (3), trouble(s), concerned, littered (2), strewn (2), fierce, disapproval, fights (3), mob, bad(ly) (5), broken bottles/glass (9), unpleasant, violent (4), hooligan(ism) (3), vandalism, "piss up", jorl, confrontations, hurling, trashing, vomit, urine, harassment, sexist slurs (4), insults, racism (7), abuse (3), grabbed, pushed, punched, accosted, vicious, throwing, shouting, dragged, death, unruly, uncontrolled, vulnerable, out of hand, not coping, endanger, sleep deprivation, crisis, doomed, intimidating, threatening, victims, ill good sense, better nature, good, safety, excellence	Negative: 64 Positive: 5
	Judgement <i>Capacity Tenacity Normality Propriety</i>	lack of respect, ordinary citizens, absolute fiasco, insufficient security, drunk(eness) (20), disciplinary action, perpetrators, extraordinary, nonsense, party animals, sanction, bann(ed) (2), control (3), corporal punishment, rectify, cancellation (2), custodians, monitors, marshals, take action, not enough, misbehavior, hard core, terminated, unacceptable, non negotiable, despicable, debauchery, unruly, bingeing, spoiled brats, loutish, public, visibly, stupidity, don't allow, harsh, tackled head on, unnecessary, mess, uncalled for, stop, cannot behave, close down, beyond "disorderly, turned a blind eye, firm stand, indulging, adolescent, idle threats, lack, enforcement, discipline (3), flawed, stupid, apology, prissy, grump. face-saving, moderate, civil (2) sober, dignity (3), rights, seemly, role models, religious values, tolerant (4), excused, reasonable, reputation, responsible, proud, law abiding, standards, fair	Negative: 84 Positive: 24
	Appreciation <i>Reaction Valuation</i>	loud thumping music (4), shocking (2), offensive (3), vulgar (2), unfortunate(ly), frankly embarrassing (3), anger (2), disgust (2), disappointment, criticism (2), despicable (2), ashamed (3), terribly saddened (2), hang my head, deeply uncomfortable, deeply troubled, deplore, disowned, hatred, appalled (3), horrific, bloody, outrageous, appreciate	Negative: 41 Positive: 1
Text 5:		Message from the Dean of Students	82% negative
	Attitude <i>happiness, security satisfaction</i>	Unfortunately, violators (3), hate speech, "rape speech"	Negative: 6 Positive: 0
	Judgement <i>Capacity Tenacity Normality Propriety</i>	ban, not acceptable, drunken, loutish, very visible and vocal behavior, proudly displayed, sober, dignity (2)	Negative: 5 Positive: 4
	Appreciation <i>Reaction Valuation</i>	Offensive (2), shocking, appalling, outrage, complainant, disturbing	Negative: 7 Positive: 0

SET TWO: TEXTS WRITTEN AFTER THE INTRODUCTION OF A POSITIVE NORM-BASED STRATEGY

Text 6:		Public letter to the press	27% negative
	Attitude <i>happiness, security satisfaction</i>	sadly, abuse, antisocial, sex-crimes, unpleasant perfect, good, well-rounded, community engagement (2), rights (3), excellence, relaxation, entertainment, positive, love, party, music, enjoy, hi-jinks, benefit, humour, exuberance	Negative: 5 Positive: 20
	Judgement <i>Capacity Tenacity Normality Propriety</i>	infringe, disregard, disciplinary, antisocial, yobbish, disgrace, waste, lost, judge, take action challenge (2), try, gently, firmly, encourage (2), hard work, confident, intelligent, sensitive, eager, keen, socially aware, compassionate, concerned, adults, responsibility (3), tolerate, volunteers, tirelessly, talent, competition (2), debates, activities, leaders, considerate (3), proud (2), accountable	Negative: 10 Positive: 35
	Appreciation <i>Reaction Valuation</i>	prejudices (2), problem, shock, provoke, warned (2) amazing, exciting, love, acknowledge, values	Negative: 7 Positive: 5
Text 7:		Open letter from Publicans' Forum	22% negative
	Attitude <i>happiness, security satisfaction</i>	public, loud alcohol-free events, fun, enjoyment, acceptable, sociable, partners (2)	Negative: 2 Positive: 7
	Judgement <i>Capacity Tenacity Normality Propriety</i>	drunken exploits, intoxicated, heavy drinkers, antisocial encourage (2), responsible / -ity (4), norms, seriously, effort, proactively (2), initiated, challenging, cooperate, promoting, continue, endeavour, well-balanced	Negative: 4 Positive: 18
	Appreciation <i>Reaction Valuation</i>	Complaints (2) misperceptions, positively, pride	Negative: 2 Positive: 3

V. DISCUSSION

The analysis of the first text set shows a preponderance of negative lexical items in all categories in all texts, reaching a climax in the angry letters from the public. In these texts, the percentages in the right-hand column show a significantly higher proportion of negative terms in relation to the number of positive terms in each text, reflecting a steadily growing clamour of outrage and a sense of overwhelming condemnation on the part of the University (in three of them, over 80% of all evaluative terms are strongly negative). In contrast, texts 6 and 7 present a very different picture, with only 27% and 22% of negative terms respectively. These two key 'public' texts demonstrate a major change in lexical choices, and a clear shift to a more positive message (with 76% positive evaluative terms overall).

The powerful, almost draconian authoritative tone of disapproval and contempt evident in the first set of texts has probably not assisted well-meaning efforts to reduce harmful drinking. Results of the Rhodes campus on-line surveys over two years confirm this (Young and de Klerk 2009), and evidence that the problem of alcohol misuse appears to be growing has made it clear that it is not enough simply to educate and warn students about alcohol and its effects and complain about the social ills and reputational damage linked to intoxication. The traditional knowledge approach has a limited effect, and this has been shown to be the case on other campuses as well (Gonzales, 1991; Goodstadt, 1986; Oblander, 1984), where similar programs show little overall benefit in reducing harm and risk. (Similarly, an abstinence-only message fails to work with older adolescents and those who have already started drinking (Flynn et al., 1991; Kraft, 1988).

VI. IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

It will be important to monitor the effect of the shift in strategy which has been outlined above, over time. An online alcohol-usage survey is conducted annually on campus, and this will be one means of measuring the outcomes. Regardless of whether patterns change for the better, results of the most recent online survey of March 2010 confirm the trend reported in previous research (Johannessen et al. 1996; Perkins and Berkowitz, 1986) that students over-estimate the drinking behaviour of their peers, and that this in turn may be influencing their own consumption patterns. The survey asked respondents to estimate their own drinking and the drinking of a typical same-sex peer along three key factors: the frequency of drinking, the amount of alcohol consumed on a typical day when drinking and the frequency of binge drinking defined as the consumption of six or more standard alcoholic drinks on any single occasion. Of the approximately 7000 students registered at Rhodes, 2179 completed the survey (1236 women and 943 men) - roughly 31% of the entire student body. Statistics gathered from this survey revealed that students were indeed overestimating the drinking habits of their peers. For example, 50.6% of students overestimate the frequency of alcohol consumption, 44.3% the amount that is consumed on a typical drinking occasion and 54.4% the frequency of binge drinking. The differences between the actual and estimated means are statistically significant ($p = 0.001$) for each of the three dependent sample t-tests. Using the median score as the best indication of what is typical, then the typical student has a drink containing alcohol two to four times every four week. Even if this is rounded up to once a week, it is still less than the estimated two to three times a week. On these drinking occasions, the typical student consumes three or four drinks, not the five or six that is typically estimated.

This data is being used to construct a different style of messaging around alcohol, which is positive, and is focussed on the 'good' responsible norms of the majority of students, supported by reliable information and facts from credible

data sources. A series of posters (with familiar, repeated design elements to enhance recognition) are being produced which will display statements such as “Most Rhodes students have two or fewer drinks on a night out” and “Most Rhodes students drink responsibly – only 11% drink harmfully”. Drink equivalency information will also be provided, alongside the recognizable logo of the Dean of Students office. The key content of the posters will be on how often typical students drink and how many drinks they consume on a typical drinking occasions. The posters aim to represent a diversity of students having fun in realistic, familiar settings, so that the various sub-cultures (black, white, male, female etc.) will associate themselves with at least one of the images being used. Particular care will be taken to use images of students who are known to be moderate drinkers. The overall desired effect is to create a clear, simple message which avoids negative terms (e.g. ‘binge’, ‘anti’, ‘abuse’ or ‘dangers’) or moralistic judgements about ‘bad’ behavior.

In this way, it may be possible to build on the platform of a positive, tolerant approach to responsible drinking, and address common misperceptions regarding alcohol use by most students in a non-threatening manner. By making an effort to avoid linking alcohol use in any way with morality, and rather to focus rather on health and safety (following Johannessen et al., 1999), the thrust will be optimistic, with a message which aims to engage students as intellectuals, with material that is intelligent, accurate, familiar and non-judgemental. Shifting the paradigm from fear-based alcohol prevention to the social norms approach with a consistent, non-defensive message aims to encourage stakeholders to adopt a new perspective and outlook regarding alcohol prevention.

In order to ensure a buy-in from the wider community, these changes have been discussed in University committees and forums, supported by wardens and other senior staff (including the University Senate), and other key stakeholders including the local police and bar owners. It has also been publicly endorsed by the Students Representative Council. The focus in nurturing stakeholders is on empowerment, persuasion, and partnership. The next stage in the strategy will involve a review of policies and protocols linked to alcohol, alongside a review of materials distributed to students about these policies and about alcohol in general, in order to reveal the existence of possible mixed messages. As each cohort of students moves through the University, the permanent staff need to be relied on to convey the same, consistent and positive message about student norms, and these norms need to be tested regularly to ensure they remain credible and research-based.

In addition to measuring change statistically with a follow-up on-line survey, it will be useful to measure change linguistically as well: in a year’s time, after the poster campaign has run its course, during a period of one month, all alcohol-related messages displayed off-campus, both on public notice boards or in local newspapers and other media will be collected for analysis (including bar promotions and local press coverage of alcohol-related incidents), to ascertain whether perceptions have changed.

VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The change in strategies around alcohol usage on campus has been based on the premise that negative thinking breeds negative thinking, and that, unwittingly, officials at the university, fuelled by the negative attitudes of complaining members of the public, have begun to ‘nag’. The textual analysis, comparing pre- and post-strategy public texts, has provided useful evidence that the mood of the first set of texts is indeed one of strong disapproval and harsh judgement and condemnation. This has, in all likelihood, drowned out the underlying intention of these texts: to remind students that responsible drinking is good and that the university will provide care and support. It is indeed feasible that the recipients (or targets) of these messages have become a little defensive over time, and it is even possible that some students might have deliberately started to drink more as a result. It will be interesting to monitor the effect of the new strategy described in this paper, represented by the much more positive tone of the second set of texts, and echoed in the poster campaign which will shortly commence. It is hoped that new drinking norms will slowly be established via these channels.

Of course, in addition to the sorts of written texts which have been analysed in this paper, there are also many public verbal messages to students, and until recently, they have also shared the strongly negative and condemnatory tone of texts 1 to 5: both the Vice Chancellor and Dean of Students vigorously stress the dangers of alcohol abuse when they address all first-year students in the first week at Rhodes; in the residences later in that week, workshops are run by senior students, and one of the topics is substance ‘abuse’. A week later, the first awareness-raising initiative coordinated by the office of the Dean of Students has always been “Anti-alcohol Abuse Week” (the words “anti” and “abuse” express the same disapproving attitude which predominates in the foregoing texts). It will also be important to ensure parallel shifts in the tone of such verbal messages and activities in future.

This paper used linguistic analysis to test the effect of a deliberate change in strategy, and to show how a proactive, positive approach is actually manifested in the language of public texts about alcohol. The paper argues that genuine culture change, in terms of counteracting the negative effects of alcohol usage in a permanent and effective way, will indeed be effected by consistent positive language use of this kind, and will also depend on a long-term commitment from key stakeholders to adopt a consistent, positive approach, emphasizing the moderate behaviors of the majority of students, and fully endorsed at all levels of the University, especially the most senior. Johannessen et al. (1999) tracked student opinion about alcohol-free events on their campus, and reported a statistically significant increase in student

support for such events over a three-year period. Time will tell whether Rhodes students feel the same, and ongoing research will have to monitor the long-term efficacy of a norms-based positive approach to alcohol consumption.

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Romanian Second Language Learners of English Requests and Apologies

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Abstract—Despite the wealth of literature generated over the past three decades on requests and apologies as a speech act, cross-cultural requests and apologies have been neglected as a research topic in the international press. This cross-sectional mixed method study was designed to examine requests and apologies with the long-term goal of designing a valid teaching application for the ESL and EFL teachers. There were 80 participants that included male and female students within the first through seventh grade population of the International School of Cluj-Napoca, Romania (ISC). Data was collected within the Modified Cartoon Oral Production Tools (MCOPT), which includes 16 cartoon drawings depicting situations in which two characters interact. The research data was gathered in a heterogeneous and a typical setting within north western Romania. The resulting analysis is that the sophistication of speech acts increases with age more than with length of study.

Index Terms—requests, apologies, second language, mixed-method, Romania

I. INTRODUCTION

When people talk about language, they generally refer to a system of communication using arbitrary signals. However, a language is more than just words or grammar. A language consists of speech acts or functional performances, such as asking a question, apologizing or making a request. These are culturally constructed and, therefore, vary from language to language. So, when a speaker learns a second language, he or she must learn more than just the words or grammar; he or she must also learn enough about the culture to perform these speech acts correctly. Speech acts are something Hymes (1972), who developed the concept in the mid 1960s, referred to as communicative competence. In order to gain this communicative competence, a speaker must gain sociolinguistic competence or knowledge of the sociocultural rules of the language's speakers. These rules establish the appropriateness of a speech act within a certain context. When greeting someone in a very formal situation, an American might say, *Hello, how are you?* or *Nice to see you again*, but if he were meeting a friend in an informal situation it would be much more appropriate to say *Hi*, or *Hey, whatcha been doing?*

The study of communicative competence is called *pragmatics*. "Pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (Crystal, 1997, p. 301). Leech (1983) presents pragmatics as interpersonal rhetoric – social actors who are not just trying to accomplish a goal, but attending to their interpersonal relationships with others while conducting the activities of life. According to Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), there are two aspects of pragmatics. The first, *pragmalinguistics*, deals with the words available or linguistic resources that enable a speaker to perform a speech act. Here, syntax and grammar play significant roles in the speech act. Second is *sociopragmatics*, which examines the use of speech acts in social contexts and the social factors that affect them. This is the aspect where familiarity with an individual or their social status influences the application of the speech act.

According to LoCastro (2003), each speech act has an inherent benefit for the speaker, listener, or both. The determination of these benefits is based on the *face* needs of the participants. Face refers to a person's "public self-image" (LoCastro, p. 110). A speech act can add to, take away, or have no effect on a person's face. These effects of speech acts result in a choice of strategy or a careful consideration of how the speech act will be performed. These strategies are chosen based on the potential for face loss of either participant, or the weight of imposition. The risk of face loss is gauged based on power relationships, social distance, and individual judgments of imposition upon the speaker or addressee. These, in turn, are determined by variables such as social status, age, gender, and occupation, that can influence which strategy a speaker will use.

Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of pragmatic strategy suggests that there are three ways an individual can perform a speech act. One can either perform the speech act directly (with or without attempting to lessen the threat to face), perform it indirectly, or not perform it at all. For example, a direct request may attempt to lessen the threat to face: "May I borrow a pencil?" or without regard for face: "Let me use that pencil for a second." An indirect request would

be “I’m sorry, I don’t have a pencil.” Not performing the act of requesting a pencil at all could look like this: “I’m sleepy.”

Brown and Levinson (1987) also identify two types of politeness: positive and negative. Positive politeness is concerned about social approval, “If you would like, we can go to lunch. I will pick you up at 11:30.” Negative politeness results from increased social distance and attempts to avoid adding any imposition. This would sound like, “I am sure you are too busy to go to lunch with me.” The same factors that determine the choice of strategy will also affect the politeness of the speech act.

From another perspective, Blum-Kulka & Kasper (1993) define pragmatics in terms of second language learners, (SLL) or interlanguage pragmatics, described as “the study of the nonnative speakers’ use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language” (p. 3). For a SLL, familiarity with the language and culture, as well as the ability to recognize the factors of power, social distance and imposition, and what these factors mean, are additional influences on the ability to perform a speech act with native-like competency. In addition, the pragmatics acquired in the speaker’s first language (L1) may transfer to the speaker’s second language. This is called pragmatics transfer and is central to the study of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP). The SLL’s pragmatics awareness (knowledge of the rules of appropriate speech act performance), as well as pragmatics performance (actual use of the rules of appropriate speech act performance) in the second language across various social contexts, and the factors which affect their acquisition, are also very salient to ILP.

Many researchers (Ellis, 1992; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Olshtain & Cohen, 1989; Trosberg, 1995) have studied interlanguage pragmatics’ (ILP) use of language to shape second language learners’ speech acts of requests and apologies. A request is an act that is frequently performed in daily interaction across societies, and is a face-threatening act (Brown & Levinson, 1987), in which the speaker asks the hearer to perform an act beneficial to the speaker. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) and Olshtain and Cohen (1983) define apology speech acts as covering a range of strategies. They have identified five specific types: 1) *illocutionary force indicating device (IFID)*- i.e. *sorry, apologize, regret, excuse* 2) *an explanation or account of the cause* 3) *an expression of the speaker’s responsibility* 4) *an offer of repair*, and 5) *a promise of forbearance*. As suggested by Ely & Gleason (2006), “Apologies are remarkable linguistic and social tools. They can restore damaged relationships; mitigate loss of face, and preserve social standing” (p. 599). This study is interested in learning if there are any relationships within the two subgroups, requests and apologies, of speech acts. For example, as amount of (time) English education level of second language learners increases, how does the level of indirectness change?

Blum-Kulka (1991), Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) and Ellis (1994) have all studied the dynamics of variability of speech acts between L1 and L2 learners. They found requests to be one of the first productive illocutionary acts performed by learners. These request skills are acquired as a result of communicative needs rather than instruction. Additionally, they noted that SLLs tend to be more verbose, while native speakers are more succinct and get the interaction over with quickly.

Researchers acknowledge that L1, social and cultural setting, individual differences, linguistic competence, age, and length of time in formal study of English all influence SLLs. Achiba (2003) points out in his research that pragmatic reasoning begins to develop around age 9 and, by age 11, the child has accuracy and consistency. Hassall (2003) suggests that L1 pragmatic transfer occurs out of necessity, while Kobayashi and Rinnert (2003) state pragmatic transfer cannot be definitively established by looking at a single aspect of a speech act. Schauer (2004), though stating her data is limited because of a small number of participants, suggests we need to consider that some people prefer to be more direct.

The value of this research is, in the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) field, its potential for predictability. For example, different L1s produce specific styles of ILP that help us to predict and develop teaching styles for SLLs. Each request and apology is comprised of an innate acquired formula, with a range of variations. This research is interested in tracking the use of these variations (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989). The sub-section of apologies is of interest because of its frequent use within a culture. When accessed inappropriately (and a social or linguistic error occurs), problems occur for one or more people (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Miscommunication is often imprecisely diagnosed as ill-mannered behavior on the part of the hearer. With empirical data of how SLLs execute specific speech acts, our research may lead to more effective teaching applications to help move SLLs towards native-like pragmatic behavior and competence (Hassell, 2003).

II. METHOD

A. Setting

Data was collected within individual classrooms at *The International School of Cluj* (ISC), a not-for-profit school within the city limits of Cluj-Napoca, Romania. This school was selected for the research project because of language variations, the focus on English education for the kindergarteners and the ISC’s striving for best practices which includes the use of teachers with a higher degree of academic training. The school is a bi-lingual Romanian-English, or Romanian-German educational program. ISC has two different academic tracks, one for foreign students and one for native Romanians, to meet the needs of its diverse students. The current enrollment is 115 students with 80% of the

student body being native Romanian. The other 20% come from language backgrounds including Hungarian, Turkish, Farsi, Dutch, Japanese, Arabic, and German.

B. Participants

The participants for this cross-sectional study included all 80 of the students from the ISC who were involved in some degree of English language learning within the academic setting, and none of whom spoke English as a first language. The participants included male and female students within the first through seventh grade population of ISC. All participants remained anonymous.

C. Research Questions

What is the range of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic proficiency in English as evidenced in the request and apology strategies of school children studying English as a non-native language?

- 1) Does length of time of English instruction show a significant relationship with indirectness of requests?
- 2) Does length of time of English instruction show a significant relationship with formula of apologies?
- 3) Does age of speaker correlate with indirectness of requests?
- 4) Does age of speaker correlate with formula of apologies?

D. Data Collection

Data was collected by administering the Cartoon Oral Production Tools (COPT) developed by Rose (2000) and adapted by the researchers. Our instrument is called the Modified Cartoon Oral Production Tools (MCOPT), which includes 16 cartoon drawings depicting situations in which two characters interact. The original instrument contained 30 separate cartoon drawings, each designed to elicit an apology, request or compliment. The only change to the original instrument was the removal of all 14 compliment cartoons. For the purposes of this study, the cartoons for compliments were not used. Each student participant was shown a cartoon and asked to indicate what he or she would say in a particular situation. Each of the cartoons in MCOPT was designed to elicit requests or apologies.

After the cartoons were administered and data collected, demographic data was collected to test the effect of age, the participant's academic grade, and years of English language education experience on the levels of indirectness of apologies and requests.

E. Procedures

The research team was composed of a presenting researcher and a note-taker. After obtaining permission from the ISC director, teachers, and students, the team administered the instrument to individual volunteers who were students at ISC (participant). All communications with the participants were conducted in English. The researcher presented the MCOPT and the note-taker transcribed the participant's responses. The presenting researcher read the instructions to the participant from a written script. This method ensured that interactions between researchers and participants were consistent. The presenting researcher then showed the first cartoon of the MCOPT to the participant. The participant read the caption to themselves and responded orally, in English, about the cartoon with the request or apology that he or she would use in the same situation. In the event that a student did not begin answering with the first cartoon, which may indicate confusion regarding the procedure or difficulty formulating responses, the presenting researcher read the caption aloud and asked the student what he or she would say in the same situation. This procedure was only to be used for the first cartoon. With the remaining cartoons, participants were given instructions to say "pass" for cartoons for which they were unable to or unwilling to provide a response. Any *wait-time* for responses was determined by the participant. *Wait-time* is a concept identified in the early 1970's as the period of silence that follows a teacher's question and students' completed responses. The team found the entire process required approximately 8 minutes, with no interviews exceeding 10 minutes.

After the instrument was administered, demographic data was collected, including *date of birth*, *current grade level*, *number of years studying English*, and *nationality*. The participant was asked the demographic questions after the cartoon responses, to reduce the possibility of participant anticipation based on interactions with the researcher.

F. Analysis

Statistical analysis of the data was carried out using SPSS for Windows, 16.0. Descriptive statistics were used to compute the frequency of formula (utterance) use. Two types of statistical tests were employed to examine the data; *t*-tests, and Pearson's correlations. For all analyses, the alpha level was set at $\leq .05$.

The unit of analysis is the verbal comments/utterances, supplied by the participants. Each request utterance was coded using the categories developed by Blum et al. (1989), scored on a scale of 1 - 9 for levels of directness. The apology utterances were coded using categories also developed by Blum et al. (1989), scored on a scale of 1 - 5 for potential strategies. The coding data was based on a narrow and non-problematic range, making the need for a second rater unnecessary. Demographic data, specifically length of formal English education and academic grade level, was analyzed to examine group differences via *t*-tests. The units of difference produced by the *t*-tests were standardized and examined to find a moderate effect size using Cohen's $d = 0.5$. In addition to coding, the order of semantic formulas

used in each speech act was noted, which identifies the level of indirectness; for example, the differences between “Please can I borrow your pencil?” and “Can I borrow your pencil please?”

III. RESULTS

A. Requests

The ten request cartoons were analyzed based on the first response, which was coded (Cartoon 1) as direct (e.g., *Give me school stuff.*), conventionally indirect (e.g., *Can you buy me some stationery?*), and hint (e.g., *Do you want to buy some stationery?*). Each participant was told they could opt-out by either saying, “pass” or simply turning the page and moving to the next cartoon. There were not sufficient numbers of second or third responses to allow for statistical analysis. Table One presented the data based on frequencies, showing Direct requests were the favored utterance.

TABLE ONE
ALL CARTOONS, REQUEST ONE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Direct	426	53.3	55.5	55.5
	Conventional indirect	316	39.5	41.1	96.6
	Hint	26	3.3	3.4	100.0
	Total	768	96.0	100.0	
Missing	Opt out	32	4.0		
Total		800	100.0		

TABLE TWO
ALL CARTOONS, REQUEST ONE * ACADEMIC GRADE LEVEL CROSSTABULATION

			academic grade level								Total
			1.00	2.00	3.00	4.00	5.00	6.00	7.00		1.00
All cartoons, request one	Direct	Count	18	32	77	172	53	44	30		426
		% within academic grade level	94.7 %	69.6 %	56.2 %	72.3 %	49.1 %	36.7 %	30.0 %		55.5 %
	Conventional indirect	Count	1	9	58	58	47	73	70		316
		% within academic grade level	5.3 %	19.6 %	42.3 %	24.4 %	43.5 %	60.8 %	70.0 %		41.1 %
	Hint	Count	0	5	2	8	8	3	0		26
		% within academic grade level	.0 %	10.9 %	1.5 %	3.4 %	7.4 %	2.5 %	.0 %		3.4 %
Total	Count		19	46	137	238	108	120	100		768
	% within academic grade level		100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %		100.0 %

The influence of grade level on indirectness of request utterance was predictably obvious. We believe, at least initially, that this is a result of cognitive development instead of pragmatic developmental trends. The research question was does the relationship between grade level and length of English language education show a correlation?

TABLE THREE

Correlations

		All cartoons, request one (means, from original variables)	academic grade level	years of academic English instruction
All cartoons, request one (means, from original variables)	Pearson Correlation	1	.424**	-.001
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.995
	N	60	60	60
academic grade level	Pearson Correlation	.424**	1	.313**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.005
	N	60	80	80
years of academic English instruction	Pearson Correlation	-.001	.313**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.995	.005	
	N	60	80	80

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

There is a significant positive correlation between grade level and sophistication of request (indirectness) overall one ($r = .424, p = .001$), meaning that when students are in higher grades they will perform better, but no relationship between performance and years in studying English (Table Three).

B. Apologies

Distinct from requests, the six apologies were coded as having multiple strategies. The main strategy was labeled as the first utterance. Any additional utterance was coded as an adjunct. Each utterance is identified as one of five specific types: 1) *illocutionary force indicating device (IFID)*- sorry, apologize, regret, excuse 2) *an explanation or account of the cause* (She pushed me!) 3) *an expression of the speaker's responsibility* (I didn't mean to.) 4) *an offer of repair* (I will buy you a new one.), and 5) *a promise of forbearance* (I will never do this again.). Apologies did not demonstrate a significant relationship at all for all six apology cartoons, even when we looked separately at each apology cartoon.

The frequency table (Table Four) shows IFID were used in the first response 86.7% of the time. This is a pattern observed by other researchers (Rose, 2000). This reliance on IFIDs could be a result of mastery of that specific speech act formula versus individualized decision making for each cartoon.

TABLE FOUR
ALL CARTOONS, APOLOGY ONE

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	IFID	415	86.5
	Other	46	9.5
	Total	461	96.0
Missing	Opt out	19	4.0
Total		480	100.0

The frequency breakdown of apologies and supporting adjuncts did present a range of utterance; however, there was neither a clear pattern of type nor any notable relationship with grade level or length of English language education. This occurrence may be a result of the influence of the lack of homogeneity within the participants.

TABLE FIVE
ALL CARTOONS, APOLOGY ONE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	IFID	415	86.5	90.0	90.0
	explanation	15	3.1	3.3	93.3
	responsibility	12	2.5	2.6	95.9
	repair	19	4.0	4.1	100.0
	Total	461	96.0	100.0	
Missing	opt out	19	4.0		
Total		480	100.0		

IV. CONCLUSION

The research data was gathered in a heterogeneous and atypical setting within north western Romania. The cross-sectional study was designed to examine requests and apologies with the long-term goal of designing a valid teaching application for the ESL teacher. The research team encountered many of the hurdles that researchers meet – the need for field revisions, time delays, more questions than answers, and how to examine the data in a manner which maintains its authenticity.

It is conjecture that the data, and its variations, is greatly influenced by a variety of independent variables (e.g. heritage language, exposure to English in other settings, length of time attending ISC, point in cognitive development when formal English education commenced, and pedagogy of English instruction). The team was unable to carry out the background questions, which would have addressed some of these, factors influencing pragmatic development because we did not have the foresight to present them to the IRB prior to traveling to Romania to begin data collection.

The data analysis presented what would be expected, the sophistication of speech acts increases with age. There does not appear to be a strong relationship with length of formal English instruction. The motivation of this study was to examine influences on interlanguage pragmatic development with the long-term intent of program development. At this point, broad statements regarding teaching L2 pragmatics cannot be made.

Further study is going to be applying this study design in Eastern Europe, returning to Cluj-Napoca, Romania, as well as expanding our data collection to the Romanian capital, Bucharest. Each application allows us further refinement and further speculation. It is hoped to develop data collection that may demonstrate greater contrast. Key to this series of data gathering is developing a series of activities and overall application that can enhance pragmatic competence for English language learners, and perhaps, a second language-teaching model.

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Enhancing Reading Comprehension through Short Stories in Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—Incorporating literature in language classes had many ups and down. In hay days of Grammar Translation Method, literature was the core source of foreign language learning. However by the emergence of Direct Method literature has been generally out of favor. In recent years literature came back to language classes. Literature has been discovered as a valuable and interesting material for improving students' language ability (Premawardhena, 2005). It has been found that if appropriate literary texts are chosen it would "be an effective tool for stimulating and achieving language learning and equipping learners with relevant linguistic and socio-cultural competences" (Sell, 2005, p. 92). This study tries to test using literary text in improving reading comprehension ability of Iranian foreign language learners. A group of 26 students majoring in English at the Islamic Azad University Babol Branch and Amol Branch has been sampled for the purpose of this study. The students were then divided into two groups— the control group and the experimental group. Both the groups were administered identical Pre-Test and Post-Test which consists of selected reading passage from different TOEFL books. Contrary to the previous researches the result of the present study shows that the experimental group did not show a significant improvement over the control group. So the using of literary texts seems unsatisfactory for Iranian EFL learners'.

Index Terms—literary text, reading ability, short story

I. INTRODUCTION

There was a great debate on the use of literature in language classes. The use of literature in language classes is not new. The use of literature in foreign languages dates back to nineteenth century where literature was one of the essential materials in Grammar Translation Method. Students were supposed to translate the literary texts to their native language. Learners only focused on the surface level such as the meaning of vocabulary or the grammatical structures. They do not care about the literary value of texts. However with the emergence of Audiolingual Method and its emphasize on spoken language, literature was no longer used in language classes (Erkaya, 2005). Sell (2005) also mentioned that communicative approaches reject the use of literature in language classes due to unrealistic nature of literary text. They claim literary text is not relevant to everyday life. Besides, these approaches emphasize on speaking and listening skills where literature "is a matter of reading writing, or writing to be read" (p. 87). In recent years, literature again turned back to foreign language classes. However the use of literature in language classes has really changed from that of Grammar Translation Method. Literary texts are no longer used for translation. In the past as Hismanoglu (2005) mentioned literature was ultimate aim of language teaching. Literature today is used as a source of authentic material in language classes. Hismanoglu (2005, p. 54) stated the use of literature in language classes in recent years as the following:

"The use of literature as a technique for teaching both basic language skills (i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking) and language areas (i.e. vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation) is very popular within the field of foreign language learning and teaching nowadays. Moreover, in translation courses, many language teachers make their students translate literary texts like drama, poetry and short stories into the mother tongue".

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Advantages of Using Literature in Language Classes

Numerous studies have discussed the benefits of using literature in language classes. For example Maley (1989, as cited in Hismanoglu, 2005) lists the following reasons for using literature in the language classroom:

1. Universality
2. Non-triviality
3. Personal Relevance
4. Variety

5. Interest
6. Economy and Suggestive Power
7. Ambiguity

Parkinson and Reid Thomas (2000, as cited in Sell, 2005) also made a list of ten reasons for using literature in the language classroom:

1. Cultural enrichment
2. Linguistic model
3. Mental training
4. Extension of linguistic competence
5. Authenticity
6. Memorability
7. Rhythmic resource
8. Motivating material
9. Open to interpretation
10. Convenience

Although scholars named many advantages for using literature in foreign language teaching, but as Chiang (2007) mentioned there are four major reasons for incorporating literature into English language teaching. First literature is used as an authentic source in language classes. As Hismanoglu (2005) mentioned literary texts are primarily written for native speakers, they are not written for pedagogical purposes. Sell (2005) criticized standard FL textbooks for abnormal and non-authentic language. She also mentioned that textbook topics are inappropriate to the foreign language learners. They rarely address the real issues that learners will face them in real-life. Textbooks are full of fiction and unreal materials. Second studying literature can provide learners with the opportunity to practice the language skills. Teaching literature helps improving all four skills. According to Hismanoglu (2005) in comprehending literary text students should be familiar with both syntactic structure and discourse. Literary text needs greater effort for comprehending. So it will help learners to become more creative. McKay (2001) argues that literary texts can be ideal for all the four language skills. In reading comprehension tasks literary texts can stimulate interest and closer reading of the texts, as well as integrating the four skills during reading practice. He also maintains that literature can improve listening skills. For example as a listening task an unheard short story can be read aloud to the students and then teacher can ask students questions about comprehending the story. Stern (2001) points out that literature can be used as a model and subject matter for writing tasks. He also referred to literature as an ideal source for speaking skills by generating discussions about different elements of literary texts such as characters, plot and themes. Third, literature can improve cultural awareness. As Sell (2005, p.90) mentioned "teaching literature provides learners with a truly cultural competence, equipping them with culturally-apposite pragmatic and socio-psychological components around which to build effective identities which will enable their socialization in the target culture and enhance the effectiveness with which they participate in that culture". He also mentioned that literary text not only can make language learners familiar with English culture, but also by using famous literary text from other languages it can also increase awareness of different cultures. Fourth, literature increase interaction. Chiang (2007, p. 170) mentioned "Literary texts are often rich is multiple layers of meaning, and can be effectively mined for discussions. While literature has the potential to be a tool of great use in L2 classrooms, its potential can be best realized when readers are encouraged to develop personal responses to the reading from multiple aspects and to share them in discussions".

B. Benefits of Using Short Stories

Various advantages have also been proposed for the use of short stories in the language classes. Short story like other literary texts can raise cultural awareness, linguistic awareness, motivation, and etc. Short stories is claimed to improve all four skills. Murdoch (2002) indicates that "short stories can, if selected and exploited appropriately, provide quality text content which will greatly enhance ELT courses for learners at intermediate levels of proficiency" (p. 9). Lao and Krashen (2000) also conducted a survey in Hong Kong found that the group who read literary texts showed improvement in vocabulary and reading. According to Erkaya (2005) reading literary text can lead student to be critical thinker. He points out that when students read they interact with the text and interpret what they read and this analysis makes them to be more creative and critical. Young (1996) discussed two advantages of using short stories for raising critical thinking in students as the following: "because they are entertaining, students' pervasive apprehension is reduced, and they learn from the beginning that critical thinking is natural, familiar, and sometimes even fun. Second, the stories put issues of critical thinking in an easily remembered context" (p. 90). According to Erkaya (2005) short stories motivate students to continue reading so that they can solve the problem. And since it is interesting for students they would not easily get frustrated. Arigol (2001) as cited in Hismanoglu, (2005) listed the following advantages for pedagogical advantages of short stories over other literary texts:

- Short stories makes the students' reading task easier because it is simple and short
- Give learners a better view of other people and other cultures
- Requires more attention and analysis
- offers a fictional and interesting world

- helps students to be more creative and raise the critical thinking skills
- raise cultural awareness,
- reduce students anxiety and helps them feel more relax
- is good for multicultural contexts because of its universal language

C. Reading Comprehension

Effective reading is essential factor of success in learning another language. Reading is the most important instrument for academic settings (Anderson, 1994). Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) believe that the ability to read in a second language is the most important way for autonomous language learning. Alptekin (2006, p. 494) defined reading:

“as an interaction of the reader’s text-based and knowledge-based processes. In processing texts, readers combine literal comprehension, based on lower-level cognitive processes of reading such as lexical access and syntactic parsing, with inferential comprehension, based on higher-level cognitive processes such as the text base of comprehension (to understand what the text says) and the situation model of interpretation (to understand what it is about)”.

Traditionally as Chastain (1988) mentioned reading was viewed as a passive skills because readers do not produce anything; however readers are in constant interaction with reading passage and their background knowledge. Traditional approaches to reading deal with the meaning of words as isolated concepts and have nothing to do with the social dimension of reading.

The view towards teaching reading comprehension has dramatically changed in the past decades. Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor (2006) discussed the following significant views regarding teaching reading comprehension. In 1960’s where environmentalist ideas was dominated decoding skills were emphasized, and learners’ reading skills were only limited to making sense of printed words. With the emergence of Chomskyan theories which explain language learning on a cognitive basis, reading skills were not limited to the decoding skills. Reading comprehension research focused on reading as a thinking process where the reader reconstructs the intended meaning of the author. Readers are not treated as passive one, but they are cognitively engaged in processing the author’s intended meaning. However interactivist view not only pay attention to the role of cognition in comprehending a reading passage, but also believed that readers construct the meaning of the texts within a culture. So learners with different socio-cultural beliefs would interpret a text differently.

There is a general belief that L2 reading is related to L1 reading. Reading ability that is learned in L1 is transferable to L2 (Williams, 2006). Cummins (1991, as cited in Cubukcu, 2008) introduced the idea of “interdependence” in second language acquisition. He argued that if a threshold level is gained in L2 the learner can easily transfer his L1 reading ability to the new learning context. In fact he believes L2 learning ability is depended on L1 learning ability. However, as Williams (2006) mentioned the dependence of L2 reading on L1 reading can easily be rejected by referring to minority groups or immigrants who learned to read in their L2 for the first time. So, poor reading ability cannot be related to L1 bad reading habits. Researchers believe differences in reading comprehension are due to two important factors: L2 language knowledge and metacognitive awareness of reading strategies (Guo and Roehring, 2011). Many studies have shown the importance of L2 vocabulary knowledge in improving reading comprehension ability in foreign language learners (Qian, 1999; 2002). L2 syntactic awareness is also claimed to affect reading comprehension at two levels: low-level syntactic awareness and high-level syntactic awareness. Low-level syntactic awareness refers to the ability to understand the grammatical structures of language within sentences. High-level syntactic awareness refers to greater conscious awareness of language which encompasses two different abilities: (1) the ability to identify and formulate the rules of syntax and (2) the ability to control knowledge of syntactic rules (Layton et al., 1998). Studies on metacognition and reading comprehension reveal the strong relation between the use of metacognition and reading comprehension. In a study conducted by Sen (2009) in turkey revealed that the reading skills of the students who used metacognitive strategies are improved to a greater extent than those who did not used these strategies. Metacognition according to Sen (2009) refers to “awareness in the individual of his/her systematic thinking about his/her own learning process” (p. 2301). According to Bernhardt and Kamil (1995) metacognitive awareness is transferrable from L1 to L2 reading. As mentioned by Pressley et al. (1995) metacognitive strategies enable readers to pay attention to controlling, monitoring, and evaluating the reading process. Cubukco (2008) referred to different studies which demonstrated the use of metacognitive strategies in expert readers. In fact metacognitive strategies seem to be an essential factor in successful comprehension.

D. Literature and Reading

Reading is one of the most important skills for mastery of a foreign language. Some scholars believe that ability to read is the prerequisite for autonomous learning (Celce-Murcia et al. 1995). Most learners in EFL contexts have little or no opportunity to contact with native speakers, so reading literary text will give them the opportunity to have a better interaction with foreign culture and people. Besides literary texts are too amusing that keeps learners to continue reading and the more learners read the more input they receive. In fact literary texts can be used as a valid and authentic source for increasing the amount of comprehensible input students receive. According to Krashen (1982) students should be provided with enough comprehensible input which is also interesting so that reduces students’ anxiety. And since literature is rarely used for pedagogical purposes it can be a good authentic source for language learners. Sage (1987 as cited in Hismanoglu, 2005) called the use of short stories as a useful technique in language classes. He pointed

out that since short stories are short; it helps both teachers and students to easily cover it. Besides, since stories are about universal problem, it may relate to students' own situation, in this case students would definitely get more involved in the story and try to put more time and effort to comprehend it. In addition, as mentioned by Hismanoglu (2005) class discussions about the story will help students to think critically.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION

One of main objective of the textbooks in Iran according to Dahmardeh (2009) is to teach reading comprehension. Although Iranian students have to study English for about seven years before entering university they have lots of problem in comprehending reading passages. Based on the literature review, it is believed that incorporating literature could improve reading skills in the intermediate stages of language learning. Due to the facts above and the advantages of using short stories for improving reading ability the following research question has been conducted:

Can using short stories improve the Iranian EFL learners' reading ability?

IV. METHOD

A. Subjects

26 female, adult, Persian speaking university students, majoring in English at the Islamic Azad University, Babol Branch and Amol Branch participated in this study. These students were all studying English as a foreign language, their ages ranged between 19 to 24 years. There were two groups of students: Group A (experimental group), and group B (control group).

B. Instrument

An identical Pre-tests which consists of selected reading passage from different TOEFL books were given to both groups. Students of group A (the experimental group) were taught the book "Discovering Fiction" by Judith Kay and Rosemary Gelshenen. The book is a collection of simple short stories. The materials used for the control group were selected from different reading books, internet, magazine, etc. At the end of the semester both groups were given an identical Post-Tests which consists of five selected reading passages from different TOEFL books.

C. Procedure

A group of 26 students majoring in English at the Islamic Azad University Babol Branch and Amol Branch has been sampled for the purpose of this study. The students were then divided into two groups – the control group and the experimental group. Both the groups were administered an identical Pre-Test which showed a uniformity in the results with very little variation that shows the two groups are have similar reading ability. Both the groups were instructed by one of the researcher for a full semester in the reading courses designed for them. The materials used for the control group were selected from different reading books, internet, magazine, etc. and the experimental group was using short stories. At the end of the semester both groups were given an identical Post-Tests which consists of five selected reading passage from different TOEFL books.

D. Design

It should be noted that this study is a descriptive one. According to Best and Kahn (2006) argue that descriptive research seek to find answers to "analysis of past events or the already existing conditions" (p. 133). It describes and interprets what exist. Because the researchers had no control over what has already happened to the subjects of the present study an Ex-Post Facto design was needed.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

An independent t-test is run to compare the mean scores of the experimental group, and control group on the pretest of reading test in order to probe their reading ability prior to the administration of the treatment. The t-observed value is .097 (Table 1). This amount of t-value is lower than the critical value of 2.06 at 24 degrees of freedom.

TABLE 1:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST PRETEST OF READING COMPREHENSION BY GROUPS

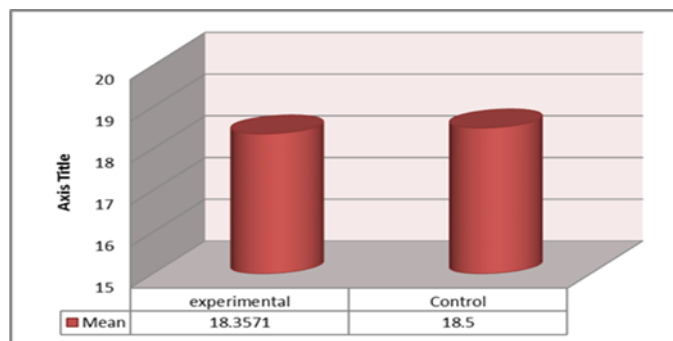
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Equal variances assumed	.060	.809	.097	24	.924	-.14286	1.47243	-3.18180	2.89609
Equal variances not assumed			.096	21.943	.924	-.14286	1.48992	-3.23323	2.94752

Based on these results it can be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups' on the pretest of reading comprehension. Thus it can be concluded that the two groups enjoyed the same levels of reading ability before the administration of the treatment. Table 2 displays the mean scores for the experimental ($M = 18.370$) and control ($M = 18.50$) groups on the pretest of reading.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PRETEST OF READING

Reading	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	14	18.3571	3.47756	.92942
Control	12	18.5000	4.03395	1.16450

Graph 1 displays the mean scores of the two groups on the pretest of reading.



Graph 1: Pretest of Reading by Groups

The experimental and control groups enjoy homogenous variances on the pretest of reading. As displayed in Table 1, the probability associated with the Levene's F of .06 is .80. Since the probability is higher than the significance level of .05, it can be concluded that the experimental and control groups enjoy homogenous variances. That is why the first row of Table 1; "Equal variances assumed" is reported.

In order to test the research question that whether using short stories can enrich Iranian EFL learners' reading ability an independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the two groups on the posttest.

In order to probe the effect of short stories on the improvement of the reading ability of the students an independent t-test is run to compare the mean scores of the two groups on the posttest of reading. The t-observed value is 1.08 (Table 3). This amount of t-value is lower than the critical value of 2.06 at 23 degrees of freedom.

TABLE 3:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST POSTTEST OF READING COMPREHENSION BY GROUPS

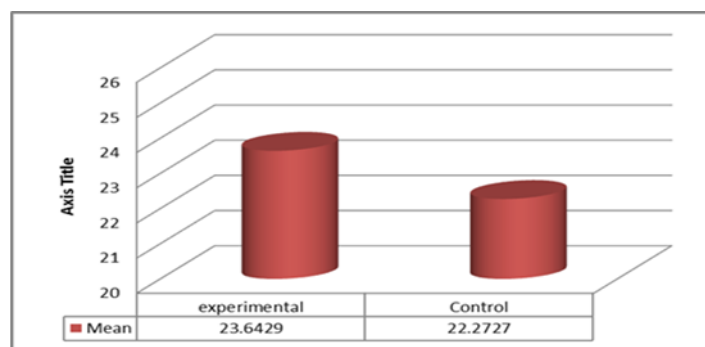
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.613	.217	1.086	23	.289	1.37013	1.26130	-1.23907	3.97933
Equal variances not assumed			1.122	22.996	.273	1.37013	1.22100	-1.15573	3.89599

Based on these results it can be concluded that there is not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups' on the posttest of reading comprehension. Thus the null-hypothesis as using short stories cannot enrich Iranian EFL learners' reading ability is supported. Table 4 displays the mean scores for the experimental ($M = 23.64$) and control ($M = 22.27$) groups on the pretest of reading.

TABLE 4:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS POSTTEST OF READING

Reading	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	14	23.6429	3.45537	.92349
Control	11	22.2727	2.64919	.79876

Graph 2 displays the mean scores of the two groups on the posttest of reading.



Graph 2: Posttest of Reading by Groups

The experimental and control groups enjoy homogenous variances on the posttest of reading. As displayed in Table 3, the probability associated with the Levene's F of 1.61 is .23. Since the probability is higher than the significance level of .05, it can be concluded that the experimental and control groups enjoy homogenous variances. That is why the first row of Table 3; "Equal variances assumed" is reported.

VI. CONCLUSION AND LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

There is a long debate on the use of literature in language classes. Although many scholars advocate use of literature in foreign language teaching, incorporating literary texts in language classes is not without problem. For instance Thiongo (1986, as cited in Sell 2005) mentioned that by using famous English literary text and exposing learners to the English culture, we are imposing a kind of "cultural imperialism" toward our learners. Hismanoglu (2005) also mentioned the following problems which language teachers faced in teaching literature:

"First, there are very few pedagogically-designed appropriate materials that can be used by language teachers in a language classroom. Second, there is a lack of preparation in the area of literature teaching in TESL/TEFL programs. Third, there is the absence of clear-cut objectives defining the role of literature in ESL /EFL. Many instructors try to include literature in their classroom, but lack the background and training in that field" (p.65).

This study found that all respondents showed improvement after the reading course. However the result of the present study shows that the control group and experimental group did not show a significant difference in their posttest, that is, the experimental and control groups enjoy homogenous variances. As it is obvious different factors can affect learners' reading ability. Literary texts as Sell (2005) mentioned usually require a greater amount of inferencing than other texts. As Hajimeibodi (2008) mentioned comprehending a text is largely influenced by students' background knowledge. For comprehending a text learners should be able to understand the meaning of sentence both at the surface level and discourse level. So learners' should be familiar with different reading strategies. As Cubukcu, (2008) mentioned poor readers are less aware of effective strategies. For successful comprehending the reader should use many strategies to recreate the author's intended meaning. Other factors such as student's language proficiency, interest, sex, age, etc is also important in comprehending a text (Hismanoglu, 2005)

The results of the research found no satisfactory reasons for teaching literature in Iranian context. However since the size of the sample was small, the results cannot be generalized to Iranian context. The research was conducted only in two university classes. Therefore, the generalizability of the results is also limited by the small scale of the study. Other variables such as the cultural and educational background of the students can affect the findings of this study. Further research is recommended to validate the findings of the current study.

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Chinese and American Refusal Strategy: A Cross-cultural Approach

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Abstract—This study investigated both Chinese and American refusal speech act from the perspectives of cross-cultural communication using a modified version of the discourse completion test (DCT) developed by Beebe et al. (1990). 60 US college students and teachers and 60 Chinese college students and teachers are interviewed. The findings indicate that there are more similarities than differences among the Chinese and Americans in making refusals. Both groups preferred to use indirect refusal strategies rather than direct ones and preferred the strategies of reason, statement of alternative and regret. However, the American groups utilized a greater proportion of direct strategies than did the Chinese subjects on average. The differences can be attributed to cultural differences between Chinese and American Culture.

Index Terms—refusal, refusal strategy, speech act, cultural difference

I. INTRODUCTION

In cross-cultural communication, differences in language use have been noted to be a factor for communication breakdown or pragmatic failure. The differences can be attributed to the ways in which people of a speech community customarily associate forms with meanings. This association could vary across languages and is related to the socio-cultural beliefs and values of the speech community. The culture-specificity of language is particularly evident in speech acts.

The speech act of refusing in a foreign language is a complex task because it requires the acquisition of the socio-cultural values of the foreign language culture. Refusal is culture-specific, so social-cultural factors such as social distance and power between participants are among the most important factors, yet their relative importance can interact with other situational factors and might be subject to cultural variation (Blum-Kulka, S., House, and G. Kasper, 1989). In essence, meaning shifts from culture to culture, therefore, the intended meaning of refusing should be interpreted concerning cultural differences.

There are great cultural differences between Chinese and American Cultures. According to the researches of Hofstede (1984) and Scollon (2000), China is considered to be a country with a collectivistic culture and America an individualistic culture. Cultural differences between China and America may be reflected in various speech acts. How speakers from countries with different cultures refuse in casual conversations and how politeness is constrained by culture aroused the interest of the present study.

Refusals were not as much studied but are being paid increasing attention to: refusals (Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Bardovi-Hartford, 1990; Liao and Breshnahan, 1996; Blum-Kulka and Olshtain 1984; Gass 1999; Takahashi and Beebe 1987; Nelson and Cason 2002). Most Cross-cultural studies of the speech act of refusing have investigated between varieties of English or English and other languages like Japanese, Arabic, Spanish Germany and so forth. Fewer studies on refusals between Chinese and English have appeared in the literature (Wang 2001; Yao Jun 2003; Xu et al, 2003; Chen, H.J., 1996).

Some studies on refusals were conducted both abroad and home. A major study (Beebe et al. 1990) compared the refusal given by native speakers of Japanese and native speakers of English. The findings of Beebe et al. (1990) reveal the interaction of status with the directness of the refusals. Americans usually employed a form of indirect communication in refusing all situations. Japanese, however, tended to use more direct strategies when addressing a lower status person and more indirect strategies when refusing persons of higher status.

Liao and Breshnahan (1996) compared American English and Mandarin Chinese refusal strategies. The findings are: both Taiwanese and Americans utter the politeness markers of apology in the similar frequency. Americans are less likely to refuse a friend, Chinese a family member. They proposed a politeness hypothesis of 'marginally touching the point'.

Wang Aihua (2001) made a contrastive sociopragmatic analysis of different formulaic expressions in refusal and different strategies employed by the Chinese and the Americans in interpersonal communications. Her study focuses on the structural analysis of refusal mode and its discourse realization patterns in terms of words, phrases and sentence patterns in interpersonal communications. Her findings indicate that Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness has its universality. The three social factors (i.e. social status, social distance and ranking of imposition) really affect the weight of an FTA, but affect is also important. In refusing, being indirect is really related to being politeness, but not all

indirect utterances are polite.

II. PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTION

This study attempts to shed light for cross-cultural communication and may help alleviate uneasiness and barriers in interpersonal interactions between people of different culture. The research questions are: Does the frequency of direct and indirect strategy use differ between Chinese and North Americans? Do different initiating acts as well as other social factors like status and social distance of the interlocutors affect Chinese and North Americans' refusal strategies? What implications do these differences have in cross-cultural communication?

III. METHODOLOGY

This is an empirical study on Chinese and English refusal strategies. Basically, the present study adopts both qualitative and quantitative methods. In describing the speech act of refusing here, we are assuming that there are two participants—one is the speaker, the other is the hearer. The Speaker (S) is referred to as the refuser and the Hearer (H) the refusee.

A. Subjects

Altogether, 120 subjects participated in this research. They consisted of 60 Chinese college students and teachers from Zhengzhou Aeronautical Industry Management and 30 Americans college students from undergraduate students at Iowa State University and 30 English teachers from America working in China. The 60 Chinese students and teachers are all non-English majors because they are not much influenced by the western culture. Regarding the gender, 78 subjects out of 120 are male and 42 female. Chinese subjects consist of 38 male and 22 female. American subjects consist of 40 male and 20 female. Their ages range from 20 to 65. To a certain extent, the speech act from the campus reflects the speech act of the whole society.

B. The Instrument

This study is based on analyzing questionnaire made between the American and the Chinese. A modified version of Discourse Completion Test (DCT) employed by Beebe et al. (1990) was used. The present modified version of DCT consists of eight situations. The eight situations have been used and tested in an unpublished Doctor dissertation by Hongyin Julie Chen (1996), two published papers by Wang Aihua in *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* (2001). Each situation was followed by a space for the subjects to fill in the particular refusal. Intended to be cross-culturally and cross-linguistically common, the situations in the DCT (e.g. borrowing a car, receiving and invitation, etc.) are situations likely to happen to both Chinese and American college students. Social variables like relative power, social distance and ranking of imposition are taken into consideration. The eight situations for study involve obvious status relationship and social distance between the interlocutors (see Table 1).

TABLE 1:
CONTENTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Situations	Social Distance	Social Power*
S1 Colleague requests to borrow a car	Neutral	Equal
S2 Supervisor requests to work overtime	Neutral	Higher
S3 Friend invites to dinner	Near	Equal
S4 Employee invites to dinner	Neutral	Lower
S5 Friend offers to clean up coffee spilt	Near	Equal
S6 Friend's mother offers lunch	Neutral	Equal
S7 Secretary offers to type	Neutral	Lower
S8 Spouse suggests keeping reminders	Nearer	Equal

* Social power refers to the refusee's status as compared with the refuser's.

The questionnaire consists of two parts: personal information and eight situations. The situations consist of two requests, two invitations, three offers and one suggestion. The factors of social distance, power gap and ranking of imposition are taken into consideration. The characters involved in the situations of the DCT are friends, colleagues, acquaintances (friend's mother) and intimates (husband and wife). Social distance between intimates like husband and wife is nearer and they share the same power. As for colleagues and acquaintances, their social distance is neutral and they are equal in power. Good friends would be classified as near because of the closeness of their relationship, but they are equal when they are together.

The characters in the questionnaire were mainly described as acquaintances. In order to compare preference patterns by the two groups, the ratio direct to indirect strategies employed by each group with lower, equal, or higher status interlocutor item types was calculated. A t-test was conducted in SPSS 10.0 in order to determine whether observed differences in average frequency of strategies employed by each group were statistically significant.

C. Data Collection

To ensure the reliability and validity of the data, we asked 10 Chinese students at Zhengzhou Institute of

Aeronautical Industry Management to answer the questionnaire so as to see the appropriateness of these situations. We made some small modification. Then, we translated it into English and sent it our Paul, an English teacher from America, make sure that each situation is appropriate and feasible and the language has no mistakes. Finally, we did the questionnaire both in Zhengzhou Institute of Aeronautical Industry Management of China and Kansas State University of America.

D. Data Analysis

After the DCT questionnaires had been collected, the responses on the DCT were categorized. In order to arrive at a set of strategies, we first divide the utterances into semantic units; each of which is a smallest, complete unit of semantic information that could stand alone and be understood by it self. The semantic units in a response were then categorized using the widely used classification system developed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990) (see Appendix). And the entire response could be characterized by a semantic formula, which is a combination of semantic units. For example, the situation in which one's supervisor asks to work overtime on Saturdays, in refusing, the respondent may give an answer. (see [1]) This response can be divided into three units, each of which falls into a corresponding semantic category in the taxonomy. (as shown in the brackets):

- [1] (i) I'm sorry, Sir. (regret)
 (ii) But I need a day off. (reason)
 (iii) So I'm afraid I can't work on Saturdays. (direct refusal)

Descriptive statistics were calculated in order to determine measures of central tendency and dispersion for (1) full-test refusal patterns by Chinese and American groups, including total strategies used, strategies per item, total direct strategies, total indirect strategies, and proportion of direct versus indirect; (2) distribution of refusal strategies in response to the initiating act in percentage.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results are analyzed according to frequency of strategy use, the distribution of refusal strategies and effect of interlocutor status and social distance between interlocutors.

A. Frequency of Strategies Used

To answer the first research question: Does the frequency of direct and indirect strategy use differ? The means of total direct strategies and the means of the total indirect strategies for each of the Chinese and American groups are compared.

TABLE 2:
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TOTAL DIRECT AND INDIRECT REFUSAL STRATEGY USE BY CHINESE AND AMERICANS

Subj.	Statistic	Total	Per item	Direct	Indirect
Full (N=120)	Mean	17.52	2.19	2.79	14.73
	SD	3.09	0.71	0.91	6.75
USA (N=60)	Mean	17.72	2.22	3.25	14.47
	SD	3.45	0.71	0.95	6.31
China (N=60)	Mean	17.32	2.17	2.33	14.98
	SD	2.69	0.70	0.70	6.88

On average, the American group utilized slightly more refusal strategies (2.21 strategies per item) than did the Chinese group (2.16 strategies per item). In order to test whether the observed difference was statistically significant, SPSS 10.0 was used. This difference was found to not be statistically significant on the basis of a t-test for mean differences between Chinese and American groups ($p=0.48>0.05$). However, individuals within each of the two groups were variable in the number of strategies they utilized in refusing. Individuals in the American group ranged from an average of 1.25~3.25 strategies per refusal, while individuals in the Chinese group ranged from an average of 1.38~.00 strategies per refusal. On average, both the Chinese and American groups utilized more indirect refusal strategies than direct refusal strategies, as reflected in Table 2. However, the Chinese group was observed to utilize a greater proportion of indirect versus direct strategies than did the American group. The Chinese group utilized 6.42 times as many indirect (96 percent of the total strategies) versus direct refusal strategies, while the American group utilized 4.45 times as many indirect (91 percent of the total strategies) versus direct refusal strategies. In addition, we observed that the Chinese subjects used less direct strategies. A typical example of a Chinese refusal that consists of both direct and indirect strategies is illustrated in [2].

[2] 不用了, (direct refusal) // 我家地毯早就该清洗了, (reason) // 不必在意, (let the interlocutor off the hook) // 我时间我自己清理. (statement of alternative)

A typical example of a refusal in the same situation by an American using direct and indirect strategies is illustrated in [3].

[3] No, please. (direct refusal) // I have some special cleaning liquid I will use. (reason) I would prefer to take care of it, (statement of alternative) // thank you. (consideration of interlocutor's feelings) // Please don't worry. (let the interlocutor off the hook) // it will be just fine. (let the interlocutor off the hook)

B. Distribution of Refusal Strategies in Response to the Initiating Act in Percentage

1. Refusal to requests

Requests are threats in that they impose on the freedom of action the hearer. The hearer has to make a choice, either to accept or refuse. In either case, some sort of challenge to face is involved (Richards, 1982, p.66).

TABLE 3:
DISTRIBUTION OF REFUSAL STRATEGIES IN RESPONSE TO REQUESTS IN %

Item	Country	Total Strategies	Mean strategies	Direct strategies	Indirect strategies					
					Reason	Alternative	Regret	Set Condition	Principle	Others
1	China	136	2.27	5.00	108.0	25.00	55.0	1.67		33.33
	USA	134	2.23	56.67	66.67	33.33	46.67	1.67	3.33	15.00
2	China	108	1.80	10.00	70.00	25.00	11.67	8.33	5.00	40.00
	USA	128	2.10	33.33	60.0	23.33	26.67	28.33	18.33	21.67

Table 3 shows that in declining requests, one contrasting difference is the use of direct strategies between the Chinese and American groups. In the first situation, the total strategies used by the two groups are almost the same and is not statistically significant ($p=0.80>0.05$) (refer to Table 8): Both groups tend to use indirect strategies instead of direct ones. Americans (56.67%) employed 11 times as many direct strategies as that used by the Chinese (5%); Many Americans subjects do not hesitate to show their unhappiness. When they feel justified in their behavior, many of them are a little critical about the colleague's dependence on using the car and tend to state their principle. Chinese subjects find it hard to refuse the colleague straightforward. As a result, few employed direct refusal strategy and the majority of the subjects resort to other indirect strategies. But not all the indirect utterances are polite. Example [5] is an example, the speaker doesn't criticize the colleague, but what he said sounded very ironic and impolite.

[4] Sorry, (regret) // I cannot lend you my car again. (direct refusal) // I normally do not lend my car to anyone (statement of principle) // and I feel your company should rent a car for you. (statement of alternative)

[5] 不好意思, (regret) // 哥们儿, 刚好被别人借走了。(reason) // 那家伙真烦, (criticism) // 老来借。(reason)

The second situation involves the refusal of a person of higher status than the requestee. Americans subjects still use much more direct refusal strategy than the Chinese. But compared with the first situation, Americans use less of direct strategy (refer to Table 3). However, the total strategies used show some differences and the difference is statistically significant ($p=0.01<0.05$) (refer to Table 8). 60 Chinese produced 108 semantic formulas while 60 Americans produced 128, thus the mean strategies are 1.8 and 2.1 for Chinese and Americans respectively. In refusing a high-status, Chinese subjects employed much more statement of alternative than American subjects. But in terms of the strategy of regret, Chinese (11.67%) use much less than Americans (26.67%). For example:

[6] 老师, 我周六参加英语辅导班, (reason) // 平时多干点行不行? (statement of Alternative)

[7] Sorry, (regret) // I'd rather not work on Saturdays, (direct refusal) // but I'm willing to work more hours during the week. (statement of Alternative)

2. Refusal to Invitations

Generally speaking, the acceptance of the invitation definitely means the cost of time and energy to the invitee and also the invitee is put into an indebted situation hereafter. So responses to an invitation mainly depend on the relationship between people.

TABLE 4:
DISTRIBUTION OF REFUSAL STRATEGIES IN RESPONSE TO INVITATIONS IN %

Item	Country	Total Strategies	Mean strategies	Direct strategies	Indirect strategies					
					Reason	Alternative	Consideration of Feelings	Regret	Avoidance	Others
3	China	135	2.25	14	93.33	63.33	10.0	23.33	1.67	10.0
	USA	127	2.12	17	76.67	30.0	23.33	43.33		10.0
4	China	151	2.52	16	103.0	46.67	33.33	18.33	16.67	6.67
	USA	131	2.18	17	80.0	21.67	66.67	11.67		10.0

Table 4 shows that in declining invitations both Chinese and American subjects favor indirect strategies. Different from declining requests, direct strategies used by the two groups in situations 3 and 4 are almost the same, which is a great increase for the Chinese group compared with that in requests. This shows that it's not so hard for the Chinese to refuse an invitation. Chinese subjects seldom provide a direct 'no' to the person who makes the invitation, regardless of the social status of the individual. Common expressions are like "不用了", "算了". The majority of Chinese use these expressions much less but favor statement of alternative (63.33%). The fact that Chinese people don't like to use the expression of regret when declining an invitation doesn't mean that they are not polite, simply because the Chinese "对不起" is not as applicable to different contexts as its English equivalents such as "I'm sorry" and "excuse me".

Situation Four involves refusing a person with a lower status. The total strategy used by Chinese is 151 and mean strategy 2.52. Americans produced 131 and mean strategy 2.18, which is a little less than the Chinese. The difference in the number of strategy used by the two groups is statistically significant ($p=0.01<0.05$) (refer to Table 8). When refusing a lower status employee, Americans used more thanks and positive opinions (66.66%) but less regret than declining good friends who are supposed to share the same social status. For example:

[8] Thank you for the invitation, (consideration of interlocutor's feelings) // but I have plans. (reason)

[9] 应该是我登门拜访你们, (statement of alternative) // 但近来较忙, (reason) // 改天大家一起坐坐。 (statement of alternative)

One strategy that some Americans employed but didn't exist in the Chinese questionnaires is the statement of principle. It sounds so blunt and should be hard refusals in Chinese. For example:

[10] Thank you, (consideration of interlocutor's feelings) // but I must decline your dinner invitation. (direct refusal) // This is my policy to avoid any possible perception of staff favoritism. (statement of principle)

It is obvious that Americans give explicit reasons no matter refusing a person of equal status or higher-status. Chinese, however, tend to give specific reasons when refusing a high-status but implicitly when refusing a person of lower status.

3. Refusal to Offers

The quality of offers is very similar to that of invitations. Both speech acts entail the cost and benefit of the speaker and the hearer.

TABLE 5:
DISTRIBUTION OF REFUSAL STRATEGIES IN RESPONSE TO OFFERS IN %

Item	Country	Total Strategies	Mean strategies	Direct strategies	Indirect strategies					
					Reason	Alternative	Consideration of Feelings	Avoidance	Off Hook	Others
5	China	149	2.48	41.67	50.0	66.67	13.33	21.67	53.33	1.67
	USA	167	2.78	36.67	55.0	66.67		3.33	100	16.67
6	China	130	2.17	33.33	120.0	8.33	41.67			13.33
	USA	137	2.28	45.0	88.33	3.33	83.33			8.33
7	China	128	2.13	43.33	60.0	66.67	36.67		1.67	5.0
	USA	137	2.28	36.67	43.33	48.33	70.0	3.33	18.33	8.33

Table 5 shows that Chinese and American subjects use exactly the same amount of direct strategies when putting the direct strategies in situations 5, 6 and 7 together.

Significant differences were found in the use of indirect strategies. In situation 5, Chinese used reason, alternative and avoidance (including topic switch and joke) more than Americans. However, the latter used consideration of the interlocutor's feelings and let the interlocutor off the hook more frequently. The indirect strategies frequently used by the two groups are let the interlocutor off the hook, followed by statement of alternative, reason and avoidance (including topic switch and joke).

[11] 没事, (let the interlocutor off the hook) // 我正准备把地毯送干洗店。 (reason) // 继续喝, 别破坏了咱们的兴致。 (reason)

[12] No, that's okay, old carpet anyway. Here, get another cup of coffee. I'll clean it up. No problem.

It is also interesting that 13 Chinese (21.67%) but only one American use joke to minimize an FTA of refusing.

[13] 没事儿, 让地毯也喝点儿。

[14] I'll send you the bill, ha ha.

In situation 6, Chinese group used more reason while the American group expressed more thanks. The content of the reasons provided by the two groups are of great difference. 34 (56.67%) Americans gave the reasons that they were "not hungry", while only one Chinese say so. "I'm not hungry". This reminds us of the directness of the American people.

[15] 不用啦, (direct refusal) // 我走啦, (statement of alternative) // 家里已经做好了。 (reason)

It seems that more than half Chinese subjects seldom uttered "谢谢" "您太客气了", especially among close friends. Americans express their thanks or gratitude whenever it is necessary no matter to the close friends or intimates. But Chinese utters thanks mostly to people who are not so familiar with or a person of higher status.

Situation 7 involves refusing a person of a lower status. The strategies used by both groups are much similar. Americans and Chinese subjects both avoided using a terse "no" hoping to maintain good relationships with employees. Indirect strategies take priority over the direct ones in order to protect the secretary's face and dignity. Chinese group yielded more alternatives (66.67%) and reasons (60%) than Americans did, while the American group employed more consideration of the interlocutor's feelings (70%) and let the interlocutor off the hook (18.33) than the Chinese did. It seems in America and Canada, the relationships between status un-equals are not as hierarchical as in China. The four examples above can show this clearly. American subjects show more concern for the secretary's thoughtfulness. The frequently used strategy—reason falls behind the statement of alternative. This is the only exception in the eight Situations. When refusing an employee for the offer, the person of higher status employed fewer reasons. It might be because of the power gap and the familiarity between them. Typing is should be one of a secretary's responsibilities. So offering to do the typing is very natural but refusing is unnatural. So a sound reason is still necessary. Although most of the subjects presented a reason, the majorities did not state the real reason that the report was important. Otherwise, it will make the secretary feel distrusted and inferior. For example:

[16] 还是我自己来吧, (statement of alternative) // 有别的任务够你忙的。 (consideration of interlocutor's feelings)

[17] No, (direct refusal) // thank you. (consideration of interlocutor's feelings) // I might want to change it as I type it. (reason)

4. Refusal to a suggestion.

TABLE 6:
DISTRIBUTION OF REFUSAL STRATEGIES IN RESPONSE TO SUGGESTIONS IN %

Item	Country	Total Strategies	Mean strategies	Direct strategies	Indirect strategies					
					Reason	Alternative	Avoidance	Criticism	Acceptance as Refusal	Others
8	China	106	1.77	60.0	33.33	25.0	20.0	13.33	15.0	20.0
	USA	102	1.70	60	43.33	15.0	20.0	5.0	16.67	10.0

In Situation 8, the total semantic formulas by the both groups are less than all the previous 7 situations. The Chinese group produced 106, with mean strategies being 1.77. The Americans yielded 102 semantic formulas, with mean strategies being 1.7. It's obvious that most subjects use only one semantic formula to refuse her partner. Beebe et al. (1990) claimed that natural examples of American refusals overheard between intimates are shorter than those to acquaintances. Her findings are testified in our data.

One distinct feature of the strategies used in this situation is that direct strategies take priority over the response of noncompliance for both groups. Both Chinese (50%) and Americans (60%) refused the suggestion explicitly. Most subjects think there is no need to be polite to the spouse. So only six (10%) subjects in each group utilized the strategy of consideration of the interlocutor's feeling. Reason ranked second and alternative third for Chinese (see [19]). For Americans, reason was also the second choice but they use a little more than Chinese. Avoidance ranked fourth for Chinese (20%) and Americans third (20%). Chinese liked to use jokes to avoid direct refusal, while Americans preferred hedging to avoid disagreement and a fruitless debate. Acceptance that functions as refusals is another strategy used in comparatively high frequency. The desire to agree or appear to agree with H leads also to pretending to agree, 'Token' agreement, such as, 'Yes, but...' allow S to go in twisting utterances so as to appear to agree to hide disagreement. In effect, rather than a 'No', the S may soften the disagreement. For example:

[18] I've tried that before and it doesn't work.

[19] 我不想这么做, (direct refusal) // 亲爱的。我知道你爱我, (consideration of interlocutor's feelings) // 你当我的记事本好了。 (Joke)

There are 8 (13.33%) Chinese and 3 (5%) Americans returned criticism to the spouse's kindness, because they didn't like people to tell them what to do, especially the loved ones. For example:

[20] 你是不是以为我是老太太啊, 我知道该怎么做。

[21] I don't tell you how to organize yourself... don't tell me.

This kind of strategy seldom appears in the previous situations. Direct strategies were more frequently used among intimate relationships. From the number of criticism used by the Chinese subjects, it seems that Chinese husband and wife respect each other less than their American counterparts. Most Chinese couples seem more direct and rude to each other. As a matter of fact, a careful examination of the data reveals that instead of a linear correlation, the variable of social distance correlates to refusal strategy choice in a different pattern, which is referred to by Wolfson (1989) as "Bulge Theory". This finding proves applicable in this study. We can come to a conclusion that directness tends to rise with increase in familiarity, as well as with the transition from the public to the private.

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings from this study indicate many more similarities than differences among the Chinese and North Americans subjects in making refusals. Both groups prefer to use indirect refusal strategies rather than direct ones. Generally speaking, Americans utilize more direct strategies than Chinese do, but not in all situations. When refusing requests, Americans utilize much more direct strategies. However, when declining invitations and offers Chinese use slightly more direct refusal strategies than Americans did in order to minimize the cost of the interlocutor. Both groups show more similarities when refusing the spouse's suggestions.

We also noted that both groups used reason more than any other strategies. On average, Chinese used more reason and Statement of alternative while Americans employed more regret and consideration of interlocutor's feelings. Although both groups favored reason, the range of content of American speakers' reasons was broader and often more direct and sound unacceptable, which agrees with Bardovi-Hartford's (1991) conclusion. (see [13] & [14]). Chinese subjects were more concerned about being indirect, preserving face, and avoiding embarrassment. Most of the respondents softened their refusal with, for example, statements of regret, or consideration of the interlocutor's feelings. Such softeners are expected in face-threatening acts to 'save' the face if the person who requests or invitations (Beebe et al. 1990).

The result proves that different contexts, relative social distance and power in both Western and Chinese societies affect the choice of refusal strategies. Both groups found it hard to refuse friends, colleagues and acquaintances but not intimates. When the social distance is near, people tend to speak directly, otherwise they will express their ideas and opinions in a round about way. Chinese people found it hard to refuse a person with a higher status and tend to be economical in strategy use. When refusing a person of equal or lower status, Chinese usually would employ comparatively more strategies. Americans, however, did not show great contrast as the Chinese. We also got the impression that Americans are very sensitive to their personal rights. It is found from the second situation, 30 of them

(50%) mentioned compensate of money and time for being asked to work overtime on Saturdays by the supervisor.

Chinese people are sensitive to the relative age and status. This is not only reflected from the use of strategies but also from the use of address terms. In Liao (1994a), it is indicated that when Chinese people are speaking to a person of high status, they may use the address form again and again to replace the second person pronoun 'you'. In this study, in Situation 2, there is only one (1.67%) American subject used the address form "Sir", by contrast, 14 (23.33%) Chinese utter the address form of "老总" or "老板", before they utter the reason or apologize. In Situation 7, the friend's mother was referred to as "阿姨" by the Chinese group. Chinese group. One third of them used it to show respect to the mother. There is one person in the American group called the mother as "Mrs X".

Language is the carrier of culture and culture reflects itself from language. These similarities and differences in refusal strategies are the manifestation of cultural differences between Chinese and Western Culture. The information from the DCT provides a "window on human interaction" (Gass and Houck, 1999, p.1) and may reflect tendencies in Chinese and North American social norms.

VI. CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATION AND RECOMMENDATION

These findings highlight the complexities of social interactions, politeness, and face. The similarities of the use of refusal strategies show that people from different cultures share similar views concerning politeness. The differences reveal various politeness stresses. In cross-cultural communication, confusion may arise when different styles of refusal are used as a result of different politeness emphases. To assign a positive value to one strategy or one group and a negative value to the other strategy or group is potentially an obstruction to successful intercultural communication. Americans tend to speak directly. It is the influence of western culture. Being indirect or "beating around the bush" is Chinese culture-specific and language-specific, we can't say will is right or wrong but would understand when we are familiar with each other's language and Culture.

This study investigates Chinese and North Americans' refusal strategies by asking interviewees to respond orally to hypothetical situations. There are some limitations in this study that will be significant to the future study. **First**, All the participants in this study are from the Universities or colleges. The way they make refusals may be different from the career people or farmers. Therefore, we cannot assume that the findings can be generalized and be applied to all walks of people. **Secondly**, Although this methodology produced the necessary comparable data, what people believe they would say in a given situation may be different from what they would say if the situation arose in daily interaction. For example, in China, it is rare that a successful performance of inviting is realized in a single utterance. It more often than not takes several talk exchanges. This kind of ritual refusals that occur so frequently in Chinese invitations cannot be observed. The written form also limited the amount of data collected due to time or unwillingness to fill in the questionnaire in about 25 minutes. **Thirdly**, only eight situations are analyzed and many have been left untouched. Among the eight situations, only one high-status person is refused. So whether the findings here can be applied to other situations remain indefinite and must be confirmed or corrected by future research.

Recommendations for Further Studies

The study leaves much space for follow-up research. Further research is needed to find out how generalizable the findings are and investigate other refusal strategies. In order to do so, choosing one kind of speech act and involving more different status and social variables may achieve satisfactory results. A study on natural speech will be more convincing, because a quantitative study of spoken refusals in completely natural situations will approach to the truth. Third, analysis of ritual refusal in invitations and offers will attract more attention because ritual refusal is Chinese-culture specific.

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE IN ENGLISH

A Survey of Ways of Refusing

Dear Sir or Madam:

This questionnaire is for an MA thesis. It is for a survey of ways of English refusing. It would be appreciated if you would read each situation carefully and fill in the blanks with what in your opinion would be most appropriate **refusal responses**. Your answers are not judged as to be true or false, right or wrong. You are expected to write out the statements that reflect your real ideas or opinions. **Thanks!**

Your age _____ Gender _____ Nationality _____

Your first language _____ Level of education completed _____ Major _____

1. At noon, a colleague who is careless comes to borrow your car for his company. He has borrowed your car twice before. You don't want him to borrow it again. What would you say?

2. Your supervisor asks you to work overtime in the Lab on Saturdays from now on, but Saturday is your day off. What would you say?

3. A good friend invites you to dinner on the weekend, but you can't stand his/her wife/husband. What would you say?

4. You are the manager of a company. As the New Year draws near, a new employee, younger than you, invites you

to dinner at his home. What would you say?

5. Your good friend is at your house for coffee. He accidentally spills a whole cup of coffee on your carpet and makes a mess of it. He insists on cleaning it up for you, but you don't want him/her to. What would you say?

6. You're watching TV at your friend's home. Your friend's mother offers you lunch. What would you say?

7. You are typing an important report. Your secretary offers to do the typing for you. What would you say?

8. Knowing that you tend to be forgetful, your husband/wife kindly suggests "Maybe you can write yourself little notes to remind you." But that's just not your way of doing things. What would you say?

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE IN CHINESE

“拒绝”言语行为的问卷调查

同志们：

你们好！在日常交往中，我们每个人都有不得不拒绝别人请求或邀请的时候。此问卷是为研究中国人“拒绝”言语行为而设计的。请您认真阅读每一个情景，然后在空白处填上您认为**最合适**的拒绝的话语（长短不限）。由于每个人的情况不同，对下列问题的回答也不尽相同，您的答案不存在正确或错误之分，请您尽可能地反映出自己的真实想法和做法！谢谢您的合作！

您的年龄： 性别： 学历： 专业：

1. 一天中午，一位粗心大意的同事过来说借你的车，又是公事，他这是第三次借你的车了，害怕他以后再借。

你说：_____。

2. 你的老板希望你从现在开始每周六到实验室加班，但是周六是你的休息时间。

你说：_____。

3. 一位好朋友邀请你到他 / 她家吃晚饭，但是你受不了他 / 她的妻子 / 丈夫。

你说：_____。

4. 你是公司的经理，新年就要到了，一天一位比你年轻的新员工邀请你到他家吃饭。

你说：_____。

5. 你和一位好朋友在你家喝咖啡，他 / 她不小心把一杯咖啡全洒在了地毯上，搞得很脏，所以他 / 她坚持要打扫一下。

你说：_____。

6. 你在朋友家看电视，朋友的妈妈让你在他家吃晚饭。

你说：_____。

7. 你正坐在电脑前打一份非常重要报告，你的秘书说帮你打。

你说：_____。

8. 你的丈夫 / 妻子知道你爱忘事，善意地给你建议说“也许你可以做个记录，以便提醒自己。”但你不喜欢这种方法。

你说：_____。

APPENDIX C: THE TAXONOMY OF BEEBE AT AL.

I. Direct

A. Performative (e.g., "I refuse")

B. Nonperformative statement

1. "No"

2. Negative willingness/ability ("I can't". "I won't". "I don't think so")

II. Indirect

A. Statement of regret (e.g., "I'm sorry..."; "I feel terrible...")

B. Wish (e.g., "I wish I could help you...")

C. Excuse, reason, explanation (e.g., "My children will be home that night."; "I have a headache.")

D. Statement of alternative

1. I can do X instead of Y (e.g., "I'd rather..." "I'd prefer...")

2. Why don't do X instead of Y (e.g., "Why don't you ask someone else?")

E. Set condition for future or past acceptance (e.g., "If you had asked me earlier, I would have ...")

F. Promise of future acceptance (e.g., "I'll do it next time"; "I promise I'll ..."; or "Next time I'll ...")

G. Statement of principle (e.g., "I never do business with friends.")

H. Statement of philosophy (e.g., "One can't be too careful.")

I. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor

1. Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester (e.g., "I won't be any fun tonight" to refuse an invitation)

2. Guilt trip (e.g., waitress to customers who want to sit a while: "I can't make a living off people who just order coffee.")
3. Criticize the request/requester, etc. (statement of negative feeling or opinion); insult/attack (e.g., "Who do you think you are?"; "That's a terrible idea!")
4. Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping of holding the request.
5. Let interlocutor off the hook (e.g., "Don't worry about." "That's okay." "You don't have to.")
6. Self-defense (e.g., "I'm trying my best." "I'm doing all I can do.")
- J. Acceptance that functions as a refusal
 1. Unspecific or indefinite reply
 2. Lack of enthusiasm
- K. Avoidance
 1. Nonverbal
 - a. Silence
 - b. Hesitation
 - c. Do nothing
 - d. Physical departure
 2. Verbal
 - a. Topic switch
 - b. Joke
 - c. Repetition of part of request, etc. (e.g., "Monday?")
 - d. Postponement (e.g., "I'll think about it.")
 - e. Hedging (e.g., "Gee, I don't know." "I'm not sure.")

III. Adjuncts to Refusals

1. Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement (e.g., "That's a good idea..."; "I'd love to...")
2. Statement of empathy (e.g., "I realize you are in a difficult situation.")
3. Pause fillers (e.g., "uhh"; "well"; "oh"; "uhm")
4. Gratitude/appreciation

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Vocabulary Recollection through Games

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Abstract—This research sought to examine whether games influence young learners' vocabulary recollection in Way Ahead classes at Ngõi Nhà Thông Thái Elementary School (The House of Wisdom Elementary School), Vietnam. Two classes were randomly selected as experimental group and control group. The experimental group was exposed to games in recollecting vocabulary whereas the control group involved in exercises without games. The independent samples *t*-test was implemented to compare the mean scores of the pretest and two posttests. The results of the pretest and two posttests indicate that the experimental group surpassed the control one in recollecting vocabulary during the immediate retention stage and the delayed retention stage.

Index Terms—vocabulary recollection, vocabulary teaching, games, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

“If language structure makes up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and flesh,” (Hammer, 1991, p. 153). Thus, the magnitude of vocabulary teaching and learning is never too far to be highlighted. For young learners, perhaps it is less difficult to learn vocabulary items for the first time than to consolidate and remember them. We often hear young learners complain that they keep learning and forgetting. When English language young learners are acquiring new vocabulary, they need concrete methods to collect, store, and retrieve words for retention and future use. Therefore, it is necessary to find out effective methods to help young learners retain new words in long-term memory. The aim of this research is to examine if implementation of games can be an effective method to reinforce vocabulary recollection. The research question guiding this research is:

Is there a difference between the game group (i.e. the experimental group) and the the control group in the recollection of vocabulary during (a) the immediate retention stage and (b) the delayed retention stage?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Vocabulary Teaching

A focus on vocabulary recollection

Memory is crucial in vocabulary learning and the benefits of revision and repetition have been clearly demonstrated in studies of vocabulary learning (O'Dell, 1997, p. 276). According to Rubin (1987, p. 29), learning is the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved, and used. The word “use” can mean “interactional communication” and “vocabulary practice” (Schmitt, 1997, p. 203). Therefore, the teacher needs to provide initial encoding of new words and then “subsequent retrieved experiences” (Rubin, 1987, p. 29). Similarly, research suggests that if learners see or use a word in a way different from the way they first met it, then better learning is achieved. Schmitt (2000, p. 116) also states that the amount of exposure can affect second language vocabulary acquisition. In fact, research in vocabulary acquisition by Nation (1990) reveals that students require at least five to sixteen exposures to a new word before learning it. Also, Bunch (2009, para.1) points out that English language learners will benefit from a variety of activities aimed at increasing exposure to key vocabulary.

Besides, vocabulary acquisition is related to the effect of repetition on learning (Laufer, 1997, pp. 140-142). It can be said that repetition is one of the most effective ways to learn new words. Similarly, according to Carter and McCarthy (1988, p. 67), new words are forgotten if they are not recycled in some way and make it into our long-term memory. In order to learn vocabulary, words have to be recycled numerous times. In fact, providing incidental encounters with words is one method to facilitate vocabulary acquisition (Sökmen, 1997, p. 237). Through regular recycling, children can be given opportunities to meet the same vocabulary, embedded in different contexts, languages, and activity types. This not only improves their recall and develops memory processes, but also extends their understanding and associations of vocabulary in an ever expanding network of meanings and use. Ellis (1997, pp. 134-138) shares the same view that repetition is a strategy for consolidating vocabulary. In addition, Thornbury (2002, p. 18) summarizes the process of meaning acquisition in L1 children in three basic stages: (1) labeling (attaching a label to a concept), (2) categorization (grouping a number of objects under a particular label), and (3) network building (connections between related words).

Stages of teaching vocabulary

According to Doff (1988, p. 98), there are four stages in teaching vocabulary, namely presentation, practice, production, and review.

Presentation

Presentation is one of the most important and complex preliminary stages in teaching vocabulary. The title of this stage indicates clearly its function is introducing new lexical items to learners. As suggested by Thornbury (2002, pp. 75-76), learners need to learn both the meaning and the form of a new word. He also emphasizes some major factors subject to the number of word to be presented such as

- The learners' level (beginner, intermediate, or advanced)
- Learners' likely familiarity with the words
- The difficulty of the items

Their "teachability", which means whether they can be easily explained or demonstrated within the context of the classroom.

- Whether items are being learned for production (in speaking and writing) or for recognition (in listening and reading). Since more time will be needed for the former, the number of items is likely to be fewer if the aim is only recognition.

According to Gairns and Redman (1986, pp. 73-75), there are three techniques used in the presentation of new vocabulary items. The first one is visual techniques including mime, gestures, and visuals such as flashcards, photographs, blackboard drawings, wall charts, and realia. The second one is verbal techniques: (1) use of illustrative situations, (2) use of synonymy and definition, (3) contrasts and opposites, (4) scales, and (5) examples of the type. The last one is translation. It is considered a quick, easy, and effective way of conveying the meaning of vocabulary. Similarly, Thornbury (2002, p. 77) suggests a variety of techniques in introducing vocabulary such as translation, real things, pictures, gestures, definitions, and situations. Doff (1988, p. 96) groups these techniques into four categories: showing the meaning of words visually, showing the meaning of words in context, using synonyms and/or antonyms, and translation. He adds that a combination of the techniques should be implemented when it comes to the effectiveness of presenting meaning of new words (p. 97).

Practice

When the teacher presents the meaning of the words, they can only become students' passive vocabulary, and students may easily forget them or do not know how to use them properly. Students' vocabulary can only be activated effectively if the teacher gives the learners opportunities to practise them through vocabulary exercises or activities. Thornbury (2002, p. 93) underlines the popular belief that "practice makes perfect". Additionally, he emphasizes the action of moving from short-term memory into permanent memory. In order to ensure long-term retention, words or lexical items need to be put into practice.

Teacher plays an important role in helping students' vocabulary motivated. According to Scivener (1994, p. 127), some kinds of practical exercises to help students become more familiar with the words they have learned: matching pictures to words, matching parts of words to other parts, using prefixes and suffixes to build new words from given words, classifying items into lists, using given words to complete vocabulary specific task, filling in crosswords, grids or diagrams, filling in gaps in sentences and memory games. Similarly, Thornbury (2002, pp. 93-94) points out that there is a variety of tasks which can be used in order to help move words into long-term memory. They can be divided into five types in order of least cognitively demanding to most demanding: identifying, selecting, matching, sorting, and ranking and sequencing.

Production

Developing fluency with known vocabulary is essential to help learners make the best use of what they have already known. In this stage students are advised to complete high-level tasks namely production tasks (Thornbury, 2002, p. 100). He recommends that learners should produce something as a product of their own. In this way, learners will turn words from receptive to productive and put them into long-term memory (p. 100). For production tasks, there are two major types that teachers may have used very often: completion and creation. According to Hunt and Beglar (2002, p. 261), fluency building activities recycle already known words in familiar grammatical and organizational patterns so that students can focus on recognizing or using words without hesitation. Activities used to develop learners' production of vocabulary may also include the following: first and second language comparisons and translation carried out chunk-for-chunk, rather than word-for-word aimed at raising language awareness; repetition and recycling of activities, such as summarizing a text orally one day and again a few days later to keep words and expressions that have been learned active; noticing and recording language patterns and collocations; working with language corpuses created by the teacher for use in the classroom (Nation, 1990, p. 208). Besides, Doff (1988) judges communicative activities such as information exchanging, elicitation of student-talk, games and role plays as the most effective ways to motivate students to be more actively involved in the speaking activities to produce the words they have known.

Review

This process aims at helping students acquire active, productive vocabularies. According to Davies and Pearse (2000, p. 103), reviewing is "new work on old language", "a challenge, requiring ingenuity and creativity". It produces better results for teaching and learning vocabulary. In the reviewing stage, students have more "opportunities to use language and receive feedback". Methodologists agree that games and communicative activities are the best ways to help students review vocabulary. Besides, visual aids can make vocabulary revision more interesting and effective. Revision can be done in both individuals and collaboration. Doff (1988, p. 97) expresses that vocabulary is mainly reviewed through the

warm-up step. That means teachers review vocabulary learnt in an earlier lesson. It aims at refreshing students' memories or as a preparation for a new presentation.

B. Games in Language Teaching and Learning

What is game?

A game is an organized activity that usually has the following properties: a particular task or objective, a set of rules, competition between players, and communication between players by spoken or written language (Richards, Platt, and Platt, 1992, p. 153). Game is also defined as an "activity with rules, a goal, and an element of fun" (Hadfield, 1990, p. v).

Kinds of games in language teaching and learning

Different writers have different classification of games. Lee (2000, p. 65) classifies games into ten kinds: structure games, vocabulary games, spelling games, pronunciation games, number games, listen-and-do games, read-and-do games, games and writing, miming and role-play, and discussion game. However, McCallum (1980, p. 74) categorizes games for language learning into seven kinds: vocabulary games, number games, structure games, spelling games, conversation games, writing games, and role-play and dramatics. From these two writers' division, we have five main kinds of games: vocabulary games, structure games, writing games, reading games, and games for developing speaking and listening skills. Each kind of game focuses on a language component or a skill, so when choosing games, one of the factors that teachers have to consider is the aim of the lesson. As mentioned above, the language games chosen in this study must serve the purpose of helping the learners recall vocabulary; therefore, vocabulary games were chosen in this study. Haldfield (1990, p. 8) said that games can take one of the following forms:

- a. Information gap. Students ask their partners to get missing information to complete the task or card they have or together solve a problem.
- b. Guessing games. The player with the information deliberately withholds it, while others guess what it may be.
- c. Search games. Players must obtain all or a large amount of the information available to fill in a questionnaire or to solve a problem.
- d. Matching games. These games involve matching pairs of cards or pictures. Everyone must find a partner with a corresponding card or a picture.
- e. Matching-up games. Each player in a group has a list of opinions, preferences, wants or possibilities. Through discussion and compromise, the group must reach an agreement.
- f. Exchanging games. Players have certain articles, or ideas which they wish to exchange for others. The aim of the game is to make an exchange that is satisfactory to both sides.
- g. Collecting games. Players need to collect cards in order to complete a set. Combining activities. Players must act on certain information in order to arrange themselves in groups.
- h. Arranging games. Players must acquire information and act on it in order to arrange items in a specific order.

The second taxonomy that Hadfield (1999, pp. 102 -104) uses to classify language games has many more categories. As with the classification of games as linguistic games or communicative games, some games will contain elements of more than one type.

- a. Sorting, ordering, or arranging games. For example, students have a set of cards with different products on them, and they sort the cards into products found at a grocery store and products found at a department store.
- b. Information gap games. In such games, one or more people have information that other people need to complete a task. For instance, one person might have a drawing and their partner needs to create a similar drawing by listening to the information given by the person with the drawing. Information gap games can involve a one-way information gap, such as the drawing game just described, or a two-way information gap, in which each person has unique information, such as in a Spot-the-Difference task, where each person has a slightly different picture, and the task is to identify the differences.
- c. Guessing games. These are a variation on information gap games. One of the best known examples of a guessing game is 20 Questions, in which one person thinks of a famous person, place, or thing. The other participants can ask 20 Yes/No questions to find clues in order to guess who or what the person is thinking of.
- d. Search games. These games are yet another variant on two-way information gap games, with everyone giving and seeking information. Find Someone Who is a well known example. Students are given a grid. The task is to fill in all the cells in the grid with the name of a classmate who fits that cell, e.g., someone who is a vegetarian. Students circulate, asking and answering questions to complete their own grid and help classmates complete theirs.
- e. Matching games. As the name implies, participants need to find a match for a word, picture, or card. For example, students place 30 word cards, composed of 15 pairs, face down in random order. Each person turns over two cards at a time, with the goal of turning over a matching pair, by using their memory.
- f. Labeling games. These are a form of matching, in that participants match labels and pictures.
- g. Exchanging games. In these games, students barter cards, other objects, or ideas. Similar are exchanging and collecting games. Many card games fall into this category, such as the children's card game Go Fish: <http://www.pagat.com/quartet/gofish.html>.
- h. Board games. Scrabble is one of the most popular board games that specifically highlight language.

i. Role-play games. Role play can involve students playing roles that they do not play in real life, such as dentist, while simulations can involve students performing roles that they already play in real life or might be likely to play, such as customer at a restaurant. Dramas are normally scripted performances, whereas in role plays and simulations, students come up with their own words, although preparation is often useful.

Nonetheless, Greenall (1990, p. 11) classifies games in a different way:

a. Do-it-yourself simulation. It is an activity in which the students play themselves in a situation which he/she has either experienced or can at least relate to in some way.

b. Role-play. Students are required to react in accordance with the identity or the role marked on the card, developing the character with improvised dialogue in either an everyday situation or a clearly defined setting.

c. Describing. This is a simple situation in which one person has a certain item of information which he/she can only reveal by drawing, mime, roundabout description or Yes/No answer to questions put by the others.

d. Matching pairs. This is where words, pictures, lines of dialogue, etc. are divided into more than two parts and then shuffled. One part is given to each of the students who must then find his/her partner.

e. Jigsaw. It is similar to Matching Pairs. It is divided into more than two parts and the students have to work to match them together.

f. Logical sequences. This technique is similar to Jigsaw, but it is used for materials such as strip cartoons, song lyrics or proverbs of which the components can be reconstructed in the correct and logical order.

g. Board games. Teacher thinks of a situation, which involves some sequence of events, and asks students to think of a number of favorable and unfavorable events which might occur as the players proceed.

h. Discussion. Activities can be used as a springboard for discussion or questionnaires.

These above games can be played in pairs, groups, or with the whole class. They can be card games, board games, puzzles, and role-play according to the size of the class or the excitement of the games. Games are diverse and techniques used to carry them are various. They can be used at any stages of a class (Harmer, 1991, p. 101). This study only focused on labeling games in which participants matched labels with pictures.

Characteristics of games in language teaching and learning

According to Bradley (2010, p. 3), games have some characteristics that are advantageous to language learners as follows:

First, games engage all students in the learning process. When students play games in pairs or groups, they have the opportunity to recognize and appreciate the contributions of others and use team-building skills. Some classroom games focus on individuals working to win against all other peers in the class. This type of game works well with students who are highly motivated and competitive.

Second, games provide an opportunity for collaboration and/or cooperation. Classroom games provide an opportunity for students to collaborate and cooperate with each other, while working towards a common goal - winning. In some games, students are paired or grouped, which may lead to peer tutoring and the use of cooperative skills in order to win. They may not realize that they are actually learning, but they are working together towards a common goal.

Third, games provide an enjoyable learning experience. Creating a fun and enjoyable learning environment is a large first step toward motivating students. Research indicates that classroom games are effective strategies that facilitate learning.

Concisely, games help engage all students, provide an opportunity for collaboration and/or cooperation, and provide an enjoyable learning experience.

Role of games in vocabulary retention

In order to learn and retain new words, learners should participate in different task-based activities in their classroom and such activities also include vocabulary games which especially focus on helping learners develop and use words in different contexts by making the lessons enjoyable. Therefore, it is necessary to explore whether students learn vocabulary effectively through games and how they learn it. Many experts of language teaching methodology agree that playing games is a good way to learn vocabulary, especially in communicative language teaching classes. Games have been shown to have advantages and effectiveness in learning vocabulary in various ways.

First, using games is a good way to increase exposure to vocabulary which enhances students' vocabulary acquisition. Learning is a process by which "information is obtained, stored, retrieved, and used"; therefore, the teacher needs to provide initial encoding of new words and then "subsequent retrieved experiences" (Rubin, 1987, p. 29). Research suggests that if learners see or use a word in a way different from the way they first met it, then better learning is achieved. According to Schmitt (2000, p. 116), amount of exposure can affect second language vocabulary acquisition. Research in vocabulary acquisition reported by Nation in 1990 reveals that students require at least five to sixteen exposures to a new word before learning it. Also, Bunch (2009, para. 1) points out that English language learners will benefit from a variety of activities aimed at increasing exposure to key vocabulary. Besides, Laufer (1997, pp. 140-142) points out that vocabulary acquisition is related to the effect of repetition on learning. It can be said that repetition is one of the most effective ways to learn new words. Similarly, according to Carter and McCarthy (1988, p. 67), new words are forgotten if they are not recycled in some way and make it into long-term memory. In order to learn vocabulary, words have to be recycled numerous times. In fact, providing incidental encounters with words is one method to facilitate vocabulary acquisition (S  kmen, 1997, p. 237). Through regular recycling, children can be given opportunities

to meet the same vocabulary, embedded in different contexts, languages and activities types. This not only improves their recall and develops memory processes, but also extends their understanding and associations of vocabulary in an ever expanding network of meaning and use. As games provide another encounter with the target words, they have the advantage of being fun, competitive, and consequently, memorable (Sökmen, 1997, p. 242). Methodologists agree that games can help students review vocabulary effectively. Memory plays a key role in vocabulary learning and the benefits of revision and repetition have been clearly demonstrated in studies of vocabulary learning (O'Dell, 1997, p. 276). Besides, Ellis (1997, pp. 134-138) shares the same view that repetition is a strategy for consolidating vocabulary. He adds that games lend themselves well to revision exercises helping learners recall material in a pleasant, entertaining way (pp. 134-138). Similarly, McCallum (1980, p. 78) points out that games can function as reinforcement, review, and enrichment. In fact, games can lend themselves perfectly to quick bursts of revision. Using some of the games, the teacher can revise a massive amount of vocabulary and grammar in a few minutes. Clearly, students have more chance to be exposed to vocabulary through games. According to Hadfield (1999, p. 91), in order to retain a word, students have to go through three distinct processes: (1) fix the meaning of the word in their mind, (2) make the word their own, (3) use the word to communicate with others. He adds that games can help the learner through these three processes. It can be said that games are very effective in helping students increase exposure to vocabulary.

Second, games can maintain students' motivation in vocabulary learning because they are amusing and interesting (Uberman, 1998, p. 18). In the easy, relaxed atmosphere which is created by using games, students remember things faster and better (Uberman, 1998, p. 18). Similarly, games bring in relaxation and fun for students, thus help them learn and retain new words more easily (Nguyen and Khuat, 2003, p. 11). They also add that games usually involve friendly competition, and they keep learners interested; these create the motivation for learners of English to get involved and participate actively in the learning activities (p. 11). Games also help learners recall material in a pleasant, entertaining way (Uberman, 1998, p. 20). For many children between four and twelve years old, language learning will not be the key motivational factor; games can provide this stimulus (Lewis, 1999, p. 101). Using games helps the students to relax; they remember things faster and better. Moreover, games can lower anxiety, thus making the acquisition of input more likely (Richard-Amato, 1988, p. 147). As Nguyen and Khuat (2003, p. 11) put it, students tend to learn and retain new vocabulary better when it is applied in a relaxed environment like playing vocabulary games. Especially, labeling and displaying pictures depicting new vocabulary is helpful, especially with beginners. Matching words to pictures is a useful review exercise (Bunch, 2009). In short, games are very effective in motivating students in learning vocabulary.

Third, games can provide students with intensive and meaningful practice of language (Wright, Betteridge, and Buckby, 2005, p. 11). In fact, most vocabulary games make learners use the language instead of thinking about learning the correct forms (Lee, 1995, p. 78). Hadfield (1984, p. 127) shares the same view that games can provide an opportunity for real communication and bridge the game between the classroom and the real world. Language games thus allow the use of meaningful and useful language which is used in real contexts (Ersoz, 2000, p. 85) and are able to provide a chance for pupils to use the language that they have learnt.

In a nutshell, games are motivating and effective in helping learners increase exposure to vocabulary and providing students with meaningful practice of language, so they play an important role in the retention of vocabulary. Therefore, Lee (1995, p. 78) suggests that games should not be regarded as "activities filling in odd moments when the teacher and his/her class have nothing better to do" (p. 3). They ought to be at the heart of teaching a language in general and vocabulary in specific (Uberman, 1998, p. 20).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The population of the research comprised 121 students in six classes of Way Ahead at Ngoi Nha Thong Thai Elementary School (The House of Wisdom Elementary School). Two classes of Way Ahead were selected for this research. The technique employed to select the subjects for the study was nonprobability sampling. This form of sampling is the most common type in educational research. Nonprobability sampling (also called convenience or availability sampling) involves using whatever subjects are available to the researcher (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993, p. 160). These two classes were then randomly selected as experimental group and control group. The technique was chosen because it would give each group an equal chance of being selected as experimental group or control group (Best and Kahn, 1993, p. 97). The experimental group (Class Way Ahead 2A) was exposed to labeling games in recollect vocabulary, whereas the control group (Class Way Ahead 2B) received exercises without games. In the experimental group, there were 32 students, 15 males and 17 females. The control group was composed of 31 students, 12 males and 19 females. The age of the participants in both the experimental group and the control group was seven.

B. Instruments

This research entailed a quasi-experimental research design. The impact of using games on the learners' vocabulary retention was based on quantitative analyses of the results of the pretest and posttests. According to Creswell (1994, p. 106), experiment is a highly controlled method. Experiment gives the researcher valuable data for judging and comparing the changes in the scores between the experimental group and the control group in the pretests and posttests.

The comparison of the results of the pretests and posttests between two groups and each group helps the researcher clarify how the treatment has influenced the subjects' vocabulary scores.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The research results indicate that the experimental group recollected vocabulary better than the control one during the immediate retention stage and the delayed retention one. This is shown through the mean scores of the two groups in the two posttests in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE MEAN SCORES OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS IN THE TWO POSTTESTS

	Posttest 1			Posttest 2		
	\bar{X}	SD	Sig.	\bar{X}	SD	Sig.
Control group	5.81	1.795		5.11	1.588	
Experimental group	8.02	1.142	.000	7.79	1.296	.000

As seen from Table 1, the mean from the experimental group in posttest 1 was significantly higher than that from the control group ($\bar{X} = 8.02$ and 5.81 respectively), and the chance probability was less than 5 per cent ($p < .05$). Concerning the dispersion of the scores from the mean scores, the distance found in the experimental group was lower than that found in the control group. This shows that there was a consistency of the scores found in the experimental group ($SD = 1.142$), compared with that found in the control one ($SD = 1.795$).

Likewise, Table 1 also shows that the students in the experimental group performed significantly better than the ones in the control group in terms of scores attained on posttest 2 ($\bar{X} = 7.79$ and 5.11 respectively), and the chance probability was less than 5 per cent ($p < .05$). The experimental group's standard deviation was narrower than that of the control group (experimental $SD = 1.296$ and control $SD = 1.588$); this is worth noticing because the standard deviation of the experimental group was consistent.

Moreover, the results suggest that the game treatment was successful if a comparison is made between the results of the pretest and two posttests.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE MEAN SCORES OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS IN THE PRETEST

	\bar{X}	SD	Sig.
Control group	3.92	.972	
Experimental group	3.86	1.008	.904

In the pretest, the difference between the two groups was not statistically significant at the confidence level of .05. That means the two groups were of the same level before the treatment in terms of vocabulary knowledge. The difference just occurred after the treatment as found in the results of the two posttests, which proves the progress in the experimental group. It appears that the use of labeling games resulted in substantial difference in performance in the two posttests. The similarity of the pretest means and mean difference between the two groups in the two posttests are revealed in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
THE MEAN SCORES OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS IN THE PRETEST AND TWO POSTTESTS

	Pretest			Posttest 1			Posttest 2		
	\bar{X}	SD	Sig.	\bar{X}	SD	Sig.	\bar{X}	SD	Sig.
Control group	3.92	.972		5.81	1.795		5.11	1.588	
Experimental group	3.86	1.008		8.02	1.142		7.79	1.296	
			.904			.000			.000

V. CONCLUSIONS

The results of the pretest and two posttests indicate that the experimental group surpassed the control one in recollecting concrete object words during the immediate retention stage and the delayed retention one. The results of this research may have the following implications for the teaching and learning of vocabulary at Ngoi Nha Thong Thai Elementary School (The House of Wisdom Elementary School) in particular and in other elementary schools in general.

First, exercises in workbook can help young learners recollect vocabulary to some extent, but it will be more effective if teachers add more games in class to motivate young learners in learning vocabulary. Actually, games create a fun learning environment, add motivation when students' motivation shrinks, and promote team learning and collaborative skills. Being motivated by the relaxed and hilarious atmosphere, young learners are willing to take part in the learning process in a subconscious manner. Teachers should recognize that games are also a form of learning. In spite of the heavy schedule to fulfill on time, teachers should sometimes let their students relax with games after a long

period of hard study. This is not a waste of time, but it can energize their mind and encourage them to study better. Games, in fact, are not games only, but a good means of education. By playing games, students can both relax their mind and review or practice things that they have just studied. In fact, games do not take much time to play, so teachers can make use of spare moments to let them play. Especially, learning English vocabulary using games has an important role for elementary teachers and students because they have strong and good motivation to deepen English language. Game use should be considered as central to instructional planning as children acquire knowledge through playing. For young learners, games should be used in a short amount of time with dynamic activities suitable for their psychological characteristics.

Second, in order to achieve the most from vocabulary games, it is essential that games must be well chosen. Various kinds of games can be used to help young learners recollect vocabulary, so the teacher assumes responsibility for finding out the most suitable games for his class as well as involving learners in searching interesting games and sharing them with their peers in the classroom. Byrne (1987, p. 31) points out that “the more different games are used, the more motivated students become”.

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On Negative Transfer of the Deep-structure Culture in Sino-American Communication

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Abstract—Different nations in the world have their own cultures, and these cultures are characterized by both universality and particularity. The former provides a foundation and guarantee for intercultural communication, while the latter often leads to negative cultural transfer in communication if the speakers are unconscious of cultural differences. This paper makes a study on negative deep-structure cultural transfer in Sino-American communication, focusing on such aspects as values, thought patterns, religious beliefs and ethics. It holds that failure in intercultural communication will occur if inadequate attention is paid to cultural differences in the process of language and culture learning.

Index Terms—negative cultural transfer, Chinese and Americans, deep-structure culture

I. BRIEF LITERATURE REVIEW OF CULTURAL TRANSFER

Negative cultural transfer occurs in all processes of intercultural communication and foreign language learning and is of great significance in both fields. Negative cultural transfer refers to the cultural interference caused by cultural differences, which shows that people subconsciously use their cultural norms and values not only to guide their behaviors and thoughts but also to judge others' behaviors and thoughts (Dai & Zhang, 2000). Negative cultural transfer often results in communicative difficulties, misunderstandings and even hatred.

The study of negative cultural transfer started in the field of linguistics in the 1950s. Sapir, Whorf and other linguists conducted many studies of the relationships between culture and language. They held that culture and language are inextricably interwoven, and that sociocultural values and beliefs frame the way people think and speak. Robert Lado (1957), in his book, *Linguistics across Cultures*, pointed out that native cultural transfer was one of the main barriers to second language learning. Later, many researchers became involved in the study of negative cultural transfer in such aspects as language forms represented by cultural linguistics (which means *Guo Qing Yu Yan Xue* in Chinese) of the former Soviet Union, communicative events and speech acts represented by the ethnographic study of communication of Gumperz and Hymes (1972) and the theory of speech acts of Austin (1962) and Searle (1969). Following them, Damen (1987), Kramsch (1993) and other scholars examined the importance of understanding the sociocultural values of the target language for those engaged in both second language learning and intercultural communication. They found that mastery of second language patterns alone does not ensure effective communication in the target language, and cultural education is absolutely essential for both second language acquisition and effective intercultural communication. Later, employing speech act theory, other researchers such as Beebe (1988) and Wolfson (1989) further examined how second language learners typically attempt to use speech patterns from their native language to accomplish speech acts in the second language. Beebe (1988) called this type of practice "sociocultural transfer," which, however, only refers to negative transfer of surface-structure culture because this type of transfer can be easily observed.

In recent years, attention has been paid to the study of negative cultural transfer of deep-structure culture, that is, the transfer of deeper sociocultural values and beliefs that cause the surface changes in both what people say and how people say. By examining instances of serious communication breakdowns between the native speakers and Chinese English speakers who have been in America for at least two years, Liu Dilin has revealed that negative transfer of deep-structure culture exists and seriously affects second language speakers' communication. He further states that learning second language cultural values and rules may not ensure acquisition and that acquisition of cultural competence requires immersion in a society of target language speakers (1995, p.262). Dai Weidong and Zhang Honglin (2000) also hold that negative transfer of deep-structure culture is not easily discovered because social culture and value systems exist at the psychological layer. However, it is just these cultural values that determine people's thoughts and behaviors and result in misunderstanding and ineffective communication.

The present paper aims to make a study on the negative transfer of the deep-structure culture occurring in Sino-American communication, that is, negative cultural transfer in values, thought patterns, religious beliefs and ethics. Since America is a country composed of many races, there exist cultural differences from race to race, whose ways of dealing with events are also divergent. However, it is impossible for the author to deal with all races in the present paper. Only Americans in the dominant culture, that is, White Anglo-Saxon Protestants (WASPs), are focused on in this paper.

II. GENERAL VIEW ON NEGATIVE CULTURAL TRANSFER

The notion of cultural transfer derives from the notion of transfer in second language acquisition. Behavioral psychologists define the term “transfer” as the automatic, uncontrolled and subconscious carryover of previous performance or knowledge to subsequent learning in an attempt to produce new responses. Many other scholars have given different definitions to this term. Among them, the most widely cited definition is the one proposed by Odlin, “transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and dissimilarities between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired” (1989, p.27). According to this definition, cultural transfer refers to the cultural influence resulting from similarities and dissimilarities between the target culture and any other culture that has been previously acquired. Cultural transfer can be positive or negative. When one’s native cultural norms are similar to the ones of the target culture, positive transfer occurs, whereas when those norms are different, negative transfer occurs. Because negative cultural transfer often results in communicative difficulties, misunderstanding and even hatred, many scholars have paid much attention to it.

To further explain negative cultural transfer, it is necessary to discuss culture first. Culture is a complicated social phenomenon, which includes everything in society and plays an important role all the time. Culture is the life patterns of a group including everything people have acquired since birth, such as language, speech forms and contents, beliefs, material and spiritual foundations that people live on. Liang Shuming, a famous Chinese philosopher and thinker, discusses three layers of culture in his book *Culture and Philosophy in the East and West* (1994). The first is the material life at the superficial layer, including all material things essential for human survival; the second is the social life at the intermediate layer, such as life style, social organization, political and economic relations; the third is the spiritual life at the deep layer, such as religion, philosophy, value systems, science and art (1994, p.10). The above three layers can also be termed as the physical culture at the superficial layer, the conventional culture at the intermediate layer and the psychological culture at the deep layer (Hu & Gao, 1997, p.2-3). The physical culture and the conventional culture are tangible: people can recognize them without effort. The psychological culture is less tangible and more abstract, for it hides in the spiritual world of people. However, the psychological culture is seen as a constant influence that continues to guide people’s specific behaviors, and it is more stable than the other two. In the light of the layers of culture, therefore, negative cultural transfer can be divided into two categories: the negative transfer of surface-structure culture at the physical and conventional layers of culture, and the negative transfer of deep-structure culture at the psychological layer of culture (Dai & Zhang, 2000). However, it is worth noting that the distinction between the two categories of negative cultural transfer is not absolute. In some cases, a misunderstanding or a communicative breakdown can be understood as the result of the negative transfer of surface-structure culture, whereas it is the result of the negative transfer of deep-structure culture in some other cases.

The reasons why negative cultural transfer is one of the greatest obstacles to successful intercultural communication mainly lie in two aspects: (1) culture is deep-rooted; (2) culture is characterized by ethnocentrism. Culture is deep-rooted because most of culture is in the taken-for-granted realm and below the conscious level. Usually, the content of culture is consciously or unconsciously learned and transmitted from generation to generation. From birth, people are deeply influenced by their native culture. How they think and behave is guided by their native culture. With the development of economy and society, great changes may occur in such surface-structure cultural aspects as dress, food, transportation, housing, living habits and laws, etc., through innovation, diffusion and acculturation, but the deep structure of a culture such as values, ethics and morals, religious beliefs and ethics often resists major alterations. For example, in America, studies conducted on American values show that most of the central values of the 1990s are similar to the values of the last 200 years (Samovar, Porter & Stefani, 2000, p.46). In addition, each culture is characterized by ethnocentrism—“the technical name for the view of things in which one’s own group is the center of everything and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it”(Summer, 1940, p.13)—that has both positive and negative influence on a culture. For one thing, ethnocentrism is often a source of cultural and personal identity and has great impact on a culture’s self-image; for another, it is “destructive when it is used to shut others out, provide the bases for derogatory evaluations, and rebuff change” (Damen, 1987, p.214). The feelings that we are right and they are wrong pervade every aspect of a culture’s existence. Examples range from the insignificant (“Earrings should be placed on the ears, not on the nose”) to the significant (“We need to build up our defenses to protect ourselves from those religious fanatics”).

Nowadays, the tendency toward globalization is becoming stronger. For rapid and sustainable development, every country is trying to enhance its communication with other countries in the world. Since culture often varies significantly from country to country, it is inevitable to see some serious communicative failures, and these failures often originate from negative cultural transfer. Over the past five decades, linguistics, sociolinguistics, cultural linguistics, pragmatics and applied linguistics have all showed great interest in the study of cultural transfer. However, most of their studies are confined within the scope of surface-structure cultural transfer. Little attention has been paid to the negative deep-structure cultural transfer, because it is difficult to identify these items. However, such kind of negative cultural transfer often leads to serious problems in intercultural communication.

III. NEGATIVE TRANSFER OF THE DEEP-STRUCTURE CULTURE

In intercultural communication, people often take what they believe for granted because they have grown up in the culture and think their way is the best. In this case, they tend to transfer their own cultural values and beliefs to the

situation of intercultural communication as guidelines for their behaviors, so that misunderstandings or ineffective communication arise. Generally speaking, negative transfer of deep-structure culture arises in such aspects as cultural values, thought patterns, religious beliefs and ethics.

A. *Negative Transfer in Cultural Values*

According to Rokeach, values are “a learned organization of rules for making choices and for resolving conflicts” (1973, p.161). These rules and guideposts are normative and teach us what is useful, right or wrong, what to strive for, how to live our life, and even what to die for. As Albert says, a value system “represents what is expected or hoped, required or forbidden. It is not a report of actual conduct but the system of criteria by which conduct is judged and sanctions applied” (1968, p.32). Every culture has its special values that tend to permeate it, which are derived from the larger philosophical issues that are part of culture’s milieu. Cultural values are transmitted by a variety of sources and therefore tend to be broad-sensed, enduring, and relatively stable. The relationship between cultural values and communicative behaviors can be compared to the relationship between guiding principles and their concrete contents. In other words, people’s perceptions and communicative behaviors are both guided by their cultural values. Therefore, due to the great differences in their cultural values, cultural transfer is very likely to occur in Sino-American communication.

1. Collectivism VS Individualism

China is a country deeply marked by collectivism which means greater emphasis on “(a) the views, needs and goals of the in-group (relatives, clans, organizations) rather than oneself; (b) social norms and duty defined by the in-group rather than behavior to get pleasure; (c) beliefs shared with the in-group rather than beliefs that distinguish self from in-group; (d) great readiness to cooperate with in-group members” (Triandis, 1990, p.52). A famous saying that best shows the Chinese collective thought from Confucius is “if one wants to establish himself, he should help others to establish themselves at first.” In the 17th century, English philosopher John Locke defined individualism as the doctrine that each individual is unique, special, completely different from other individuals, and the “basic unit of nature” (Stewart & Bennett 1991, p.133). From this, we can see how important the interests of the individual are in Western culture, where all values, rights, and duties are considered to originate in individuals. Americans are obviously marked by individualism as well. The “Westward Movement” further enhanced their individual sense, because during that period people had to depend on themselves for living in newly settled western regions. Many English proverbs that demonstrate individualism are embraced by Americans, for instance, “every man is the architect of his own fortune”, or “pull yourself up by your own boot straps”.

In Sino-American communication, such different value orientations may lead to negative cultural transfer, especially in people’s views about privacy, friendship, and relatives. In Chinese culture, such ideas as “*respecting the old and loving the young*”, “*practicing benevolence and being a good neighbor*”, “*being always helpful to others*” have been handed down from generation to generation. So in daily communication, people often show their great concern for friends or even strangers by means of such questions as, “*Where are you from?*”, “*How old are you?*”, “*Are you married?*”, “*How much do you earn each year?*” or saying “*walk/drive slowly!*”, “*It’s cold. Wear more clothes*” while seeing a visitor out. In American culture, people worship the right of privacy and such topics as age, income, family, marriage, political attitude, religious belief and other things concerning individuals are generally taboos in casual conversation. As for friendship, in Chinese culture, such proverbs as “*At home you count on your parents, outside on your friends*” and “*All men are brothers within the world*” tell people how significant the friendship is and persuade people to maintain their friendships all their lives. When confronted with American “transient friendship”, Chinese people are often angry and think Americans are insincere. In fact, it is social mobility and the desires for change that make Americans devalue long-term interpersonal relationships. In their opinion, self value and self-awareness are more important. In terms of relatives, family counts for much in Chinese culture, which has a complicated system of kinship terms that shows their emphasis on family, collective harmony and respect for elders. For example, they have specific terms for addressing each different relative on mother’s side and on father’s side. In order to establish harmonious relationship, Chinese people are even used to addressing strangers as “Granny/Grandpa Li”, “Brother/Sister Wang” or “Uncle/Aunt Ma”, which often shocks Americans whose kinship terms are generally vague and whose members take less responsibility for their parents or relatives.

2. Past VS Future Orientation

Past-oriented cultures believe strongly in the significance of prior events. History, established religions, and tradition are extremely important to these cultures, so there is a strong belief that the past should be the guide for making decisions and determine truth. China is typical of this orientation, with which Chinese often take the past as a guide for their actions in the present and more likely to worship their forefathers, and respect the elderly as well as those in authority. The proverbs “*consider the past and you will know the present*” and “*Once a teacher, a parent forever*” are apt examples. Americans, on the contrary, emphasize the future and expect it to be grander and nicer than the present. What is coming next holds the greatest attraction for most Americans because whatever they are doing is not quite as good as what they could be doing. Thus, they seldom conform to conventions and worship their ancestors and authority much less. They prefer to project themselves into the future. They set goals, target dates for meeting them, and outline specific steps for achieving goals. For them, the future is not something to dream about but something made real through concrete actions and thinking. In intercultural communication, inadequate knowledge of the great difference

between the two value orientations may lead to misunderstanding. For instance, according to the Confucian norm, it is essential that a son observe mourning for three years to show his grief and piety when a parent dies. Otherwise, the son will be deemed not filial. Today, although this custom has been formally abandoned, its influence is still felt, and other customs are observed by people to show their filial obedience, especially in some rural areas of China. For example, holding a grand lamenting ceremony in the first three years and the tenth year after a parent dies is still practiced in some places. However, for Americans, this seems a little strange and somewhat extravagant: it is not necessary to hold such a grand ceremony at all since the parent has passed away. They can not properly understand the past preference of Chinese people, coming as they do from a position of their future preference. Americans tend to use their own future orientation to judge or treat the specific behavior of Chinese.

Additionally, a distinction exists in how to make use of time between Chinese and American cultures. In his *Beyond Culture*, Hall defined two kinds of time: Monochronic (M-time) and Polychronic (P-time), which represent two variant solutions to the use of time as organizing frames for activities (1976, p.17). Americans are typical of M-time. As Hall explains, "People of the western world, particularly Americans, tend to think of time as something fixed in nature, something around us and from which we cannot escape; an ever-present part of the environment, just like the air we breathe" (1959, p.19). Such proverbs as follows may reflect the time-valued perceptions of Americans: "*Time and tide wait for no man.*"; "*Time lost cannot be won again*"; "*Take time by the forelock*". However, P-time systems are characterized by several things happening at one time. People from P-time, such as Chinese, stress the involvement of people and completion of transactions rather than adherence to present schedules. Chinese people place more emphasis on good social relationships and regard time relatively freely. Due to such differences, negative cultural transfer inevitably often occurs. This can be demonstrated in two cultures' attitudes towards "free chatting". It is sometimes seen that two or more Chinese people can spend several hours or even longer just chatting without any aim, especially in the countryside of China. Americans may be amazed at such a phenomenon and regard it as a time-wasting habit. Some may even think that Chinese people are so lazy that they are not willing to do what they should do. Thus a temporal perception transfer occurs, followed by misunderstandings. Nevertheless, they might not hold this prejudice if they understood the nature of Chinese collectivism. As mentioned above, the concept of group plays an important part in the thoughts and behaviors of the Chinese people. Therefore, in China, "treat your neighbors and relatives well" is a prevailing idea. People prefer to visit their friends or relatives or neighbors just to enhance their relationships, and they think that the more time they spend with them, the deeper their emotions are, especially in the countryside where peasants live and have more spare time. Additionally, Chinese people think that the deeper their relations are, the more easily matters are solved. "Guan Xi" (relation), as the product of collectivism, has been rooted in the Chinese people's life. Likewise, from the standpoint of collectivism, Chinese people feel uncomfortable with the haste of Americans. They complain that Americans usually show indifference to the people around them and devote their time and energy only to their own business. For Americans, however, time is an important precondition for achieving success and should not be wasted in trivial chitchat.

B. *Negative Transfer in Thought Patterns*

Under the influence of respective traditional worldviews and value orientations, Chinese thought patterns are characterized by synthesis, vagueness and retrospection; whereas Americans' thought patterns are characterized by analysis, precision and anticipation (Lian, 2002). Influenced by their specific thought patterns, Chinese people are used to talking or writing in a roundabout way and keeping off the point and often putting the most important or critical points at the end or even just to give a hint. Such a circular way of talking or writing is regarded as politeness in Chinese culture and it can save enough "face" for both sides. Americans, however, like coming straight to the point in conversation or writing. The topic is often mentioned at first so as to attract hearers' or readers' attention. In Sino-American communication, the transfer of thought patterns often arises at the level of discourse whose realm of study has been extended to include literary discourse and whole fields of culture and symbolic systems, among which face-to-face conversation within speech acts is paid more attention to. The following hypothetical conversation may demonstrate the striking difference in discourse pattern influenced by different thought patterns. "Mr. Wong and Mr. Richardson have a conversation. Mr. Richardson has enjoyed this conversation and when they are ready to part he says to Mr. Wong that they really should get together to have lunch sometime. Mr. Wong says that he would enjoy that. After a few weeks, Mr. Wong begins to feel that Mr. Richardson has been rather insincere because he has not followed up his invitation to lunch with a specific time and place" (Scollon, 2000, p.5).

The difference in discourse pattern expected by Asian speakers of English (such as Chinese) and by western speakers of English (such as Americans) is the source of the problem between Mr. Wong and Mr. Richardson. As is mentioned above, Americans often put the important points at the beginning of a conversation, while Chinese people are used to displacing important points until nearer the end of a conversation, which has led Mr. Wong to think that this mention of having lunch is of some importance to Mr. Richardson. Whether it is important to him or not, Mr. Wong believes that Mr. Richardson is seriously making an invitation to lunch. Mr. Richardson, however, has made such invitation at the end of his conversation because it is of little major significance. For him it does not signify any more than that he has enjoyed his conversation with Mr. Wong. It is not a specific invitation, but just a conversational way of parting with good feelings toward the other. It is this difference in discourse pattern that results in misunderstanding between two participants.

Besides, in American culture, “straightforwardness” is regarded as a polite manner in communication, while in Chinese, indirectness is more appreciated, especially when some requests are put forward. Such a difference is sure to cause conflicts. For instance,

Mr. Jones: It looks like we’re going to have to keep the production line running on Saturday.

Mr. Wu: I see.

Mr. Jones: Can you come in on Saturday?

Mr. Wu: Yes. I think so.

Mr. Jones: That’ll be a great help.

Mr. Wu: Yes. Saturday’s a special day, did you know?

Mr. Jones: How do you mean?

Mr. Wu: It’s my son’s birthday.

Mr. Jones: How nice. I hope you all enjoy it very much.

Mr. Wu: Thank you. I appreciate your understanding (Storti, 1994, p.52).

The conversation taking place between an American boss and his Chinese employee indicates that Mr. Wu is good at English but experienced a painful failure in intercultural communication due to the negative transfer of thought patterns. From the very beginning, he wanted to tell the boss that he didn’t want to work an extra shift on Saturday. In Chinese culture, however, direct refusal to the boss’s requirement is impolite, so he chose to refuse implicitly by saying “I see.” Unfortunately, the boss didn’t understand him and further forced him to land in a desperate predicament by asking a question which could be answered only by “Yes” or “No”. In order to save the boss’s face, he had to answer “Yes, I think so”. The answer in Chinese context just meant “I hear what you say, but I don’t want to come”. If he was willing to come, he would say “Sure” or “Of course, I will”. But the boss misunderstood him once more. Even after he told the boss that Saturday was his son’s birthday, the boss didn’t know what he really meant. Here Mr. Wu violated the principle of straightforwardness in American culture.

In intercultural communication, such induction of differences can only be used as a guide. It is obviously wrong to take it for granted that either Chinese or Americans only have one kind of thought pattern.

C. Negative Transfer in Religious Beliefs

Religion is a special form of human culture and mainly deals with the nature of life and death, the creation of the universe, the origin of society and groups within the society, the relationships of individuals and groups to one another, and the relation of humankind to nature. The study of religion not only offers insight into the spiritual and psychological needs of people, but also gives us clues into the social aspects of a culture. Great diversity exists between Chinese culture and American culture in that the two cultures are based on different traditional religions, which strongly differ from each other in doctrine. The traditional Chinese culture is based on Taoism, Confucianism, and Buddhism, among which Buddhism plays a leading role. American culture is based on many more coexisting religions, especially on the combination of ancient Greek culture with Christian culture. It is estimated that 86 percent of the U. S. population is Christian (Crystal, 1994, p.343). Although some of the specific precepts, rituals, and names applied to the term *Christianity* may vary (Protestants, Baptist, Methodist, Lutheran, Roman Catholic etc.), they have a multitude of important characteristics in common. Christianity permeates every corner of Americans’ life, and this influences their perceptions and guides their behaviors.

The Chinese religions advocates “Oneness between Man and Nature” and stress *harmoniousness*, under the influence of which people are in pursuit of the unity with the nature in all aspects of life. While doing things, people emphasize, “Man proposes, Heaven disposes” and strive for timeliness, topographical advantages and the support of people. In daily life, many people believe in *fate*. The American religions, however, hold “Dividedness between Man and Nature” and emphasize *oppositeness*. Americans’ self-consciousness of *original sin* compels them to conquer nature unyieldingly and improve themselves continuously so as to reflect divine power and then reach the combination of God with Man. In their opinion, Man is also a creator. Man and Nature are divided and opposite, but man is in a position to dominate and remake nature. In life, if one cannot gain what he wants or the status he desires, it is not, Americans believe, caused by fate, but by laziness or lack of struggle. Those who are obedient to fate are cast aside.

Under the influence of different religions, for one thing, people have different value orientations. For example, Chinese people pursue collective interests, individual sacrifice, steadiness, modesty, knowing one’s place, and “Happy is he who is content”, but Americans emphasize individual interests and rights including self-improvement and material success. In intercultural communication, proverbs related to religions will be completely confusing if the cultural context is not made explicit. For instance, in Chinese culture, there are such proverbs needing additional explanation as “The runaway monk cannot run away with the temple” (implying “a fugitive must belong to some place that can provide clues”) and “Go on tolling the bell as long as one is a monk” (implying “take a passive attitude towards one’s work”). In America, there are also such proverbs as “Love is blind” (“the blind god” is another name of the god of Love: Cupid and Eros); “God help those who help themselves” and “We must not lie down, and cry, God help us” (both emphasizing self-improvement).

Furthermore, the philosophies of life advocated by religions can even be opposite in different cultures. For example, in China, Confucianism advocates “the doctrine of the mean”, Taoism holds “doing nothing that goes against nature and being contented with one’s lot” and Buddhism teaches people “to be disillusioned with the mortal world and be a devout

believer in retribution for sin". Under the influence of these doctrines, the philosophies of life typical of the Chinese culture came into being: seeking harmony and maintaining equilibrium, being worldly wise and playing it safe, which may be regarded as "passive" or "inactive" by Americans. Such precepts as "you're acting against your own interests" and "A man's life, wealth and rank are governed by life" are popular among Chinese common people. In contrast, Americans are more practical and more active in pursuit of what they want. Popular are such proverbs as "A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush" and "All is fair in love and war". In Americans' eyes, they can try every means to reach their goals without consideration of other people's interests because every one is entitled to fair competition. This, however, may be thought of as selfishness by Chinese people.

D. Negative Transfer in Ethics

Ethics broadly refers to judgments that focus on "degrees of rightness and wrongness, virtue and vice, and obligation in human behavior" (Johannesen, 1996, p.1). Ethics is an elusive topic. As Griffin reminds us, "Ethics has to do with the gray areas of our lives. When the psychological culture moral decisions are black and white, knowing what we should do is easy" (1994, p.458). But in many instances, we find that there is no correct moral code for all time and all people, that each group has its specific morality related to its wants and values, and that most moral ideas are necessarily relative to a particular group of people. That is to say, most ethical standards are products of particular cultures. So it is not surprising that behaviors appropriate or inappropriate to one group may be inappropriate or appropriate to another. For example, in China, intimate touch is acceptable among people of the same sex. Such touching might be regarded as inappropriate in American and Western cultures. The difference between social ethical norms is also reflected in people's attitudes towards old people. In China, people pay more attention to the virtue of *showing respect for the old*, including providing for one's parents, showing filial obedience to parents, and addressing the old respectfully. As for providing for one's parents, there is a vast difference between China and America. In America, elderly people mostly depend on their pension or social welfare for their livelihood. Children do not have to support their parents. In China, nevertheless, the majority hold that grown-up children should care for their elderly parents. Article 15 of Chinese Marriage Law also stipulates that adult children have the obligation to provide for and financially assist their parents. If they don't, theoretically the parents could take their children to court. Thus, in China, those who do not support their elderly parents will be condemned morally or even punished legally. Additionally, in daily life, people often address the elderly "Old Li", "Old Grandpa", "Old Superior", in which "Old" means "experienced" or "authoritative". This custom is rarely observed by Americans because in American culture, "old" may mean "useless".

It is clear from the above discussion that culture has a strong influence on subjective reality and that there are direct links among language, culture, and communicative behavior. The way cultures view reality determines how people see the world and interact in that world. Thus, communication behavior—how people react to their perception of the world—is largely a result of their learning and cultural conditioning. In spite of assimilation of world cultures, each culture has its particularity, which is deep-rooted and is inevitably reflected in its language and people's behaviors.

IV. CONCLUSION

Although this paper only explores negative deep-structure cultural transfers caused by cultural differences between China and America from the group viewpoint, such analysis and exploration are necessary and helpful to foreign language learners because general knowledge about other cultures is the first key to knowing a completely new culture. Without this key, we are sure to judge and understand the foreign culture from our own point of view, which is bound to cause communicative failure. On the other hand, over-generalized knowledge can also hinder our understanding and communication because individual differences exist within all cultures. For full understanding, it is necessary to break apart simple cultural stereotypes with the depth of our learning and to form a kind of sensitivity to nuances in cultural differences. Together with tolerant attitudes towards foreigners and certain communicative strategies, such deep learning helps to avoid misunderstandings and even more serious conflicts in intercultural communication.

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The Effect of Three Techniques for Teaching English Idioms to Iranian TEFL Undergraduates

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Abstract—The present study investigated the effect of using picture, Persian translation equivalent (L1), and English definition (L2) on the learning of 20 decomposable and nondecomposable idioms by 68 Iranian TEFL undergraduates. The focus was on learning both meaning as well as form of the idioms. The idioms were given to the participants to translate into Persian three weeks before the experiment to ensure the participants' unfamiliarity of the idioms. The idioms that were known even by one student were crossed out. Each group of the participants received the instruction in 3 sessions (about 7 idioms each session), and reviewed them in the fourth. The participants received 2 recognition tests (one on form and the other on meaning of the L2 idioms) in the form of multiple-choice in the fifth session, and the same recognition as well as 2 production tests in the form of fill-in-the-blanks 3 weeks later (first on form and then on meaning). The delayed posttests were given in 2 consecutive sessions: first, the production and then the recognition. The findings showed that the picture group outperformed the other groups in all situations. However, a significant outperformance of L1 group over L2 group was observed for decomposable idioms in the first posttest regarding form. The results suggest the pedagogical value of pictures for the teaching of meaning and form of decomposable idioms.

Index Terms—type of instruction, L1 translation, L2 definition, idioms, recognition test, production test

I. INTRODUCTION

Idiomatic expressions are used in all forms of discourse: in conversations, lectures, movies, radio broadcasts, television programs, and so on as well as their usage is so common in English that it seems very difficult (and occasionally unnatural) for L2 learners to function effectively in an L2 communication context without the knowledge of idioms. Therefore, learning English idioms is essential to L2 learners, and every L2 learner must prepare himself or herself to meet these challenges. In fact, L2 learners should learn not only the grammatical structures and vocabulary of the target language but the idioms as well to integrate into the culture of the L2. A study by Seccord and Wiig (1993) confirmed that the knowledge of idioms is essential in reading and social communication.

But what are idioms? How do they differ from other forms of language? What are their different aspects? Idioms are fixed expressions that belong to the conventional repertoire of the native speakers of a language. Both meaning and form of these utterances are standardized, often allowing for only minimal variation. Fixed expressions are phrasal units, and they exist in many varieties (e.g., phrasal verbs, restricted collocations, idiomatic expressions, sayings, and proverbs). Idiomatic expressions or idioms are a particularly interesting variant of fixed expressions, because their meaning is partly or completely non compositional (Sprenger et al., 2006). That is, the relationship between the meanings of the words that make up the idiom and the idiom as a whole is at best indirect, if there is any relation at all. This is most obvious in idioms that are opaque, like, for example, *kick the bucket*. The literal meaning of this phrase does not suggest its figurative meaning *to die*. Still, native speakers of English know that the phrase *last night Jim kicked the bucket* means *Jim is dead*. Of course, a literal reading is not excluded; for example, in a context where there is a discussion about people *kicking the buckets*, the literal reading is preferred (they are kicking the bucket).

With this brief background in mind, the current study examines the effect of different techniques to teaching idioms on the learning of L2 Learners. More precisely, this study compares the performance of three groups of L2 learners on both recognition and production tasks including decomposable idioms after they have been exposed to these idioms through providing the first group with the L1 translation, the second group with L2 definition and synonyms, and the third group with their corresponding pictures.

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Traditionally, idioms have been described as long words that syntactically and semantically behave as lexical entries. Consider the idiomatic expression *kick the bucket*: The literal meaning of the expression *to strike a bucket with one's*

foot has no obvious semantic overlap with the figurative meaning of the expression to *die suddenly*. This noncompositional definition of idioms has been proposed by linguists like Chomsky (1980) and Fraser (1970), and psycholinguists like Bobrow and Bell (1973) and Titone (1999).

The clarification of idioms as noncompositional unitary word strings, which was evident in early psycholinguistic studies and models of idiom comprehension, was due to the fact that traditional models of “literal” language comprehension, in which phrasal meaning is based on a strict compositional analysis, could address how figurative meanings are realized during comprehension. All models of idioms processing that has been proposed at that time assumed that idiom comprehension simply requires memory retrieval of stipulated idiomatic meanings (Titone, 1999).

Based on this view, these expressions are noncompositional because their figurative meanings are not the functions of the meanings of their individual parts (Chomsky, 1965; Cooper, 1986). For instance, the figurative interpretation of *shoot the breeze* (“to talk without significant purpose”) cannot be determined through an analysis of the meaning of its individual words. The noncompositional view of idioms holds that their figurative meanings are directly predetermined in the mental lexicon in the same way the meanings of individual words are listed in a dictionary. According to the traditional view, learning the meaning of idioms requires that the speaker forms arbitrary links between idioms and their nonliteral meanings to recognize that (Ackerman, 1982; Prinz, 1983).

Contrary to the traditional view based on which idioms are noncompositional, many idiomatic phrases appear to be decomposable or analyzable, with the meanings of their parts contributing independently to their overall figurative meaning (Gibbs & Nayak, 1989). Titone (1999) holds that the previous linguistic analyses and processing studies, suggesting traditional noncompositional definitions of idiomaticity, and processing models base on these definitions are inadequate by themselves. Idiomatic expressions exhibit a high degree of internal semantic structure, and literal processing does not stop when an idiom is encountered during comprehension. The compositional approach to idiom representation and processing is based on the notion that idiomatic meanings are built simultaneously out of literal word meanings and the specific interpretation of these word meanings within a particular context (Titone, 1999).

For instance, in the phrase *pop the question*, it is easy to detect that *question* refers to a *marriage proposal* when the verb *pop* is used to refer to the act of uttering it. Similarly, *law* in *lay down the law* refers to the code of conduct in a given situation when the verb phrase *laying down* is used to refer to the act of invoking the law.

Idioms like *pop the question* and *spill the beans* are decomposable, because each component obviously contributes to be overall meaning of the phrase. Idioms whose individual parts do not contribute to the overall figurative meanings are semantically nondecomposable (e.g., *kick the bucket* and *shoot the breeze*). This is because people experience difficulty in breaking these phrases in to their component parts (Gibbs & Nayak, 1989).

The analyzability of idioms does not depend on the word string’s being literally well formed (Gibbs & Nayak, 1989). For instance, *pop the question* is literally irregular but semantically decomposable. All that matters for an idiom to be viewed as decomposable is for its parts to have meanings, either literal or figurative, that contribute independently to the phrase’s overall figurative interpretation (Gibbs, 1994).

Teaching and learning idioms is one of the most difficult areas in which L2 teachers and learners are involved. Therefore, L2 scholars and teachers have always been searching for practical and effective teaching techniques for teaching idioms. Idioms make up a large proportion of any discourse, and the comprehension and production of them are the main parts of the studies of idiomaticity in both first and second language literature. A number of studies (e.g., Botelho da Silva & Cutler 1993; Colombo 1993; Cronk & Schweigert 1992; McGlone et al., 1994) focused on idiom comprehension. Cronk and Schweigert (1992) identified familiarity and literalness as measurable indications for the computation and representation of idiomatic meaning in the mental lexicon. Botelho da Silva and Cutler (1993) studied the role of ill-formedness in idiom processing while the case of ambiguity and the relationship between context and different types of idioms was the main interest of McGlone et al. (1994).

According to Cooper (1999) four theories try to explain how English native speakers comprehend idioms: the first called Idiom-list hypothesis (Bobrow & Bell, 1973) which states a native speaker who encounters an idiom first interprets it literally. If a literal meaning does not fit the context in which the expression is situated, then he searches for the idiom in question in special mental idiom lexicon. The second theory which is representation hypothesis (Swinney & Cutler, 1979) considers idioms to be long words that are stored in the mental lexicon along with all other words and both the literal and figurative meanings of the expression are processed simultaneously. The third model, the direct access hypothesis (Gibbs, 1980; 1984; Schweigert, 1986), is an extension of the lexical representation hypothesis, for it posits that a native speaker rarely considers the literal meaning of an idiomatic expression but instead retrieves the figurative meaning directly from the mental lexicon. And finally, the composition model (Gibbs, 1994; Tabossi & Zardon, 1995) which I explained earlier.

Giora’s (1997) graded salience hypothesis is another hypothesis which came out of the discussion on idiom representation, processing, and comprehension, according to which, salient meanings of words or expressions are processed initially (if their lexicalized meaning can be retrieved directly from the mental lexicon rather than from the context) before less salient meanings are activated. Giora believed that metaphor and literal interpretations do not involve equivalent processes. The salient meanings of familiar and novel instances of metaphors, idioms, and irony are always accessed, and always initially, regardless of context, even rich and supportive context; that is, metaphor, idiom, and irony interpretation involves processing the literal meaning (see also Giora, 1999, Giora & Fein, 1999).

In the meantime, other studies (e.g., Arnold & Hornett, 1990; Levorato & Cacciari, 1992, 1995; Nippold & Rudzinski, 1993; Titone 1994) have looked for the relationships between idioms comprehension or production, and age and awareness of semantic links and cognitive abilities. For instance, Nippold and Rudzinski (1993) like Arnold and Hornett (1990) and Levorato and Cacciari (1992, 1995) found that familiarity, idiom transparency, and idiom performance gradually improved as the participants' age increased.

Similarly, Titone (1994) found familiarity, compositionality, predictability, and literally to be important dimensions in the processing of L1 idioms. It is unfortunate that this intensity of research into L1 idiom processing and comprehension has not been matched by equal level interest among SLA researchers. However, Irujo (1986) utilized recognition and production tests to demonstrate that advanced students of English rely on knowledge of their native Spanish in order to comprehend and produce L2 idioms. She further observed that learners find those idioms which are identical in both L1 and L2 the easiest to comprehend and produce. Idioms which are similar in L1 and L2 present to learners with only somewhat more difficulty, although production tests reveal interference from Spanish. Those idioms which are completely different in L1 and L2, however, prove the most difficult for learners to comprehend and produce, with almost no positive or negative transfer between the two languages.

In an attempt to obtain information about the ways in which L2 learners process, comprehend, and interpret idiomatic expressions both in and out of context, Liontas (2001) found that idiom comprehension performance in Modern Greek significantly improves if contextual information is present. One key finding that emerged from the Liontas (1997, 2001) studies is that knowledge and understanding of vocabulary is directly linked to idiom performance regardless of whether contextual support is provided to L2 learners.

Boer and Demecheleer (2001) draw attention to the cultural aspects of teaching idioms. They claimed that the possible impact of cross-cultural variation on learners' interpreting idioms invites language teachers to give extra attention to figurative expression in the target language that relate to metaphoric themes that are less salient in the native language. Furthermore, they believe that an approach to teaching idioms will benefit from teacher's awareness of cross-cultural as well as cross-linguistics differences.

In fact, several researchers have suggested that L2 learners, unlike L1 learners, appear to have considerable difficulties comprehending and producing idioms accurately (Cooper, 1998; Irujo, 1986, 1993). Sadeghilar (1993) focused on the application of translation in the process of learning idioms and found that identical idioms in both English and Persian would show positive transfer since they are the easiest to be comprehended and produced correctly. Similar idioms would show negative transfer and their comprehension is as high as identical idioms, but their productions reflect interference from Persian. Different idioms would show neither positive transfer nor negative one. Their comprehension and production seemed to be lower than those of other two types. Sadeghi (1995) also suggested that lexicon-semantic based approach in teaching English and idioms would lead to much better performance and comprehension for the Iranian L2 learners. The present study was intended to compare the efficiency of three different techniques for teaching idioms, namely, L1 translation, L2 definition and synonyms, and pictorial representation of the idioms in terms of L2 learners' mastery of these idioms in the Iranian context. Also, it aimed to see if there was any interaction between the three techniques of teaching idioms, and learning the form and meaning of the same idioms. And also this study was to identify if these teaching approaches had different effects on the performance of the L2 learners on the recognition test compared with their performance on the production test. This study tried to answer the following questions:

1-Does the techniques of using L1 translation, L2 definition and synonym, and picture, have a significant effect on L2 learning of both meaning and form of decomposable idioms as measured through a recognition task?

2-Does the technique of using L1 translation, L2 definition and synonym, and picture, have a significant effect on L2 learning of both meaning and form of decomposable idioms as measured through a production task?

3-If there is any effect of instruction type on L2 learning of decomposable idioms, will this effect be maintained over a period of three weeks?

Hopefully, the results of this study will help L2 teachers to learn which type of teaching techniques are more effective for which type of idioms. Furthermore, better learning of idiomatic expressions helps L2 learners communicate better in the L2 and improves their ability in other skills such as reading and listening.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

The participants were selected from 120 Iranian TEFL undergraduates who were studying in four conversation classes at Islamic Azad University of Najaf Abad. They were homogenized through an Oxford Placement Test. All the participants took the Oxford Placement Test. Those students who scored one standard deviation below and one standard deviation above the mean were selected for the study. Only 68 students were selected. The idioms were presented by picture in the first class; in the second class, the Persian translation equivalents of the idioms were provided; and the participants in third and fourth class were taught the idioms using English definition.

B. *Materials*

Four instruments were used to collect the necessary data: First, the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) is a grammar test including 100 items, each having three choices. The test naturally starts with some examples which help students to do the test. It was used in order to homogenize students based on their general English proficiency. Second, a pretest was given to the participants three weeks before the experiment in order to find out whether the learners knew the meaning of idioms or not. Then, based on the results of the pretest, the idioms that were known even by one student were crossed out and replaced by other idioms. In addition, in order to decide on the decomposability/nondecomposability of the idioms, the researcher used Titone and Connine's (1994) classification. Third, a multiple-choice test on form and one on meaning of idioms, as the immediate and delayed recognition tests, were given to the participants. Each of these two tests included 20 items, 10 of which were on the L2 idioms (10 decomposable idioms) and 10 were fillers. It should be noted that in the form recognition test, the participants were asked to choose the best answer that completed each idiom, and in the meaning recognition test, they were asked to choose the correct equivalent of the idiom. In addition, the form recognition test was handed out to the participant first. Fourth, after three weeks, the participants took the delayed production posttest on form and meaning of the idioms in the form of fill-in-the-blanks. This test included 10 L2 idioms, and the participants were asked to complete the idioms in the blanks.

All the tests were piloted with a smaller sample of the same population. The reliability of all tests was measured by KR-21, which ranged from .83 to .88. The supervisor and advisor of the researcher confirmed the validity of the tests.

C. Procedure

The following steps were taken to collect the necessary data. First, the participants were homogenized through the OPT. Then, the selected idioms were given to the participants in the pretest to translate into Persian three weeks before the experiment to ensure the participants' unawareness of the idioms. After that, the idioms that were known even by one student were crossed out. Then, the participants who were studying in four conversation classes were randomly assigned to the three experimental groups. The idioms were presented by picture to the first group, the Persian translation equivalents to the second group, and the English definitions to the third and fourth groups. All the idioms were, then, reviewed in a separate session for each experimental group. It should be mentioned that the medium of instruction was English in all classes. In the next session, the participants received two recognition tests in the form of multiple-choice and the same recognition as well as one production test in the form of fill-in-the-blanks were handed out to them three weeks later (first on form and then on meaning). The delayed posttests were given in two following sessions: first, the production, and then, the recognition. Beforehand, the recognition and production tests were piloted with similar group of students in order to ensure the clarity of instructions and questions and to determine the reliability of the test as well as the time needed for answering the tests. The time needed for conducting the recognition test was about 10 minutes. This time was about 20 minutes for the production test.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

As seen in Tables 1, a One-way ANOVA run on the mean scores of the participants on the OPT shows there was no significant differences among the participants, $F(2, 67) = 1.228$, $p = .300$.

TABLE 1.
A ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE OPT

ANOVA					
proficiency	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	68.633	2	34.317	1.228	.300
Within Groups	1816.352	65	27.944		
Total	1884.985	67			

As Table 3 shows, a one-way ANOVA between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of instruction types on learning the meaning of decomposable idioms, as measured by the first recognition test. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the scores for the three groups: $F(2,677) = 23.778$, $p = .000$. Also a one-way ANOVA between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of instruction types on learning the form of decomposable idioms, as measured by the first posttest. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the scores for the three groups: $F(2,677) = 29.165$, $p = .000$.

TABLE2.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE MEANING AND FORM SCORES OF DECOMPOSABLE IDIOMS IN THE FIRST RECOGNITION POSTTEST

ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
meaning test scores	Between Groups	8.434	2	4.217	23.778	.000
	Within Groups	120.061	677	.177		
	Total	128.494	679			
form test scores	Between Groups	12.498	2	6.249	29.165	.000
	Within Groups	145.055	677	.214		
	Total	157.553	679			

Post hoc tests were run to spot which groups performed differently. Table 3 shows the results. As the post hoc tests show, the following means are significantly different. The performance of the picture group on learning the meaning of decomposable idioms is significantly better than the translation group (mean difference .182) and the English definition (.267). However, no significant difference between the English definition and the translation groups is found. Also, the performance of the picture group on learning the form of decomposable idioms has been significantly better than the translation group (mean difference .177) and the English definition (mean difference .330). In addition, the performance of the translation group is significantly better than the English definition (mean difference .153) as far as form is concerned.

TABLE3.
POST HOC TESTS ON THE MEAN DIFFERENCES OF PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE ON THE MEANING AND FORM OF DECOMPOSABLE IDIOMS IN FIRST RECOGNITION POSTTEST

Multiple Comparisons							
Scheffe							
Dependent Variable	(I) instruction type	(J) instruction type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
meaning test scores	picture	translation	.182*	.040	.000	.08	.28
		English definition	.267*	.039	.000	.17	.36
	translation	picture	-.182*	.040	.000	-.28	-.08
		English definition	.085	.039	.098	-.01	.18
	English definition	picture	-.267*	.039	.000	-.36	-.17
		translation	-.085	.039	.098	-.18	.01
form test scores	picture	translation	.177*	.044	.000	.07	.29
		English definition	.330*	.043	.000	.22	.44
	translation	picture	-.177*	.044	.000	-.29	-.07
		English definition	.153*	.043	.002	.05	.26
	English definition	picture	-.330*	.043	.000	-.44	-.22
		translation	-.153*	.043	.002	-.26	-.05

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

A mixed between within-subjects analysis of variance was conducted to assess the impact of the three different instructions on the participants' scores on learning the meaning of decomposable idioms as measured through the recognition posttests across two time periods. Table 4 shows the results:

TABLE4.
EFFECT OF TIME AND INSTRUCTION TYPE ON LEARNING THE MEANING OF DECOMPOSABLE IDIOMS

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects							
Measure: MEASURE_1							
Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
time	Sphericity Assumed	1.444	1	1.444	13.818	.000	.021
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1.444	1.000	1.444	13.818	.000	.021
	Huynh-Feldt	1.444	1.000	1.444	13.818	.000	.021
	Lower-bound	1.444	1.000	1.444	13.818	.000	.021
time * instructiontype	Sphericity Assumed	.892	2	.446	4.268	.014	.013
	Greenhouse-Geisser	.892	2.000	.446	4.268	.014	.013
	Huynh-Feldt	.892	2.000	.446	4.268	.014	.013
	Lower-bound	.892	2.000	.446	4.268	.014	.013
Error(time)	Sphericity Assumed	68.642	657	.104			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	68.642	657.000	.104			
	Huynh-Feldt	68.642	657.000	.104			
	Lower-bound	68.642	657.000	.104			

There was a substantial main effect for time at the $p < .05$ level in the scores for the three groups: $F(1, 657) = 13.818$, $p = .000$. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.21 with three types of instructions across the two time periods. And, it shows that the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. There was

significant interaction between the method type and time on learning the meaning of decomposable idioms at the $p < .05$ level in the scores for the three groups: $F(2,657) = 4.268$, $p = .014$, it shows that the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.13 with the three types of instructions across the two time periods.

The table 5 illustrates participants' performance on the meaning of decomposable in recognition posttest across two time periods.

TABLE5.
PERFORMANCE ON THE MEANING OF DECOMPOSABLE IN RECOGNITION POSTTEST ACROSS TWO TIME PERIODS

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Measure: MEASURE_1						
Transformed Variable: Average						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	801.743	1	801.743	3609.827	.000	.846
instructiontype	10.486	2	5.243	23.607	.000	.067
Error	145.920	657	.222			

Table 5 shows that there was a significant effect of the three types of techniques on teaching of both types of idioms over a period of three weeks on learning the meaning of decomposable idioms, $F(2,657) = 23.607$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was medium. The effect size calculated using eta squared was 0.067 with three types of instructions.

Post hoc tests were run to spot which groups performed differently. Table 6 shows the results. As the post hoc tests show the following means are significantly different. Over a period of three weeks, the performance of the picture group on learning the meaning of decomposable idioms is significantly better than the performance of the translation group (mean difference.14) and also the English definition group (mean difference.21). However, no significant difference between the English definition and translation groups is found.

TABLE6.
POST HOC TEST ON THE MEAN DIFFERENCES OF PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE ON THE MEANING OF DECOMPOSABLE IDIOMS IN RECOGNITION POSTTEST ACROSS TWO TIME PERIODS

Multiple Comparisons						
Measure: MEASURE_1						
Scheffe						
(I) instruction type	(J) instruction type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
picture	translation	.14*	.032	.000	.06	.22
	English defintion	.21*	.031	.000	.14	.29
translation	picture	-.14*	.032	.000	-.22	-.06
	English defintion	.07	.032	.076	-.01	.15
English defintion	picture	-.21*	.031	.000	-.29	-.14
	translation	-.07	.032	.076	-.15	.01

Based on observed means.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

A mixed between within-subjects analysis of variance was conducted to assess the impact of the three different methods on the participants' scores on learning the form of decomposable idioms as measured through the recognition posttest across the two time periods. The results are illustrated in Table 7:

TABLE 7.
EFFECT OF TIME AND INSTRUCTION TYPE ON LEARNING THE FORM OF DECOMPOSABLE IDIOMS

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects							
Measure: MEASURE_1							
Source		Type II Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
time	Sphericity Assumed	1.169	1	1.169	8.826	.003	.013
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1.169	1.000	1.169	8.826	.003	.013
	Huynh-Feldt	1.169	1.000	1.169	8.826	.003	.013
	Lower-bound	1.169	1.000	1.169	8.826	.003	.013
time * instructiontype	Sphericity Assumed	2.207	2	1.104	8.332	.000	.025
	Greenhouse-Geisser	2.207	2.000	1.104	8.332	.000	.025
	Huynh-Feldt	2.207	2.000	1.104	8.332	.000	.025
	Lower-bound	2.207	2.000	1.104	8.332	.000	.025
Error(time)	Sphericity Assumed	87.019	657	.132			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	87.019	657.000	.132			
	Huynh-Feldt	87.019	657.000	.132			
	Lower-bound	87.019	657.000	.132			

There was a substantial main effect for time at the $p < .05$ level in the scores for the three groups: $F(1,657) = 8.826$, $p = .003$. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.013 with the three types of instructions across the two time periods. And, it shows that the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. There was a significant interaction between the method type and time on learning the form of decomposable idioms at the $p < .05$ level in the scores for the three groups: $F(2,657) = 8.332$, $p = .000$, and it shows that the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared was 0.025 with the three types of instructions across the two time periods:

TABLE 8.
PERFORMANCE ON LEARNING THE FORM OF DECOMPOSABLE IDIOMS

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects						
Measure: MEASURE_1						
Transformed Variable: Average						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	594.796	1	594.796	2090.859	.000	.761
instructiontype	14.248	2	7.124	25.043	.000	.071
Error	186.900	657	.284			

Table 8 shows the results that there was a significant effect of the three types of techniques on learning both types of idioms over a period of three weeks on learning the form of decomposable idioms, $F(2,657) = 25.043$, $p = .000$, and it shows that the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was medium. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.071 with the three types of instructions. Post hoc tests were run to spot which groups performed differently. Table 9 shows the results. As the post hoc tests show, the following means are significantly different. Over a period of three weeks, the performance of the picture group on learning the form of decomposable idioms is significantly better than the performance of the translation group (mean difference.16) and English definition group (mean difference.25). However, no significant difference between the English definition and translation groups was found:

TABLE 9.
POST HOC TEST ON THE MEAN DIFFERENCES OF PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE ON THE FORM OF DECOMPOSABLE IDIOMS IN RECOGNITION POSTTESTS ACROSS TWO TIME PERIODS

Multiple Comparisons						
Measure: MEASURE_1						
Scheffe						
(I) instruction type	(J) instruction type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
picture	translation	.16*	.036	.000	.07	.25
	English definition	.25*	.036	.000	.16	.34
translation	picture	-.16*	.036	.000	-.25	-.07
	English definition	.08	.036	.065	.00	.17
English definition	picture	-.25*	.036	.000	-.34	-.16
	translation	-.08	.036	.065	-.17	.00

Based on observed means.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 10.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE MEANING AND FORM SCORES OF DECOMPOSABLE IDIOMS IN DELAYED PRODUCTION TEST

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
meaning delay	Between Groups	11.039	2	5.519	30.025	.000
	Within Groups	120.773	657	.184		
	Total	131.812	659			
form delay	Between Groups	14.119	2	7.060	32.284	.000
	Within Groups	143.667	657	.219		
	Total	157.786	659			

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the scores for the three groups: $F(2, 657) = 8.852$, $p = .000$. Also, a one-way ANOVA between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the instruction types on learning the form of decomposable idioms, as measured by the second posttest. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the scores for the three groups: $F(2, 657) = 9.336$, $p = .000$.

Post hoc tests were run to spot which groups performed differently. Table 11 shows the results.

TABLE 11.
POST HOC TESTS ON THE MEAN DIFFERENCES OF PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE ON THE MEANING AND FORM OF DECOMPOSABLE IDIOMS IN
DELAYED PRODUCTION TEST

Multiple Comparisons							
Scheffe							
Dependent Variable	(I) instruction type	(J) instruction type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
delayed meaning scores	picture	translation	.095*	.037	.038	.00	.19
		English definition	.152*	.036	.000	.06	.24
	translation	picture	-.095*	.037	.038	-.19	.00
		English definition	.057	.037	.310	-.03	.15
	English definition	picture	-.152*	.036	.000	-.24	-.06
		translation	-.057	.037	.310	-.15	.03
delayed form scores	picture	translation	.161*	.044	.001	.05	.27
		English definition	.161*	.043	.001	.06	.27
	translation	picture	-.161*	.044	.001	-.27	-.05
		English definition	.000	.043	1.000	-.11	.11
	English definition	picture	-.161*	.043	.001	-.27	-.06
		translation	.000	.043	1.000	-.11	.11

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As the post hoc tests show, the following means are significantly different. The performance of the picture group on learning the meaning of decomposable idioms is significantly better than the translation group (mean difference .095) and the English definition group (.152). However, no significant difference between the English definition and the translation groups was found. Also, the performance of the picture group on learning the form of decomposable idioms has been significantly better than the translation group (mean difference .161) and the English definition group (mean difference .043) in the recognition delayed posttest. However, as far as form is concerned, no significant difference between the English definition and the translation groups is found.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The first research question asked whether there was any significant effect of the type of instruction, using L1 translation, using L2 definitions and synonyms, and using pictures on learning both meaning and form of decomposable idioms as measured through a recognition task. The analyses of the data regarding both meaning and form showed that the participants in the picture group outperformed the other two groups; however, as far as the form was concerned, the L1 translation group outperformed the L2 group as well. Regarding the positive effect of pictures, it seems that addition of a picture enhanced the learner's understanding of meaning as well as preserving the form of the idiom in the memory. The positive effect of pictures on word learning was shown by Plass, Chun, Mayer, and Leutner, (1998). This is in line with the claim of the generative theory of multimedia teaching (Mayer, 1997, 2001). As Mayer (2005b) believes, it is through two channels that human beings represent and manipulate knowledge: a visual-pictorial and an auditory-verbal (Mayer, 2002, 2005b). Cognitively, it could be argued that presentation of the information visually and textually might cause L2 learners to process information through different channels. This may engage L2 learners in active processing within the channels, including selecting relevant words and pictures, organizing them into coherent pictorial and verbal models, and integrating them with each other and with the previous mental knowledge. Furthermore, Mayer (2005b) shows the best performance of the participants when both visual and textual information was selected, moderate when only one mode was selected and worst when neither was selected. The same findings were reported by Al-Seghayer (2001), Chun and Plass (1996), Yeh and Wang, (2003), and Yoshii and flaitz (2002), too.

The second research question asked whether there was any significant effect of the type of instruction, using L1 translation, using L2 definition and synonym, and using picture on L2 learning of both meaning and form of decomposable idioms as measured through a production task. The answer to this research question is "yes." The results show that the pictures could significantly improve L2 learners' production of L2 idioms regarding both meaning and form. The better performance of the L1 group over the L2 group in terms of meaning might show that in production the need for closer proximity to the conceptual system is perceived. This proximity seems to be through L1. As Able (2003) believes, lack of an idiom entry for an idiom, which is mainly the case for decomposable idioms, increases the reliance of the language processor on activating the conceptual representations that are organized around world knowledge and are nonlinguistic and represented at the cognitive level. This conceptual system is believed to be accessed through L1, especially for nonadvanced L2 learners.

The third research question asked whether the effect of type of instruction on the learning of decomposable idioms, if there was any, was maintained over a delay of three weeks. As data analysis of the delayed recognition test showed, the picture group surpassed the other two groups in all conditions and a few differences that existed between the L1 group and the L2 group disappeared. In other words, the advantage of having additional channel of processing input manifested itself in the delayed recognition test as well. In addition, as the results of the mixed between-within-subjects analysis of variance show, the performance was generally better in the delayed recognition test than the immediate, although the effect size is small in almost all cases.

To sum up, as the quantitative results of this study show, better recognition and production of form and meaning of the two types of idioms occurs when both channels (verbal and visual) are engaged in almost all cases.

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The Application of Schema Theory in College English Listening Teaching

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Abstract—Listening was once believed to be a passive one-way comprehensive process. However, with the development of language teaching, listening comprehension is found to be an interactive process of two-way communication, during which listeners' background knowledge play an important role. Schema theory lays theoretical foundation for this explanation. Based on this, the author designs a Schema Theory-based Teaching Mode of English Listening, which is a framework of pre-listening, during-listening and post-listening activities for classroom listening teaching. This mode aims to improve reasonably and effectively college English listening teaching and the students' listening competence.

Index Terms—listening, schema theory, application

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening is the most frequently used language skill in everyday life. The effect of the teaching of English listening directly influences the students' language reception and practical communicative competence. However, listening course is not regarded as important as other courses in some colleges in China, and the teaching quality is unsatisfactory. In language teaching, listening comprehension used to be regarded as a passive skill and listeners were even called as tape-recorders. Such a view on listening fails to account for the interpretations listeners make as they hear the spoken text according to their own purpose, their expectations and their own store of background knowledge. In college English listening class in China, many teachers just play the tape without presenting necessary hints or background knowledge to students and they usually plunge the students into listening directly without any preparation, which makes listening comprehension difficult. Students are passive receivers in the process of listening. Teachers emphasize decoding, but neglect the role of cognitive faculties of students toward comprehension. Students seldom have chances to devote their intelligence to listening process.

But now, listening comprehension is treated as an active process. Listeners are thought as active searchers for meaning. When listening, they will use all relevant background knowledge to understand the incoming input. Rumelhart (1980) thinks the role of background knowledge in language comprehension has been formalized as schema theory. According to schema theory, comprehending a text is an interactive process between the learner's background knowledge and the text. And it is suggested that one of the goals of the teaching of college English listening is to help students activate their background knowledge and use the knowledge to understand the new text. Lacking background knowledge can result in all kinds of difficulties. So teachers should help students to improve both their linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge.

On considering the unsatisfactory teaching quality of listening, it is necessary and possible to apply schema theory to the teaching of English listening. The schema theory is of significance to the teaching of English listening, which can provide methodological and instructive guidance to the teaching of listening and can make the listening course interesting and motivating, so as to reach the aims of enhancing students' listening comprehension ability and improving students' communicative competence.

II. LITERARY REVIEW

Before reviewing the schema theory it is necessary to make clear what schemata is. Recent literature has it that it is the British psychologist Frederick Bartlett that first used the term of schema to refer to an active organization of past reactions or past experience in his classic work *Remembering* (1932).

There are basically three areas of schema that played a part in the act of listening comprehension, which are linguistic schemata, formal schemata, and content schemata. (1) Linguistic schema refers to linguistic knowledge, which is the knowledge of phoneme, vocabulary, phrase, paragraph, sentence structure, grammar, and cohesive structure, etc, which play a basic role in a comprehensive understanding of the text. Linguistic stage is the first step in the whole listening process, during which the listener mainly focuses on the meaning of words, phoneme, pronunciation and syntax. (2) Formal schemata refers to the knowledge of organizational forms and rhetorical structures of a discourse. It includes knowledge of differences in genre, differences in the structure of fables, simple stories, scientific text, newspaper articles, poetry, and so forth. Formal schemata is described as abstract, encoded, internalized, coherent patterns of

media-linguistic and textual organization that guide expectations in listeners' attempts to understand a meaningful piece of language.(3) Content schema deals with the knowledge relative to the content domain of the text, including systems of factual knowledge, values and cultural conventions. Language is not only the simple combination of vocabulary, grammar points and sentence structures, but also the bearer of different levels of the culture. Therefore, the content schemata can facilitate the readers' comprehension of a text, enabling them to predict, choose information and remove ambiguities. "In schema theory research, this type of formal schematic knowledge is usually contrasted with content schematic knowledge, which is claimed to be background knowledge on the topic and relevant social-cultural knowledge. A learner's failure to activate an appropriate schema during learning leads to various degrees of non-comprehension (Carrel and Eisterhold, 1988). They also think that "this failure to activate an appropriate schema may either be due to the speaker's not having provided sufficient clues in the text for the listener to effectively utilize a bottom-up processing mode to activate schemata the listener may already possess, or it may be due to the fact that the listener does not possess the appropriate schema anticipated by the author and thus fails to comprehend. In both instances there is a mismatch between what the speaker anticipates the listener can do to extract meaning from the text and what the listener is actually able to do. The point is that the appropriate schemata must exist and must be activated during text processing".

Schema theory, however, is the realization of the characteristics of schema. Bartlett proposed his schema theory as: "The role of background knowledge in language comprehension has been formalized as schema theory." (Bartlett, 1932, p.93) It means that a text only provides directions for listeners or readers as to how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their own, previously acquired knowledge.

According to the Schema theory, listening is not a simple one-way flow of information to the brain after a sound is heard, but an interactive process of two-way communication during which the listener's background knowledge plays an important role. Listeners do not listen word for word, but rather use their background knowledge, and various strategies such as predicting and confirming to construct meaning from the text. In other words, listening is a meaning-making process involving an interaction between the listener and the text. In summary, the nature of the listening process is an active interactive process to serve certain communication, in which the listener's previous knowledge takes effort with the heard content interactively.

III. APPLICATION OF SCHEMA THEORY IN LISTENING TEACHING

The pedagogical sequence of pre-listening, during-listening and post-listening activities is not new. However, few studies have ever centered upon how Schema Theory can be applied through the whole procedure. In light of this, the author designs a Schema Theory-based Teaching Mode of English Listening, which is a framework of pre-listening, during-listening and post-listening activities for classroom listening teaching. This mode aims to improve reasonably and effectively college English listening teaching.

A. *Pre-listening Activities*

Pre-listening stage is a necessary phase, which turns the students' passive state of mind into an active one and prepares students for the while-listening with a purpose, a high motivation, anticipation as well as some necessary listening skills.

1. Establishing a purpose for listening

There is an association between expectation, purpose, and comprehension; therefore, a purpose should be given to the learners. Listening purposes vary according to whether learners are involved in listening as a component of social interaction, listening for information, academic listening, listening for pleasure, or for some other reasons. By the same token, listening tasks may vary according to whether they require global comprehension or partial comprehension. The definition of a purpose enables the listener to listen selectively for significant information, easier as well as more natural than trying to understand everything.

2. Activating existing knowledge

Teachers should give students the questions before they listen to the target text. By reading the questions, students may build up their own expectations about the coming information, and also by trying to find answers to these questions, their prior knowledge on the topic can be activated. If we ask the students to read the questions carefully, they will know what the main idea of the passage is, and the speaker will mainly talk about the benefits of social recognition of the affair. It can make the understanding of the listening materials become easier.

3. Brainstorming

Brainstorming is "a technique whose purpose is to initiate some sort of thinking process, which involves students in a rapid-fire, free-association listing of concepts or ideas or facts or feelings relevant to some topic or context." (Brown, 2001, p.181)

Brainstorming serves as a "warming-up" to the theme, as well as the framework for the introduction of some new information. The teacher introduces the general topic and students are asked to brainstorm possible events, characters, feelings, any information they know about the topic. By brainstorming, good learners can make intelligent guesses, use contextual clues and trigger a variety of potentially relevant schemata to help their comprehension.

4. Providing necessary cultural background information

At the pre-listening stage, the teacher should provide students with much more cultural background knowledge concerned with the listening material. Listeners who are not familiar with the culture may have considerable difficulty in interpreting the words that they hear even if they can understand their surface meaning. Take the following dialogue as an example,

A: Have you got any seats in the stalls, please?

B: Yes, we have.

A: How much are they, please?

B: 3.75 each.

A: Are there any seats at 2.50?

B: Yes, there are some in the balcony, for how many?

A: ...

This dialogue is very simple without new words, but some students still cannot understand it. That is because they know nothing about British theatre. If they know “stalls” refer to the seats in the part of a theatre nearest to the stage and “balcony” refers to the seats at both sides of a theatre, then they will understand why the tickets for the stalls are more expensive than the tickets for the balcony. Therefore, lack of cultural knowledge will be an obstacle to listening comprehension.

5. Multi-media

Projector, computer, scanner, and video presenter will achieve satisfactory results in listening comprehension. Pictures are also very important for listeners to construct complete and permanent schema. It will help them better remember and comprehend and recall the information in the listening materials. For example, while talking about traveling in New York, teachers could show some pictures of the famous places in New York, together with key words below them. Features and history about these places can be explained by teachers. Some English programs about traveling could also be projected here. Thus, students can retrieve or construct relevant schema.

After some actively prepared work at pre-listening stage, students are willing to receive the incoming information.

B. While-listening Activities

Teacher intervention during this phase is virtually impossible, because of the ephemeral nature of listening. In listening, especially, transactional listening, the hearer may not always have the opportunity to stop the speaker. Instead, the stream of speech will continue to flow. Bradley (1988) finds that people listen and think at approximately four times the normal speaking rate. Simply speaking, one can think faster than the speaker can talk. Therefore, students are encouraged to use the “rate gap” to actively process the message. In order to use that extra time wisely, there are several things students can be trained to do: put down key words, or wonder what motives the speaker has in saying it, or predict information expected to be included in the message, or decide whether the ongoing interpretation is consistent with their predictions, or summarize frequently in their minds what has been said, or identify the main points and the speaker’s organization pattern. In all of these above-mentioned activities, schemata can be recalled to help enormously. In conclusion, an effective listener should constantly check their understanding of message by making predictions, confirming predictions, making inferences, evaluating and reflecting. Besides, according to listening purpose, they should know whether and where close or cursory listening is required. And sometimes, if students listen to a comparatively long passage and are allowed to take notes, they are expected to be flexible note-takers instead of rigid ones who try to get every word down.

C. Post-listening Activities

Well-planned post-listening activities are just as important as those before and during. In this stage, students should be encouraged to act upon what they have heard to clarify meaning and extend their thinking. Students can summarize the listening material orally, in writing, or as an outline. Having students retell or summarize the report is proved a useful way of checking comprehension. In addition to the traditional outline format, students could use time lines, flow charts, ladders, circles, diagrams, webs, or maps. Firstly, these activities strengthen students’ understanding about information having been heard and help them store new information prepared for listening comprehension next time. If students are asked to take notes during listening, then in this stage, students can also review their notes and add information that they do not have an opportunity to take down during the speech. In all, in post-listening stage, prior knowledge that has been activated is consolidated and new information that has just been learned get reviewed. Besides, post-listening activities would help the learners to transfer the listening skill to the world beyond the listening classroom, for example, integrate listening with the other language skills, such as acting out a dialogue, reading a related text, or writing a response journal. Students can also be urged to use whatever information they gather from the listening material to have an extended discussion in this stage. Some controversial reports can lead to a debate or role-play. This again proves that listening comprehension plays a key role in facilitating language learning.

IV. AN EXPERIMENT ON APPLICATION OF SCHEMA THEORY INTO LISTENING TEACHING

A. Purpose

The main purpose of this investigation is to find out whether applying schema theory in the teaching practice of

English listening, especially in pre-listening activities, is more effective than traditional teaching approach in improving the students' listening comprehension ability.

B. Subjects

The subjects of this investigation are 54 first-year English majors in Dezhou University. They will study English in the college for three years. The textbook is *Step by Step* of Huadong Normal University. Because they are freshmen of the same grade, just graduating from high middle school, the situation in these two classes is similar to each other. None of them has learned anything about schema theory. The author chose Class One as the experimental class (EC) and Class Two as the control class (CC).

C. Instruments

Two tests (pre-test and post-test) and a three-month teaching experiment are used to verify the purpose of the research. Each test paper is designed purposefully in order to test whether the students' listening comprehension ability has been improved after the students have been taught with the new teaching approach based on schema theory for three months.

Each of the listening comprehension tests consists of three sections. The total score of each test is 100. Section A consists of 10 short conversations. After listening to each conversation, the listeners are asked to choose the correct answers. In Section B, there is a short passage. The listeners are asked to listen to the short passage and fill in each blank with the exact word they had heard, paying attention to its spelling. The main purpose for choosing these two kinds of exercise is to check the students' linguistic ability of vocabulary and grammar. In Section C, the students listen to another short passage and then try to answer the questions. In this part, the testing purpose focuses on checking the students' advanced and comprehensive listening ability.

D. Procedure

In order to make the result more reliable and get a better understanding of students' listening comprehension level, a pre-test was conducted at the beginning of the experiment. After that, their performance was scored and the scores are analyzed with the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

A three-month experiment was carried out in the experimental class and the control class. In the control class, the author taught mainly in the traditional way, focusing on the acquisition of linguistic knowledge and explanation of linguistic phenomenon. In the experimental class, a schema-oriented teaching was conducted which emphasis on activating the students' schemata concerning the listening text and aim at developing their abilities of inference, analysis and prediction.

After that, a final test was conducted to all students. Then, the papers are also scored and analyzed with SPSS.

The mean scores, standard derivations, and t-values are compared to see whether the effect is significant or not.

E. Treatment

In the control class, the author taught mainly in the traditional way, focusing on the acquisition of linguistic knowledge and explanation of linguistic phenomenon. The traditional approach was carried out in this way:

- 1) pre-teaching of new words and expressions;
- 2) intensive listening; detailed questions for the students to answer; detailed explanation of the text step by step, analyzing the sentence structures and translating some difficult sentences into Chinese, even the repetition of the original sentence once the students come across difficulties in sound recognition;
- 3) extensive listening; questions about general context to check whether the students have understood the text or not;
- 4) examination of vocabularies or exponents of grammar to check the students' performance.

As to the experimental class, a schema-oriented teaching was conducted. Schema activation was emphasized by employing the classroom activities which were prepared in light of schema theory. At the beginning of the listening class, pre-listening activities were emphasized.

Lesson 28 "Transportation" in *step by step book 2* is chosen as an example to show the application of schema theory into listening teaching in the experimental class.

The sample lesson is conducted in the following steps:

Step 1: Before listening, arouse students' interest by giving warm- up questions: How do you prefer to travel when you are on vacation? Why?

Step 2: Help students with prediction as a top- down processing skill by giving the direction that Jason traveling around in London and by writing down the key word "transportation" on the blackboard. To activate existent schemata, divide students into groups then to brainstorm what are some ways he can travel by human power. Elicit answers from a few students.

Step 3: After the first extensive listening with audio only, check prediction results. To build up a general schema, then define "transportation" orally and specifically according to Jason's own description.

Step 4: Play the audio again for another extensive listening. Then inject the pictures of different means of transportation: boat, bicycle, tube, plane, bus, train taxi to build up a specific schema.

Step 5: Have students review questions in listening exercise to locate important points which should be paid more

attention to. Play the audio again for intensive listening. Ask students finish the exercise.

Step 6: Introduce new words, phrases and language points to modify students' misunderstandings of linguistic schemata and remind them bottom-up processing skills. Play the audio as a final check. Give students correct answers.

Step 7: Offer feedback of errors and allow students to watch a relative video to consolidate the new schematic knowledge in the follow-up activities.

F. Data Analysis

The author used SPSS 11.5 to analyze the data collected in the two listening comprehension tests. Table 4.1 is the results of the pretest.

TABLE 4.1:
TEST PERFORMANCE OF EC AND CC STUDENTS IN THE PRE-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-value
EC	27	77.8889	6.66978	1.885
CC	27	75.5185	6.47106	

As the table shows, both of the two groups have 27 subjects, and mean scores are similar, 77.8889 and 75.5185 respectively, and the standard deviation is 6.66978 and 6.47106. The t-value (1.885), $-2 < t < 2$, indicates that the two groups are similar at the starting point.

Table 4.2 is a comparison of the Control Class students' performance in the pre-test and the post-test.

TABLE 4.2
TEST RESULTS OF CC STUDENTS IN THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-value
Pre-test	27	75.5185	6.47106	-2.081
Post-test	27	77.5556	5.79345	

The mean scores of the Control Class students in the pre-test and the final-test are 75.518 and 77.5556 respectively. And the t-value (-2.081), $t < -2$, which shows the difference between the two sets of data is significant. Therefore, the Control Class students taught in the traditional teaching method also make significant progress in the past three months.

Table 4.3 is the results of the Experimental Class students' performance in the pre-test and the post-test.

TABLE 4.3
TEST PERFORMANCE OF EC STUDENTS IN THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-value
Pre-test	27	77.8889	6.66987	-2.094
Post-test	27	81.8519	5.59329	

Table 3 shows the contrast of the performance of Experimental Class students between the pre-test and the post-test. The mean score of the Experimental Class students in the post-test is 81.8519, which is 4 points higher than that of the pre-test, 77.8889. And by means of paired t-test, the t-value (-2.094), $t < -2$, demonstrates that the difference between the two tests is clear and significant, which suggests that schema theory does exert some effect on students' listening comprehension.

Table 4.4 is a comparison of the post-test scores of the Experimental Class and the Control Class.

TABLE 4.4
TEST PERFORMANCE OF EC AND CC STUDENTS IN THE POST-TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-value
EC	27	81.8519	5.59329	2.217
CC	27	77.5556	5.79345	

The mean score of the Experimental Class is much higher than that of the Control Class, 81.8519 and 77.5556. And by means of grouped t-test, the t-value (2.217), $t > 2$, indicates that the difference between the two groups is significant. As the above table shows, the students of the experimental class have made much progress compared with the students in the control class. So we could conclude that in the Experimental Class, based on the introduction of the background knowledge of the materials and the stimulation of students' known-knowledge, the students could grasp more ideas of the materials and finish doing the task more successfully than those in the control class. Thus, the new Schema Theory-based teaching mode of English Listening is more efficient than traditional one in improving students' listening comprehension ability.

G. Results and Discussion

Based on the above analysis, some results can be obtained. Firstly, schema theory-based teaching mode can improve students' listening ability. Secondly, the new Schema Theory-based teaching mode of English Listening is more efficient than traditional one in improving students' listening comprehension ability.

During the experiment, the teaching of every lesson was organized and carried out according to the Schema Theory-based teaching mode in the Experimental Class. In the pre-listening phase, some activities were carried out to

help students to find out the aim of listening and provide the necessary background information. These pre-listening activities turned the students' passive state of mind into an active one and prepared students for the while-listening with a purpose. While listening, the students were trained to use some strategies consciously to activate and use their background knowledge and to achieve better understanding. After listening, some post-listening activities were carried out. Some of these activities were the extensions of those carried out at pre-listening and while-listening work, but some were not related to them at all and present a totally independent part of the listening session. These activities strengthened students' understanding of information having been heard and helped them store new information which, in turn, serving as background knowledge, prepared them for listening comprehension next time. After the three-months experiment, students' linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge were both enriched and strengthened. And with the implementation of the Schema Theory-based teaching mode in the listening class, the majority of students in the Experimental Class had become more and more interested in English listening than ever before; and they had developed their awareness of using listening strategies, thus enhancing second language learning. Meanwhile, students had formed a good habit of listening and even they had more confidence in class now. So in the post-test, they did much better than in the pre-test.

From table 4.2, we can see that the Control Class students taught in the traditional teaching mode also had evident improvement in the past three months. But it is much lower than the students in the Experimental Class. The reasons may be as follows:

As English majors, the Control Class students spent much time in practicing their listening ability in their daily language learning, and after three months learning in the university, students' language ability which includes listening ability developed.

In the traditional listening teaching, most of the teachers and learners only put emphasis on basic language points but not the background knowledge. Lack of such kind of knowledge will not only result in the obstacle of communication but also the failure of simple listening. This is also a fatal weakness of the traditional listening teaching and learning. Lack of linguistic competence will undoubtedly hinder students to obtain accurate comprehension. However, it is sometimes the case that students do not have any problems with the passage at the linguistic level, but they still fail to catch what the speakers want to express, which indicates that an effective listening comprehension requires more than the knowledge of the words and grammatical structures. That is why it is not always the case that the more vocabulary and grammar a listener masters, the better listening comprehension he can obtain. More often than not, the failure of comprehension is resulted from problems of insufficient background knowledge, and a large proportion of learner difficulties can be traced to insufficient general knowledge or pragmatic knowledge.

Therefore, in the traditional listening teaching mode, with no activation of background in their mind before listening, students come to the while-listening phase immediately, which caused them feel anxiety and nervous because they know nothing about the listening materials. These psychological and emotional factors will become obstacles in listening and make comprehension more difficult. And with no background activation, students can only use bottom-up processing model which focuses on deriving the meaning of the message based on the incoming language data, from sounds, to words, to grammatical relationships, to meaning. This is a passive and static process and it is always misleading by understanding the word in isolation. In the traditional teaching mode, listening skills and strategies are seldom introduced to students while listening and the post-listening activities are totally neglected. All these can benefit students neither on their language knowledge accumulation nor their improvement of language comprehension. So after three-months learning, the students' listening comprehension in the Control Class were not developed so much as those in the Experimental Class.

From the above discussion, we can see that the new teaching mode which based on the schema theory pays due attention not only to the linguistic knowledge but to the background knowledge as well. It helps students obtain background activation before listening and use both bottom-up and top-down processing models to achieve better understanding while listening. So the Schema Theory-based teaching mode can help students improve their listening comprehension. It is effective and applicable.

V. CONCLUSION

Listening comprehension is a process of interaction between the listener's background knowledge and the presupposed knowledge in the listening text. Schema theory which emphasizes the importance of background knowledge in the process of listening comprehension provides theoretical foundation for it; based on this, the author designs a Teaching Mode of English Listening, which is a framework of pre-listening, during-listening and post-listening activities for classroom listening teaching. Through the text, the new approach based on schema theory is more effective than traditional approach in improving students' listening comprehension ability. The study shows that schema theory facilitates listening comprehension and thus can be applied to practical teaching.

Although schema theory contributes greatly to listening comprehension, it is still imperfect, for it cannot provide explicitly the explanation of all the phenomenon or process concerning listening comprehension. For example, it provides no explanation of why one schema rather than another might be selected to guide comprehension and inference. So, the study is limited. Therefore, much broader research in this respect needs to be further studied.

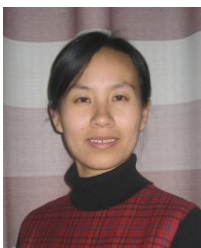
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A Report on the Mock Interviews Conducted for Students of MCA IV Semester in April 2011 at the ELTC

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Abstract—A mock interview was conducted for students of MCA IV Semester, University of Hyderabad on 9, 10 Apr-2011 with the help of the management and experts from outside. The Interview panel assessed the technical and communication competence of the students and gave them individual and group feedback on their performances. Students found it to be a good rehearsal for actual job interview. it was treated as a part of placement related training and continuous assessment of the students during the course.

Index Terms—communicative competence (ability to express effectively), body language (or) non-verbal communication, mother tongue (L1 influence)

I. INTRODUCTION AND OBJECTIVES

Job interviews can be a source of concern for students and graduates who haven't had much experience with them. Mock interviews (MI) help to make them less so. Perhaps the most important key to a successful interview is to be well-prepared for it and to have some knowledge of what to expect. Armed with this information the students would be able to approach interview with confidence and ease. Based on actual job interviews the MI provides a key to success.

With this idea in mind, MI have been conducted for the students of MCA IV Semester as a part of the Communication Skills Course. The exercise was designed to simulate and give the students an insight into the real time interviews and make them aware of what to expect and also how they themselves perform in such a situation.

II. SCOPE AND METHODOLOGY

The MI was treated as a part of the continuous assessment of the students during the course. Resume and the Interview have been treated as two separate internal tests with a maximum of 20 marks allotted to each. Within the 20 marks allotted to the MI, 12 marks were allotted for technical competence and 8 marks for communicative competence. The Parameters for testing have been presented below:

1. TECHNICAL COMPETENCE

Experience /Project work	Basics/SDLC/ OS / IT Trends	DB / Prog Lang.	Web Tech	Remarks
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2. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Language Skills	Body Language / Attire Mannerism	Presentation Skills	Attitude	Remarks
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The panel consisted of two experts from the IT industry, Ms Prabha Subramanian and Mr. Srinivas Ravinuthala and two from communication skills training area Dr. Aruna Lolla and Ms. Sridevi Tulasi. It scrutinized all the Resumes submitted by the students a week earlier and framed suitable interview questions for each candidate. There were 54 students in the whole class and the panel allotted around 15-20 minutes for each 'candidate'. The mock interview for the students included the following:

- ▶ A Job Description (Software development engineer) was given to the students
- ▶ Preparation of Resume reflecting on the job position they were supposed to be applying for
- ▶ Formal Interview with the panel.
- ▶ Job Interview Questions pertaining both to general and IT related topics
- ▶ Performance appraisal with Individual feedback and suggestions to the students.
- ▶ Answer Tips

Present day job interviews are very different from what they used to be a couple of decades ago. Now there is a trend of an interview filled with 'Behavioural questions'. The new strategy is to elicit out information about how the candidate will behave in real life situations similar to the ones he/she might have to face at the employers office. The questions would be direct and could ask candidates to present examples of good work they have done in the past. Some common questions asked in this MI included the following:

PERSONAL

1. What are your strengths? Weaknesses? How do you know? Can you give an example of each? (relate to work environment)

2. How do you come out of your weaknesses?

3. Which courses do you enjoy best? least? Why?

4. Which area(s) of the _____ field interests you most? Why?

5. What do you think it takes to succeed in the _____ field? Where do you see yourself 5 years from now?

6. What kind of company would you like to work for?

7. What inspires you or motivates you in such a company?

8. What good books have you read lately?

Other important questions covered with a view to assess their soft skills were:

General / HR questions

1. Tell us something about yourself

2. Why should we hire you? Or how can you say that you are the right candidate?

3. What problems do you encounter when working with a diverse team?

4. You are the project leader and your project is running behind schedule and your client is repeatedly calling you. Would you avoid his call? How would you meet such a situation?

5. Your team member has made a mistake. Would you report him to your General Manager?

6. In your work situation, how do you feel about reporting to a younger person (minority, woman, etc)?

7. Tell us about a situation when your work was criticized. How did you react?

8. Honestly tell us about the strong points and weak points of your boss??

9. What are your career options?

10. Explain Your ideal company, location and job

11. Explain about your project and draw a diagram to explain the various features and stages of your project?

12. What is your most memorable seminar? Can you please give a seminar on RDBMS?

13. Was there any situation in your graduation where you were praised exceptionally for your technical knowledge?

14. Can you tell me the current trend of Indian software industry and the role of NASSCOM?

In the interview the students were tested to see if they had strong knowledge in the fundamental areas of their domain, their understanding of the core subjects, important contemporary trends and project work. Here is a sample of the questions that were covered:

Database / Testing / Concepts

1) Explain about the difference between a primary key and a Unique key?

2) What are the different RDBMS? Explain about one of them?

3) What do you mean by object-oriented programming?

4) Cloud Computing

5) SOA

6) State the logic behind palindrome program?

7) How do you sort out programs or database or applications?

8) What is the main difference between PL/SQL and SQL?

9) Why do you use stored procedures and what is their main functionality in a RDBMS?

10) Why should we use data ware housing and how can you extract data for analysis with example?

11) What is the difference between Software Engineer and Software Tester

12) What is a view?

Answer: A view is a virtual table, which provides access to a subset of columns from one or more tables. It is a query stored as an object in the database, which does not have its own data.

1) What is the disadvantage of creating large number of indexes on a table?

Answer: The indexes that are created on a table occupy physical disc space, the more the number of indexes created, the more would be the storage space occupied. The indexes slow down.

2) What is the difference between delete, drop and truncate?

Answer: DELETE is used to delete all records in the table. It is a DML command while DROP deletes the structure of the table. TRUNCATE is much faster than DROP and it Cannot ROLLBACK

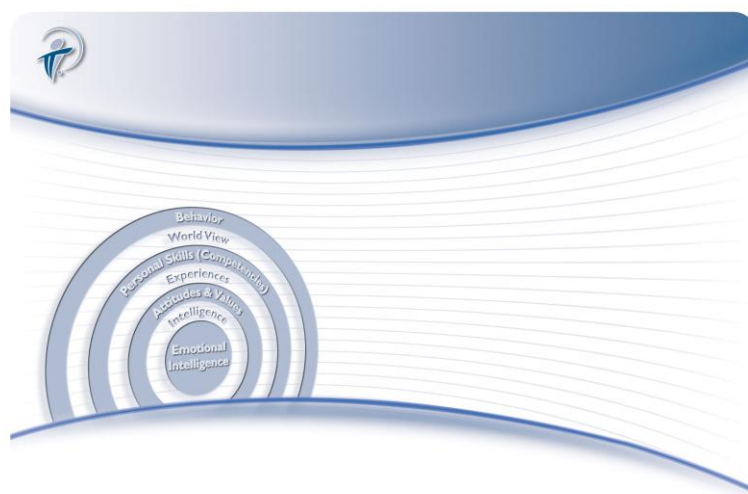
3) Difference between DB and DB server: Database is a collection of related information that may not even involve computers at all. However the database in the computer sense is stored on a disk and plays the role of an information repository. A Database server is the process that makes the data in the database available to the outside world. Either through SQL or some other CLI the ability to retrieve add change and Delete data is realized. DB2 Oracle SQL Server are all relational database servers.

The remaining significant questions along with their answers have been given in an annexure to this report.

Here is the summary of the observations made during the MI. Starting from the empirical questions, the panel went into the inner or psycho – analytical aspects of testing.

III. OBSERVATIONS

- All the 54 students of MCA IV semester attended the MI and reported on time. The MI was conducted from 10 am to 5: 30 pm on 9 and 10 April 2011. Students were divided into four groups as per their roll numbers and were allotted different time slots in order to minimize waiting and inconvenience to them.
- Most of them followed a dress code even though they were not instructed to. The rest also turned up in formals and showed a sense of good attire. All the girl candidates chose come in traditional Indian attires.
- Enthusiasm was perceptible in their waiting room. The candidates exchanged good wishes before facing the panel and shared their experiences among the peer group after facing the interview.
- Most of them observed mannerisms like wishing the panel members as they entered the interview room and thanking as they left.
- Speaking: At least half of them showed a prominent Mother Tongue (L1) influence. Nearly ten candidates required some help and cooperation from the panel in conversing with the latter. The panel even switched to Hindi for a couple of candidates. These students had their school education in vernacular medium or had studied in rural areas.
- Command on their subject: Just 8 – 10 were good and all the remaining of them are yet to master the basics of their field.
- 2 – 3 candidates were uninterested in the area of study or the job – profile and three others could not perform well in the (MI) due nervousness/ anxiety. Some students betrayed a lack of focus in terms of attentiveness, presence of mind or being clear and to-the-point as they answered the questions.
- 2 students namely, Nehal Ahmed and Ramit Taneja put up an exceptionally good performance in the (MI) with their technical and communicative competence coupled with a clarity of purpose.
- Examples of different Attitudes exhibited by some candidate:
 - 1) One student, Krishnanjaneyulu had suffered a leg injury in an accident a day before the interview and experienced great difficulty in moving about. But he tried to concentrate on the interview without paying any attention to his injury or making a mention of it! This was taken positively by the panel members.
 - 2) Another student xyz started telling the panel how difficult was his childhood as he had lost both his parents at an early age. This was not taken positively by the panelists as they felt that the candidate was unnecessarily trying to gain their sympathy.
 - 3) ABC, a typical candidate insisted that he would ‘win the heart of his team mates’ in “natural way” when asked on team work. He betrayed strong opinions and stuck to his point. Two of the panelists also observed that his face turned red as he showed signs of aggressive behavior.
 - 4) One more student could not differentiate between the word ‘adapt’ and ‘adopt’ when the panelists asked him about adapting himself to a new organization. Instead he insisted that it is for the organization to ‘adopt’ him. The panel members found him a little preoccupied and also suggested that he works on improving his listening skills.
- Many candidates waited outside after facing the interview with an interest to take their feedback.
- The complete mark list indicating the parameters of testing along with individual remarks in technical and communicative competence is tabulated and presented in Annexure 1.



IV. ANALYSIS

Most of the prospective employers look for technical competence when they hire technical staff. Hence more marks, 12 out of 20 have been allotted to technical competence in this MI.

If we observe the mark list, we find that only 20% of the candidates are equipped with sound knowledge in their field

while another 20% are clearly below average in their subject knowledge. A major part, 60% of the class comes under average category in technical competence.

This apart, clarity and confidence are also deficient with nearly 20% of the students even though they have enough technical knowledge for being hired as a SWDE.

Communicative Competence comes next in the order of importance because in the given job-profile, a software development engineer does not require exceptional fluency in language or remarkable social skills. An exchange of technical information with the team-mates and participation in planning is what is required for the given job.

In the MI, as many as 20% of the candidates have shown a marked mother tongue influence which affects their intelligibility, while the linguistic competence of 12% of students is inadequate even within the context of their work. Around 60% of the class can manage a good communication in the work environment while another 10% have excellent communicative competence.

Apart from the above mentioned criteria, the personality assessment of the candidates is an integral part of any recruitment interview. This part has its own importance from the human resources point of view besides being directly concerned with the work efficiency of the employee. The candidates here in the MI have shown different personality traits like flexibility, tenacity, analytical ability, orientation towards team-work, etc.. Negative traits

like under/ over confidence, egoism, lack of interest in the job/ desperation for it, lack of focus and the like were also betrayed by the interviewees. These personality traits and attitudes are given out through verbal and non-verbal communication are generally noted down by any prudent interview panel. Hence it requires a lot of internal and external grooming on the part of the interviewees for putting forth their best in the interview.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

The objective for conducting the MI is to facilitate interview preparation and enhancing the employment prospect for our students. We can have the following recommendations based the MI conducted for MCA IV Semester students :

I. Technical field: The course content can be designed and organized in such a way as to give thorough understanding of the basics of the field for the students and provide them with ample practical exposure through project work and field visits.

II. Communication Skills Course: We (CELS) can offer two different courses and give an option for the students to choose the one they think is more needed for them. The first one would be a Basic Language course which focuses on improving the linguistic competence of the learners and the second one would be a Soft Skills Training course which equips the students with necessary skills for doing well in their present study and also in the recruitment interviews.

III. Apart from these, the students can be given better exposure in their select areas of study by conducting field visits, industry interaction, Communication skills training sessions and Language Labs. Conducting one Mock Interview for every batch along with a feedback session can be made mandatory.

IV. Coming to the personality or behavioural aspects, there cannot be any generic or universal recommendations. Individual feedback and suggestion is what is required for the students. Moreover, a major part of improvement takes place by self-correction by the candidates because they realize their own strong and weak points after facing the interview.

VI. CONCLUSION

MI provides a platform for formal and professional interaction in a free and congenial atmosphere and confers several benefits on the interviewee, the soft skills trainer and the educational institute which organizes it.

The students find it useful in streamlining their thoughts, professional ideas and aptitudes.

The soft skills trainer gets a clear insight into the student profile and their specific needs which help in design and organization of the course content.

Enhancing the employability potential of the students is nevertheless good for the educational institute.

Thus MI yields manifold benefits when conducted in the right spirit by a well experienced panel.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The organization of Mock Interview (MI) for the students of MCA, IV Semester wouldn't have happened so fruitfully without the devoted and enthusiastic participation of the students. It is highly appreciable.

Prof. Mohan G. Ramanan, Dean, School of Humanities, who was also the Coordinator of ELTC at that time has been a constant source of encouragement, guidance and administrative support. He readily endorsed the proposal calling it a "splendid idea" and greatly facilitated it by granting venue and honorarium for the external panelists. He has been gracious in giving me permission to publish this work as part of my experiences as a teacher of English Language and Communication Skills.

The panelists themselves extended an insightful help and cooperation. Ms Prabha Subramanian, Mr. Srinivas and Ms. Sridevi Tulasi studied all the CVs submitted by the students and planned the interview much in advance by framing suitable questions for individual "candidate". They have also participated in planning the organization and content of the interview, suggesting to confine our assessment to the array of communication skills which the students would be

required to possess in the given job environment. They have done a wonderful job during the Mock Interview by creating a congenial atmosphere for the students and giving them useful suggestions towards the end.

Prof. C .Raghavendra Rao, Head , Dept. of Computer Science, has encouraged the idea of organizing the MI from the initial stages of its conception and advised me to record it for future reference.

Mr. PH Srinivas (office Assistant) and Mr. Mahendar (attender) from ELTC office have helped in arranging the venue, refreshments, seating and other conveniences for the students as well as the panelists.

I am extremely thankful to all of them for their kind advice, guidance and help rendered in the organization of the Mock Interview.

APPENDIX 1

* A note on Remarks in the table: The panel members made a note of individual remarks on the back page of students' Resume, which were returned to them as a part of feedback after the interview. Hence some of the remarks could not be recorded in the table. The remarks written by the technical panelists have been presented in their original form although there is a minor overlap with Communicative Competence in them.

MCA STUDENTS BATCH (09) - TRIAL INTERVIEW 9TH AND 10TH APRIL 2011 TECHNICAL SKILLS - EVALUATION SHEET FOR A
MAXIMUM OF 12 MARKS:

S No	Regn No.	Name	Marks for CV 20	Expr/Attitude of Project work 3	Basics/S DLOS / IT Trends 3	DB / Prog Lang. 3	Web Tech 3	Marks 12	* Remarks
1	09MC MC01	<u>Mohit Chauhan</u>	10	01	02	01	02	06	Lacks clarity in concepts , Project, SDLC, lacks confidence
2	09MC MC03	<u>Narendar Reddy Gade</u>	10	01	01	01	01	04	Attitude problem
3	09MC MC04	<u>Peeraiah Mathangi</u>	10	01	01	01	01	04	Strong academics but not serious about the interview.
4	09MC MC05	<u>Mukesh Kumar</u>	06	02	02	02	01	07	Good attitude, team player
5	09MC MC06	<u>Vavilala Rakesh Kumar</u>	06	01.5	01	01	01	04.5	
6	09MC MC09	<u>Khushboo gupta</u>	08	02	02	02	01	07	Confused, and under prepared
7	09MC MC10	<u>Navdeep Sharma</u>	10	02	02	02	02	08	Aggressive
k8	09MC MC11	<u>M R Krishna Kodukulla</u>	15	03	0.5	01	0.5	05	Good at attitude and also subject knowledge.
9	09MC MC12	<u>Lokesh Kumar</u>	14	02	02	03	02	10	Needs to improve communication
10	09MC MC13	<u>Nehal Ahmad</u>	08	03	2.5	03	2.5	11	Balanced, Clear
11	09MC MC14	<u>Rupesh Kumar Mandloi</u>	10	1.5	01	01	01	4.5	Needs to improve communication
12	09MC MC15	<u>Vikash Kumar Choudhary</u>	10	03	01	02	02	08	Good personality
13	09MC MC16	<u>Shashank Tiwari</u>	04	02	01	01	01	05	Needs to improve listening skills
14	09MC MC18	<u>Shashank Shekher Singh</u>	10	02	01	01	01	05	Needs to improve communication
15	09MC MC19	<u>Rajesh Kumar</u>	08	02	02	02	02	08	Needs clarity in expression
16	09MC MC20	<u>Snehal Sharma</u>	08	1.5	01	01	01	.5	Has good clarity and analytical ability.
17	09MC MC21	<u>Ramit Taneja</u>	08	03	2.5	2.5	2.5	10.5	Good at communication
18	09MC MC22	<u>Deepak Khatri</u>	08	03	2.5	02	2.5	10	Fine tune his subject
19	09MC MC23	<u>Sai Prashanth</u>	15	02	02	02	02.	08	Needs clarity in subject
20	09MC MC24	<u>Saurabh Kumar</u>	10	03	2.5	02	02	9.5	Needs to improve communication
21	09MC MC25	<u>Bikram Sahoo</u>	10	02	03	03	02	10	
22	09MC MC26	<u>Vikash Kumar Paathak</u>	10	1.5	01	01	01	4.5	
23	09MC MC28	<u>Hemraj</u>	12	02	02	02	02	08	Not well versed in Basics, lacks clarity.
24	09MC MC29	<u>Santosh Kumar Nayak</u>	06	1.5	01	01	01	4.5	Not able to understand the subject

25	09MC MC31	<u>Rohim Kumar Nayak</u>	08	02	02	02	02	08	Needs communication skills
26	09MC MC33	<u>Kanapala Ramesh</u>	10	1.5	01	01	01	4.5	
27	09MC MC35	<u>Shashi Prasad</u>	10	1.5	02	2.5	02	08	Good attitude
28	09MC MC37	<u>V Krishnanjaneyulu CH</u>	06	2.5	02	02	02	8.5	Good in basics, needs communication
29	09MC MC38	<u>Rachana Kumari</u>	05	01	01	1.5	01	4.5	Improve body language
30	09MC MC39	<u>Boda Veeranna</u>	04	02	01	01	01	05	Positive communication, Basics not clear
31	09MC MC40	<u>Cheganti Suresh</u>	05	01	1.5	02	1.5	06	Improve to communication
32	09MC MC41	<u>Krishna Reddy</u>	04	01	01	02	01	05	Needs to overcome fear
33	09MC MC42	<u>Jeniwiva Swetha Bhengra</u>	4.5	03	01	02	01	07	
34	09MC MC43	<u>Sriramula Ramana Chary</u>	06	1.5	01	01	01	4.5	Needs to work on basics
35	09MC MC44	<u>Kunal</u>	05	02	02	02	02	08	Needs to improve Basics and communication skills
36	09MC MC45	<u>Nukala Ramesh</u>	02	1.5	01	01	01	4.5	Needs to improve Basics and communication skills
37	09MC MC46	<u>Bandi Pavan Kumar</u>	03	1.5	01	01	1.5	05	Not well versed in Basics
38	09MC MC47	<u>Kuldeep Rajpooth</u>	4.5	2.5	02	02	02	8.5	Communication positive
39	09MC MC48	<u>Allapula Shravan Kumar</u>	6.5	02	02	01	02	07	Not well versed in Basics
40	09MC MC49	<u>B.Narender</u>	05	1.5	01	01	1.5	05	Not prepared
41	09MC MC50	<u>Challa Upender</u>	05	1.5	01	01	01	4.5	
42	09MC MC51	<u>Baleboina Rohitha</u>	05	1.5	1.5	01	01	05	Seems over confident
43	09MC MC52	<u>Arun Kumar Ganuga</u>	03	02	02	02	01	07	
44	09MC MC53	<u>Phaninder G</u>	4.5	2.5	1.5	01	01	06	
45	09MC MC55	<u>Naresh Kumar Rajak</u>	05	02	02	01	01	06	
46	09MC MC56	<u>Ajay Kumar</u>	06	03	02	2.5	2.5	10	
47	09MC MC57	<u>Motilal Rajput</u>	6.5	02	02	02	02	08	Needs to brush up basics
48	09MC MC58	<u>Madhuvan Singh</u>	6.5	1.5	02	1.5	1.5	6.5	Unprepared, needs to overcome fear.
49	09MC MC59	<u>Sreenivas Karre</u>	05	02	1.5	1.5	1.5	6.5	
50	09MC MC60	<u>Prati Prakash Krishna</u>	05	01	02	02	2.5	7.5	
51	09MC MC61	<u>Ashish Kumar Gupta</u>	5.5	2.5	02	02	02	8.5	Good grasping and communication
52	09MC MC62	<u>Jayadeep Mishra</u>	06	2.5	02	2.5	2.5	2.5	Attitude good enough
53	09MC MC63	<u>Vishnuvardan Reddy</u>	04	1.5	01	01	01	4.5	Needs to work on confidence
54	09MC MC 4	<u>Soumyajit Chand</u>	7.5	2.5	03	03	03	11.5	Needs to improve presentation

MCA STUDENTS BATCH (09) - TRIAL INTERVIEW 9TH & 10TH APRIL 2011 COMMUNICATION SKILLS - EVALUATION SHEET FOR A
MAXIMUM OF 8 MARKS:

S No	Regn No.	Name	Language Skills (2)	Body Language(2) Attire Mannerism	Presentation skills (2)	Attitude (2)	Total 8	Remarks
1	09MC MC01	<u>Mohit Chauhan</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.5	1.5	6.0	Mother tongue influence
2	09MC MC03	<u>Narendar Reddy Gade</u>	1.0	1.0 1.5	1.0	1.5	4.0	Needs to work on his facial expression
3	09MC MC04	<u>Peeraiah Mathangi</u>	1.0	0.5 0.5	1.0	0.5	3.5	Very positive attitude

4	09MC MC05	<u>Mukesh Kumar</u>	1.0	0.5 0.5	1.0	1.5	4.5	Low in confidence
5	09MC MC06	<u>Vavilala Rakesh Kumar</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.0	1.0	5.0	
6	09MC MC09	<u>Khushboo gupta</u>	1.5	1.0 1.0	1.5	1.5	6.5	Not prepared
7	09MC MC10	<u>Navdeep Sharma</u>	1.0	0.5 1.0	1.5	2.0	6.0	
8	09MC MC11	<u>M R Krishna Kodukulla</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.0	2.0	6.0	
9	09MC MC12	<u>Lokesh Kumar</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.5	1.5	6.0	
10	09MC MC13	<u>Nehal Ahmad</u>	1.5	1.0 1.0	2.0	2.0	7.5	Very good, bold
11	09MC MC14	<u>Rupesh Kumar Mandloi</u>	1.0	0.5 1.0	1.5	1.0	5.0	Needs to improve his presentation skills
12	09MC MC15	<u>Vikash Kumar Choudhary</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.5	2.0	6.5	Very confident
13	09MC MC16	<u>Shashank Tiwari</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.5	1.0	6.0	Pre occupied
14	09MC MC18	<u>Shashank Shekher Singh</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	4.5	
15	09MC MC19	<u>Rajesh Kumar</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.5	2.0	6.5	Needs to improve language
16	09MC MC20	<u>Snehal Sharma</u>	1.5	1.0 1.0	1.0	1.5	6.0	Not Comfortable at all
17	09MC MC21	<u>Ramit Taneja</u>	2.0	1.0 1.0	2.0	2.0	8.0	Excellent
18	09MC MC22	<u>Deepak Khatri</u>	1.5	1.0 1.0	2.0	2.0	7.5	
19	09MC MC23	<u>Sai Prashanth</u>	1.5	1.0 1.0	1.5	1.5	6.5	
20	09MC MC24	<u>Saurabh Kumar</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.5	2.0	6.0	
21	09MC MC25	<u>Bikram Sahoo</u>	1.5	1.0 1.0	2.0	2.0	7.5	Good
22	09MC MC26	<u>Vikash Kumar Paathak</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	4.5	
23	09MC MC28	<u>Hemraj</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	0.5	0.5	5.5	Needs to improve language
24	09MC MC29	<u>Santosh Kumar Nayak</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.0	1.0	5.0	
25	09MC MC31	<u>Rohim Kumar Nayak</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.5	5.0	
26	09MC MC33	<u>Kanapala Ramesh</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	5.0	
27	09MC MC35	<u>Shashi Prasad</u>	1.0	0.5 1.0	1.5	1.5	5.5	Very aggressive
28	09MC MC37	<u>V Krishnanjaneyulu CH</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.5	1.0	5.5	
29	09MC MC38	<u>Rachana Kumari</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.0	1.0	5.0	
30	09MC MC39	<u>Boda Veeranna</u>	1.0	0.5 0.5	1.0	1.0	4.0	
31	09MC MC40	<u>Cheganti Suresh</u>	1.0	0.5 0.5	1.0	1.0	4.0	
32	09MC MC41	<u>Krishna Reddy</u>	2.0	0.5 0.5	1.0	1.0	5.0	
33	09MC MC42	<u>Jeniwiva Swetha Bhengra</u>	2.0	1.0 1.0	2.0	2.0	8.0	Very good with lot of presence of mind
34	09MC MC43	<u>Sriramula Ramana Chary</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	4.5	Low in confidence level
35	09MC MC44	<u>Kunal</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.0	1.0	5.0	Mother tongue influence; Not clear
36	09MC MC45	<u>Nukala Ramesh</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	4.5	
37	09MC MC46	<u>Bandi Pavan Kumar</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.5	5.0	
38	09MC MC47	<u>Kuldeep Rajpooth</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.5	1.5	6.0	Lot of mother tongue influence
39	09MC MC48	<u>Allapula Shravan Kumar</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	5.0	
40	09MC MC49	<u>B.Narender</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	5.0	

41	09MC MC50	<u>Challa Upender</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.5	1.5	5.5	
42	09MC MC51	<u>Baleboina Rohitha</u>	1.0	0.5 1.0	1.5	1.0	5.0	Very casual
43	09MC MC52	<u>Arun Kumar Ganuga</u>	1.0	1.0 1.0	1.0	1.5	5.5	
44	09MC MC53	<u>Phaninder G</u>	1.5	0.5 0.5	1.0	1.5	5.0	
45	09MC MC55	<u>Naresh Kumar Rajak</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	4.5	
46	09MC MC56	<u>Ajay Kumar</u>	1.5	1.5 1.0	1.5	1.5	7.0	
47	09MC MC57	<u>Motilal Rajput</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	4.5	Lot of mother tongue influence
48	09MC MC58	<u>Madhuvan Singh</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	4.5	
49	09MC MC59	<u>Sreenivas Karre</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.5	5.0	Needs to improve language
50	09MC MC60	<u>Prati Prakash Krishna</u>	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	4.5	Lot of mother tongue influence ; very egoistic
51	09MC MC61	<u>Ashish Kumar Gupta</u>	1.5	1.0 0.5	1.5	1.5	6.0	
52	09MC MC62	Jayadeep Mishra	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.5	5.0	
53	09MC MC63	Vishnuvardhan Reddy	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.0	1.0	4.5	Lot of mother tongue influence
54	09MC MC64	Soumyajit Chand	1.0	1.0 0.5	1.5	1.5	5.5	Lot of mother tongue influence

APPENDIX 2

Describe the difference between a Thread and a Process?

The major difference between threads and processes is

1. Threads share the address space of the process that created it; processes have their own address.
2. Threads have direct access to the data segment of its process; processes have their own copy of the data segment of the parent process.
3. Threads can directly communicate with other threads of its process; processes must use interprocess communication to communicate with sibling processes.
4. Threads have almost no overhead; processes have considerable overhead.
5. New threads are easily created; new processes require duplication of the parent process.

WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN AN EXE AND A DLL?

exe file is a executable file which runs in a separate process which is managed by OS, where as a dll file is a dynamic link library which can be used in exe files and other dll files. In .net framework both are assemblies.

An ActiveX DLL runs in a process server running in the same memory space as the client process.

Major advantage of DLL files is in its reusability. A DLL file can be used in other applications as long as the coder knows the names and parameters of the functions and procedures in the DLL file. Because of this capability, DLL files are ideal for distributing device drivers

An ActiveX Exe is an out of process server which runs in its own separate memory space which is faster ActiveX exe or Activex DLL? ADLL

Why People Most Prefer JAVA Other Than .Net for Their Application?

The Enterprise Edition of Java 2 Platform was created to ease the process of java application development, design and deployment of complex enterprise solutions and the J2EE architecture is based on Java. .Net is a product suite that allows an organization to create enterprise-class web services. The difference between both is that .Net is a product strategy while J2EE is an industry standard that gives a developer the option to choose vendor products and tools. .NET is based on the language C# and while Java runs on any platform with the help of Java VM, C# can only work on Windows currently.

WHAT IS THE QA PROCESS?

Answer: A planned and systematic set of activities necessary to provide adequate confidence that requirements are properly established and products or services conform to specified requirements, and An activity that establishes and evaluates the processes to produce the products, helps to establish processes, Sets up measurements programs to evaluate processes, Identifies weaknesses in processes and improves them, QA is the responsibility of the entire team, Prevents the introduction of issues or defects.

What is the difference b/w system testing, integration testing, and regression testing?

System T: This is asked on overall requirements specifications, covers all combined parts of a system i.e system as a whole is tested.

it is also called as End to End testing or login to logout testing.here design modifications may takes place.

Integration Testing: After finishing all the modules, they will integrate all the modules and check, r they working fine.

There are two approaches for this

1. top down approach
2. Bottom up approach

Bottom up approach is always beneficial

Regression Testing: This is the retesting of the application. it will be done in two conditions.

1. if is there any code change in the application.
2. After all the bugs has fixed.

Regression testing is a retesting of the application after fixing all the bugs, to check whether the added functionalities affected any already existing functionalities. or the code change has regressed any new bugs. for this usually automation tools will be used

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Conflict between Self-discovery and Salvation in Mary Rowlandson's *The Sovereignty and Goodness of God*

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Abstract—This paper aims to explore, in social-cultural and textual contexts, how Rowlandson's self- discovery did not always conform to the Protestant- Calvinist framework. Rowlandson's sinful experience, characterized by extraordinary individuation, ministerial involvements in her narration and her anxiety after release from captivity can best explain the conflict between her self- discovery and salvation.

Index Terms—Rowlandson, self- discovery, salvation

I. INTRODUCTION

Author of the first and most famous Indian captivity narrative in Anglo- American letters, Mary Rowlandson (1682) said in her spiritual autobiography, titled *The Sovereignty and Goodness of God*, "It's good for me that I have been afflicted" (p. 358). Faced with the chaos of the attack and the trials of an experience in captivity, she turned to Puritan theology to make sense of it all. What is appealing to many scholars is that feminine issues are covered in this narrative and a popular conclusion has been drawn that affliction, along with salvation, enables Rowlandson to achieve a form of female self- discovery. This paper aims to explore, in social-cultural and textual contexts, how Rowlandson's self- discovery did not always conform to the Protestant- Calvinist framework.

Salvation was the central part of puritan civilization. Rowlandson was struggling for it, through an interaction with Indians in the wilderness where she suffered and survived. Affliction led Rowlandson to realize how careless she had been of God's holy time; however, it also forced Rowlandson to risk becoming sinful by taking on barbaric behaviors like Indians. Due to her special family background and experience, Rowlandson's female piety, in a form of extraordinary individuation, interfered with social- level religious mission. Her narrative of her strength and willpower to survive the captivity failed to serve public religious knowledge, and therefore, her experience of pain was limited to individualization. What was particularly noticeable was the sense of guilt after her release from captivity, which proved that Rowlandson swerved away from the puritan doctrine. The need for salvation in the real sense just began when she came back to normal life. She realized that with her family being left behind in the wilderness, even though unintentionally, her survival was not in accordance with the traditional solidarity of English institutional puritan life. In addition, as far as the text is concerned, readers can see scriptures were inserted and interrupted the story, which demonstrated that, to some degree, her story of female self- discovery and biblical salvation were not harmonious. No doubt, the captivity narrative was originally a story of religious salvation, in which Rowlandson was imposed on with affliction. However, close readers will notice her self- discovery was achieved when Rowlandson survived all the hardships and realized her great potential of being a woman. Ironically, instead of paralleling, these two dimensions often conflicted with each other, sometimes with self- discovery betraying theological salvation.

II. ROWLANDSON AS A SINNER

Rowlandson's wilderness journey allowed her to negotiate cultural restrictions on women's freedom and identity. She "lived in prosperity, having the comforts of this world" (Jehlen, 1997, p. 352). She possessed ability to control things — until her captivity. Suddenly she was taken away as an Indian captive, totally out of the contexts of her faith. Like the puritan emigrants, she was removed from all that was familiar and forced to redefine herself in the absence of everything that had at one time comprised her life. The story was told by two voices, termed by Kathryn Derounian (1987) as "empirical narration" and "rhetorical narration" (p. 82). Derounian argued that the narrative's duality arose not merely from this contrast between participant and observer, but additionally from a clash of codes between Rowlandson's psychological and religious interpretations of her experience (p. 83). It was, in some sense, an

implication that Rowlandson's experience was more than a pursuit of both puritan self-revelation. Taking into her gender into consideration, we can easily recognize that the captive story was also about a self-discovery of female strength and persistence. This interpretation was closely related to her unique identity. Rowlandson's value was contingent on the patriarchy she was involved in. Her husband was Lancaster's minister and her father was the wealthiest man in that region. She lived in comfort and luxury, with an easy access to material wealth and spiritual guidance. This background made it more amazing that a woman who seldom experienced difficulties could live all through unimaginable harshness. In captivity, she broke with the familiar. Her use of "remove" for each encampment created the impression of distance without the need for explicit details. The word "remove" further created the sensation of the captivity as an all-encompassing experience — a complete expulsion from the ordinary. As Rowlandson journeyed with her captors away from Lancaster, she entered deeper into the forested recesses of "this lively resemblance of hell" (p. 33-34). The wilderness served as both a literal and figurative hell: it held both the opportunity for redemption and the possibility of destruction. The unprecedented challenge, a matter of "to-be-or-not-to-be", intensified and gave prominence to her strength of surviving the wilderness and her belief in God's guide for salvation. "As members of tightly knit communities, seventeenth century Puritans understood that the journey to salvation is made alone with God as their guide. Rowlandson's reliance on God dramatized this dependence" (Dietrich, 1960, p. 10).

Mary Rowlandson relied on her faith in the providence of God to sustain herself during her period of captivity. Not surprisingly, then, she, in her painfully literal combat with the wilderness during her nearly three-month forced trek through the New England bush, turned most often to this first book of the New England Puritans to relieve her anguish. Approximately one-third of the Biblical references that pervaded Rowlandson's narrative of her captivity among Wampanoag Indians came, from the Psalms. In the Psalms, Rowlandson found a context for her misery, spiritual assurance, and emotional release. To her, God was omnipotent and always there with her.

The first week of my being among them, I hardly ate any thing; the second week, I found my stomach very faint for want of something; and yet it was very hard to get down their filthy trash; but the third week, though I could think how formerly my stomach would turn against this or that, and I could starve and die before I could eat such thing, yet they were sweet and savory to my taste (p. 358).

Rowlandson contributed all this justification to God's providence, "for to the hungry soul, every bitter thing is sweet" (p. 359). Rowlandson in her narrative managed to find an outlet for her own frustration by taking her anger public and communicating it through the language of Puritan bible. Rowlandson found in the psalms a reserve of hope as well as an arsenal of curses against her enemies. Both sources of emotional sustenance proved essential to her spiritual survival in the wilderness, where the captive must marshal all her personal resources, her faith and her rage, in order to keep sane and sacred her own identity.

At the same time, she explores the frontiers of woman's sphere and woman's societal definition, and thus explores her self-definition by confronting her readers with her transformation from a confined, dependent woman to a woman for whom "self-reliance is axiomatic" (Dietrich, 1960, p. 2).

Her fortitude in the wilderness as a female textually parallels to God's salvation shone upon her, but they do conflict with each other sometimes on the interpretational level. Before her captivity, Rowlandson acknowledges, she had been lax about her spiritual development. In the third remove, for example, she admits, "I then remember how careless I had been of God's holy time, how many Sabbaths I had lost and misspent and how evilly I had walked in God's sight, which lay so close unto my spirit that it was easy for me to see how righteous it was with God to cut the thread of my life and cast me out of His presence forever" (p. 354). Obviously, salvation is beginning to emerge for Rowlandson through afflictive redemption.

But this salvation is achieved in a materially filthy and secularly skeptical wild world through constant interactions with Indians, which is a backslide from spiritually purified and theologically sublime function of Puritan religion. Salvation can be defined as being saved from something, such as suffering or the punishment of sin. On the contrary, in the narrative, Rowlandson survived, as a physically weak woman, mainly through a process being Indianized. Indians, to Puritans, are "Heathen" (p. 351), "Barbarous Creatures, (p. 352)" "hellhounds" (354), and "Pagans" (p. 355) as Rowlandson describes in the introductory passages. Indian is regarded as the agent of the devil in opposition to the Puritan as the "saint" chosen by God, and the Indian as the Canaanite to be cast out of the Promised Land to make way for the new Israelites of Puritan typology. But she let herself conform herself to Indian social codes. She showed great willpower and necessary skills in her daily struggle to survive, to borrow a term from Dietrich, "aggressiveness of business". What impresses readers most is that she changed so much beyond recognition even to herself.

For though I had formerly used tobacco, yet I had left it ever since I was first taken. It seems to be a bait, the devil ways to make men lose their precious time: I remember with shame, how formerly, when I had taken two or three pipes, I was presently ready for another, such a bewitching thing it is (p. 361).

What used to be witching tobacco now has become a bewitching fascination. Another example:

As we went along, they killed a deer, with a young one in her, they gave me a piece of fawn, and it was so young and tender, that one might eat the bones as well as the flesh, and yet I thought it very good. (p. 358)

Being very hungry I had quickly eaten up mine, but the child could not bit it, it was so tough and sinewy, but lay sucking, gnawing, chewing and slobbering of it in the mouth and hand, then I took it of the child, and ate it myself, and savory it was to my taste. (p. 370)

In the travel text we glimpse an alternative identity, that of Mary. Both Mary and the Indians behave at times like predatory animals. The condition of starvation that Mary shares with her captors effects an equivalence between them, with the necessary changes in her dietary habits representing a total reorganization of customary values. The above scenes happened shortly after Rowlandson lost her daughter. As a reader, I can not endure her merciless eating up a deer with a baby inside and of robbing a child of his food. On the ethical level, her desire for survival is disrupting the puritan morality of generosity and kindness. And the more deeply she journeyed into the wilderness and the more immediate and real her grief and her need to survive became, the more inadequate exemplification became as a source of comfort. And the more alienated she felt from her own society, the greater her subconscious identification with her Indian captors. So identify with captor splits her sense of self from Puritan identity formation and allows her to begin constructing an occluded identity.

After a restless and hungry night there, we had a wearisome time of it the next day. (p. 359)

My heart skipped within me, thinking they had been Englishmen at the first sight of them, for they were dressed in English apparel, with hats, white neckclothes, and sashes about their waists, and ribbons upon their shoulders (p. 369).

In seventeenth-century New England, Native Americans were seen as God's instruments to scourge the colony for its sins; accordingly, Rowlandson's account should stress and already stressed the Indians' paganism and diabolism (Stodola, 1993). But she identified herself with the Indian captors by using a pronoun "we" and by taking them for Englishmen. It is going too far to say that Rowlandson was assimilating herself into Indians' community, but it is without any doubt that her identity was shifting constantly. Rowlandson, dazed and disoriented, struggles to cope with an unstable Indian world that nearly engulfs her in terror and madness. Therefore, on both conscious and subconscious level, shifting identities, especially taking on an Indian identity will facilitate her survival and self-realization in a harsh life. From this perspective, we can say that Rowlandson is a smart woman, but it is sure that her belief in piety is not advancing. To some extent, striving to sustain herself under the stress of Indian capture catalyzes a kind of renegade identity formation.

Some may argue that all the above-mentioned behaviors are not religious sins in the real sense, but instinctual responses in captivity. Then another problem appears.

III. EXTRAORDINARY INDIVIDUATION

As a Puritan writer, Rowlandson possessed the added responsibility of turning personal experience into public ideology. This barbarism is unable to serve the theological functions, for it is an extreme case of a humiliated and submissive woman with a marginal gender status. As Bryce Traister (1999) put in *Mary Rowlandson and the Invention of the Secular extraordinary*, "individuation follows from traumatized consciousness. Her text, therefore, only partially assumes the communal hermeneutic of pious exemplarity. In the grip of a persistently individuated trauma, she dissents, however inadvertently, from the directives of pious imitability" (p. 2).

Rowlandson wrote and published her captive story when the children of the original emigrants began to fall away from the original purpose. "The years from 1660 to 1690 encompass a period called New England's Great Declension. It was a time when the children of the original emigrants began to fall away from the original purpose. This second generation of emigrants was still hard-working and ambitious, but now their ambitions were becoming increasingly secular. Preoccupied with worldliness and money making, they were beginning to turn away from the church" (Dietrich, 1960, p. 9). At sunrise on February 10, 1676, "Indians with great number" (p. 374) attacked the tiny Lancaster. The residents were quite likely roused from their sleep. Indirectly, they exemplify the failure of the second generation to uphold the design of their ancestors. Illustrating the entire Puritan body grown lax, the slumbering residents of Lancaster rested content behind their protective garrisons on their cultivated lands--- that is, until that attack. So as a typological narrative, *The Sovereignty and Goodness of God* can be regarded as an inspiring story to help members of a threatened and internally fractured religious culture to strengthen their belief in God's omnipotence, the necessity of faith in affliction and the need for constant penitence. But to what extent does Rowlandson's private contemplation fulfill these purposes?

Firstly, Rowlandson is a woman. The Puritans believed that women were subordinate to men. The subordinate role of women was widely acknowledged and women were viewed as the "weaker sex." Secondly, she is a wife of a church pastor and a daughter of a rich businessman. She witnessed more violence and hardship than she experienced, because Indians knew her values and were relatively kind to her. Thirdly, she was imprisoned into slavery and stayed with Indians for twenty eight weeks, which is a sort of physical and psycho spiritual affliction in a very extreme case. All these contribute to her specific female exemplarity. It's hard for the abstraction in her case to generalize into a representation of her society. One function of Rowlandson's narration is to satisfy readers' curiosity about her personal experience of female suffering. "The scandal of this text is not so much its persistent mourning of personal and material loss, but it's more extraordinary proposition that, in or around 1680, there is female self whose losses are worth mourning at all" (Traister, 1999, p. 11).

O the wonderful power of God that I have seen, and the experience that I have had: I have been in the midst of those roaring lions, and savage bears, that feared neither God, nor man, nor the devil, by night and day, alone and in company: sleeping all sorts together, and yet not one of them ever offered me the least abuse of unchastity to me, in word or action. Though some are ready to say, I speak it for my own credit; but I speak it in the presence of God, and to his glory (p.

356).

It can be read that Rowlandson contributes her own credit as well as God's glory to her survival and return to the community. As we know in Puritan period, because the duty of early childcare fell almost exclusively on women, a woman's salvation necessarily depended upon the observable goodness of her child. But Rowlandson was separated from her children, forever from her youngest daughter, who was buried in the "newly-digged ground in the wilderness." She met a strong female rival, Weetamoo, who was "a severe and proud dame, bestowing every day in dressing herself neat as much as any of the gentry of the land: powdering her hair, and painting her face, going with necklaces, with jewels in her ears, and bracelets upon her hands: when she had dressed herself, her work was to make girdles of wampum and beads" (p. 371). All this psychological and spiritual torture inflicted upon Rowlandson presented a big challenge to her high status she was used to in her world before captive and, therefore, the most important and most difficult thing for Rowlandson is to overcome the mourning all that she had lost. The female self commemorated in 1682 would become the voice of a post-Puritan Protestant femininity (Traister, 1999). This point can be powerfully supported when Rowlandson described Thomas Read, a male captive, who was scared to "cry bitterly, supposing they would quickly kill him" (p. 365). Compared to the weak masculinity, Rowlandson's strong femininity by no means can be understated.

Possibly feminine issues are not what Rowlandson was groping for in her captive narrative, but the text itself as well as her background and experience offer the possibility of open interpretations of both female self- realization and puritan revelation. Especially to modern readers, this story is more like a secular account of suffering and religious beliefs seem to have retreated into the realm of private opinion.

In addition to elaborating on mourning problematical because it is personal and marginalizes the religion, the text reveals a potentially contradictory relation between experience and interpretation that deepens the conflict between personal grief and doctrinal explanation.

IV. MINISTERIAL INVOLVEMENT

For educating the new puritans, the narrative was employed for theological purpose. It is a popular viewpoint that Rowlandson's husband or her senior spiritual advisor Mather have read her manuscript and given her suggestions for improvement. According to Kathryn Stodola, the first parallel concerns the racist tags given to Native Americans in Rowlandson's text, which are at odds with the more realistic and tolerant view the captive has of her individual captors elsewhere in the narrative: for example, "hell- hounds", "barbarous creatures", "crew of pagans", and "the heathen". Indeed, this terminology is very close to the gags used in "the preface to the Reader" which, as already noted, was probably written by Increase Mather.

A second narrative insertion that may indicate the ministerial involvement occurs in the twelve removes where a lot of quotations of providences interfere with the story at a crucial moment. This list includes five points which superficially show the Indians were able to escape from Englishmen's hunting and offered it a religious justification; typological interpretations of these points, however, shows that they are merely tests for the faithful. It is also weird, Stodola said, that the providence is listed in a way similar to that used by Puritan ministers in the explication, use, and application sections of their sermons. The Rowlandson text says the Indians agreed to let the captive return; then it reads, "But before I go any further, I would take leave to mention a few remarkable passages of Providence; which I took special notice of in my afflicted time"(p. 376). This intrusion of three pages of God's providence is too abrupt to be located in a story of female personal memories. Theological purpose is fulfilled in a way by conflicting with a secular plot of a woman.

Throughout, Rowlandson's narrative contains references revealing its author's depression and emotional bleakness, but frequently Rowlandson masks these signs with outward spiritual interpretations. When she looked back, she claimed "I have seen the extreme vanity of this world. One hour I have been in health and wealth, wanting nothing, but the next hour in sickness and wounds and death, having nothing but sorrow and affliction" (p. 378).

Suppose the scripture were not inserted by Mr. Mather. Rowlandson did it by herself, there still exists a problem. When women utilized scriptural allusions in their writings, they in general deliberately tried to reflect the authorized male commentary tradition. If the use of biblical allusions potentially occasioned a submerged anxiety in women because such scriptural citation was circumscribed by male authority, writing itself was often another source of uneasiness (Scheick, 1998).

In either case, the narrative of a female's self- discovery and the scripture insertion are not harmonious, which can be recognized by readers. Scripture, the medium for salvation, is men's interpretation about God's doctrine and practice. So in some sense, the gender conflict is extended to the conflict between self- revelation and salvation for Rowlandson. As a result, although she alluded to the Bible in an orthodox manner to analogize her situation, "her complicated use of Scripture reveals both a fear and anger at a punishing God that must be transformed into an anger at herself, which nonetheless resurfaces as a paradoxically self- abnegating accusation to him". "The more mechanically Rowlandson acknowledges her submission in orthodox terms, the more she complicates the range of explanation offered to her by such orthodox"; "as hard as she might try to conceal it in her narrative, the text reveals the impasse imposed upon the imagination by her own interrogation of the old models for establishing her sense of value" (Scheick, 1998, p. 92-93).

V. ANXIETY AFTER RELEASE FROM CAPTIVITY

The conflict between Rowlandson's self-discovery and salvation is also reflected in the anxiety after release from captivity. People sift through memory in which self-discovery can be realized. When recalling the past painful captive memory, she found "the many remarkable happenings of her captivity must have seemed almost like the jumbled details of a bad dream" (Leach, 1961, p. 353), including the initial attack, the death of Sarah, the mental and physical abuse, and the continual attempt to stave off starvation. She overcame all these hardship and difficulties and survived. As a woman, she displayed her unique persistence and realized her great potential strength she never realized before, but it is noticeable that she had to pay for all her physical survival and spiritual elevation.

Rowlandson is always haunted by a sense of guilt, obsessed to what Freud (1989) terms as melancholia. The intense guilt and unsolved grief at having survived when other people did not. During Rowlandson's captivity, her own instincts for self-survival prevent her from feeling too much guilt, but after her release, she repeatedly admits her guilt at still being alive when so many are dead: "Yet I was not without sorrow to think how many were looking and longing and my own children amongst the rest to enjoy that deliverance that I had now received, and I did not know whether ever I should see them again" (p. 379). Although she initially feels relieved to be ransomed, she cannot stop thinking about her two captive children and her dead daughter: "That which was dead lay heavier upon my spirit than those which were alive and amongst the heathen, thinking how it suffered with its wounds and I was no way able to relieve it, and how it was buried by the heathen in the wilderness from among all Christians" (p. 381). Now she thought she was sinful to leave behind her family and was suffering from more afflictions, spiritual afflictions.

What becomes worse is that she could not feel God's guidance as she used to in the captivity. Her sins can not find a way to let out. "I can remember the time, when I used to sleep quietly without workings in my thoughts, whole nights together, but now it is other ways with me. When all are fast about me, and no eye open, but His who ever waketh, my thoughts are upon things past, upon the awful dispensation of the Lord toward us" (p. 381). It strikes readers as that she maintains her own female identity and elevates it with a never yielding spirit but breaks family bond, though against her will, is illustrative of her intensified concern about her sins.

VI. CONCLUSION

Rowlandson in *The Sovereignty and Goodness of God* tells a secular account of female suffering and a puritan contemplation. The clash between ideology and individualism exemplified by the captivity's traditional elements set off the writer's sufferings. A similar tension between spirituality and secularism is fundamental to Puritan literature, and the orthodox position always prevails (Derounian, 1987). Rowlandson's narrative records the confusion, frustration, and despondency that colonial women-- silenced by the total assent that Puritanism demanded from its adherents--- were unable to express overtly. She takes good advantage of this pattern to serve her own purposes of presenting her self as a true female figure in a puritan social cultural context.

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Metacognitive Strategies and Logical/Mathematical Intelligence in EFL Context: Investigating Possible Relationships

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Abstract—The current study aimed to investigate the possible relationship between logical/mathematical intelligence and metacognitive strategies Iranian EFL learners used in their reading comprehension process. To this end, 98 students (55 females and 43 males) who were all EFL learners participated in our study. We used MIDAS (multiple intelligences development assessment scales) in order to measure the students' logical/mathematical intelligence. Furthermore, to measure the metacognitive strategies they applied, MASRI (Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory) was used. Using Pearson correlation, we analyzed the obtained data. Data analysis revealed that logical/mathematical intelligence had a significant relationship with metacognitive strategies in EFL context. Moreover, males and females, except for logical/mathematical intelligence usage, didn't have any significant difference in the application of metacognitive strategies.

Index Terms—logical/mathematical intelligence, metacognitive strategies, the MIDAS, MASRI

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Statement of the Problem

According to Brown (1978) and Flavell (1976), metacognition is one of the basic predictors of learning. In other word, metacognition plays a significant role in language learning process (Brown, 1978; Wang, Haertel & Walberg, 1990, 1993; Flavell, 1976). Furthermore, it's believed that metacognitive strategies applied by language learners are crucially influenced by intellectual skills in general and logical/mathematical intelligence in particular (Slife, B. D., Weiss, J., & Bell, T., 1985). The current study tries to investigate the possible relationship between metacognitive strategies and logical/mathematical intelligence. Moreover, it tries to investigate the possible effects of gender on the abovementioned relationship.

B. Significance of the Study

In the twentieth century where individual differences and values play a crucial role in language learning, it's extremely important to teach learners strategies in line with their characteristics (Akbari & Hosseini 2008). It's believed that logically and mathematically intelligent learners are better users of metacognitive strategies in problem-solving activities. Moreover, male-female differences are assumed to have a significant role in the learning process. Anyway, the current study investigates the extent to which Iranian EFL learners make use of logical/mathematical intelligence and metacognitive strategies in their reading comprehension process; it also tries to investigate sex differences regarding the abovementioned relationship.

C. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present study will try to investigate the following research questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between logical/mathematical intelligence and metacognitive strategies Iranian EFL learners apply in their reading comprehension process?
2. Does gender have any effect on the abovementioned relationship?

The abovementioned research questions are reworded to form the following null hypotheses:

1. There is no significant relationship between logical/mathematical intelligence and metacognitive strategies of Iranian EFL learners.
2. Gender doesn't have any effect on the abovementioned relationship.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As the basic purpose of the current study is to investigate the possible relationship between logical/mathematical intelligence and metacognitive strategies and the effect of gender on them, in the following part of the review of literature, first of all, we focus on logical/mathematical intelligence, and then metacognitive strategies will be dealt with. The last part of this section will focus on the possible relationship between logical/mathematical intelligence and metacognitive strategies.

A. Intelligence, Multiple Intelligences, Logical/Mathematical Intelligence

According to Elshout (1983), Intelligence is the property of human cognitive toolbox which functions basic cognitive operations. If we look back in the history, we can easily notice that intelligence and IQ tests have always been used to classify people as intelligent or unintelligent or specifically to pass value judgments about their social status (Mensch, 1991). In other word, IQ tests were used to attribute the failure or success of a particular group or race to its low or high IQ scores. Consequently, it caused racial discrimination among different races. Those with high IQ scores were regarded as the noble race and those with low IQ scores were regarded as the mean race (Howe, 1997). However, as time passed, Gardner (1983) questioned the construct validity of general cognitive ability or intelligence (Visser, Ashton & Vernon, 2006). He critically questioned the idea that it was just the presence or absence of g (intelligence) that made a person intelligent or unintelligent (Akbari & Hosseini, 2008). According to Gardner (1983), intelligence is conceived as "the biopsychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture" (Kelly & Tangney, 2006). Finally, Gardner (1983) proposed the Multiple Intelligences Theory. According to his theory, intelligence is a module having got different components which are more or less independent of one another. Gardner believes that it's definitely incorrect to pass negative value judgment on a person and call him/her unintelligent just due to having a low score on IQ tests (Visser, Ashton & Vernon, 2006). He continues that each person possesses all eight intelligences: linguistic, logical/mathematical, spatial, musical, bodily/kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal & naturalistic intelligence. Below, we present a quick recapitulation of all eight intelligences as derived from Akbari & Hosseini (2008).

- 1. Linguistic intelligence:** effective use of language and good knowledge of words.
- 2. Musical intelligence:** sensitive to melody.
- 3. Logical intelligence:** effective use of numbers; ability to deduce conclusion.
- 4. Spatial intelligence:** sensitivity to color & design & graphic forms.
- 5. Bodily intelligence:** physical/ bodily coordination.
- 6. Interpersonal intelligence:** ability to understand others, their intention and moods.
- 7. Intrapersonal intelligence:** knowledge of the self.
- 8. Natural intelligence:** knowing and caring about nature.

According to Kelley & Tangney (2006), the categories of multiple intelligences have got their own characteristics, tools and processes that represent different ways of thinking, solving problems and learning. According to Gardner (1983), each person possesses all eight intelligences to a certain degree. Moreover, each individual has the capacity to develop each intelligence to a certain degree; furthermore, as Armstrong (1994) points out, intelligences always interact with each other; in other word, in order to do something, let's say cooking, different intelligences come together (ex. Linguistic, bodily/kinesthetic,...), letting us cook. It's worth noticing to mention that Gardner (1983) believes that intelligences are not fixed and can be developed based on educational opportunities.

According to Veemana & Spaansa (2005), logical/ mathematical intelligence is the core of MI theory and can be regarded as the true manifestation of MI. According to Gardner (1983), logical/ mathematical intelligence is the ability to use numbers effectively, to reason well and to recognize and solve problems using logical patterns. Having logical/mathematical intelligence, a person is able to categorize, infer and make generalizations; Moreover, as Visser, Ashton & Vernon (2006) point out, numerical facility is included in logical/mathematical intelligence. According to Gardner (1983), logically and mathematically intelligent individuals work well with abstract symbols such as geometrical shapes. Furthermore, a person who is logically intelligent is able to apply knowledge in different contexts, thinks logically and asks surprising questions. (Adey, Caspo, Demetriou, Hautam & Shayer, 2007). Moreover, individuals benefiting from logical/mathematical intelligence are assumed to appreciate activities like strategy games, math activities, logic puzzles, planning and arranging (Visser, Ashton & Vernon, 2006). Furnham (2006), asserting the intelligences proposed by Gardner, points out that spatial, linguistic and logical/mathematical intelligences are actually the essence of Multiple Intelligences Theory. He continues that among the categories of MI, just the traditional ones including spatial, linguistic and logical intelligences are the best tools to assess an individual's overall intelligence.

B. Language Learning Strategies; Metacognitive Strategies

According to Akbari & Hosseini (2008), it was Rubin (1975) who got familiar the field of second/foreign language learning with the concept of language learning strategies. Moreover MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), as cited in Doughty & Long (2003), propose that language learning strategies are the most important and fertile areas in research. Oxford (1989) defined language learning strategies as "behaviors or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable" (p.235). She later proposed six basic components for language learning strategies which are known as Oxford's taxonomy (Doughty & Long 2003). She classified language learning strategies as cognitive, memory, metacognitive, social, affective and compensation strategies. However, O'Malley & Chamot

(1990) altered Oxford's taxonomy and shortened it to just three categories: cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies.

Since metacognitive strategies are the basic focus of this section, we just try to concentrate on them and evaluate them in details.

It's believed that Flavell (1976) proposed the concept of metacognition for the first time (Memnun, D. S. & Akkaya, R., 2009). He defines metacognition as "individual's knowledge about his/her cognitive process, and employing this knowledge to inspect cognitive processes" (Flavell, 1976, p232). Schmitt (2002) refers to metacognitive strategies as those processes which language learners consciously use in order to monitor and manage their learning process. These strategies let language learners set goals for their learning, check how it's going on and furthermore, evaluate how they acted through the process of learning (Schmitt, 2002). Other researchers regarded metacognition as "thinking of thought" (Blakey, Spence, 1990; Livingston, 1997; Akin, Abaci & Cetin, 2007). As a matter of fact, they all considered regulation of cognition as the basic component of metacognition. According to Sanchez & Vovides (2007), those language learners who are aware of their metacognitive strategies are actually effective language learners and consequently succeed to promote their learning process. Cubukcu (2008) points out that the metacognitive strategies learners use consist of three basic parts, namely known as metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive monitoring and self-regulation and control. He continues that metacognitive knowledge is referred to cognitive strategies like memory strategies that language learners use to regulate their knowledge acquisition. The second group, metacognitive monitoring, refers to those activities language learners do to control and monitor their learning process; and finally, self-regulation, refers to activities used for managing the whole learning process. Other researchers summarized metacognitive strategies in the acronym CAPE; this specific acronym stands for centering, arranging, planning and evaluating the learning process (Birjandi, Abbasian & Mirhassani, 2005). They put emphasis on the metacognitive strategies used by language learners and further claim that individuals' success or failure in education is resulted from the presence or absence of these strategies. They continue that those language learners who are benefiting from metacognitive strategies can easily determine what they need to do and how to manage the situation; in other word, they have strategies to identify their needs and necessities in language learners who don't use metacognitive strategies are actually learners "without direction". He then continues that it's a little bit irritating for language learners to be controlled by others. So using metacognitive strategies, they can control and monitor their progress themselves (Wang, Spencer & Xing, 2009). Paris & Winogard (1990) believe that metacognitive strategies alter a passive learner to an active learner, helping him/her go beyond the limitations imposed by the instruction in order to control and manage their learning process through personal appraisal and management (Wang, Spencer & Xing, 2009). Senay (2009) asserts the crucial role of metacognitive strategies and further believes that using these strategies, language learners set goals for their own learning and consequently become effective and independent learners. He also claims that metacognitive strategies contain three basic skills, namely known as planning, monitoring and evaluation. As Visser, Ashton & Vernon (2006) point out, there is a close relationship between intrapersonal intelligence and metacognition. As they believe, individuals with high intrapersonal intelligence are aware of what they know and what they don't know. In other word, generally they are generally aware of their needs; using metacognitive strategies, they can easily self-direct their own learning and accurately judge their relative weakness and strength. Metacognitive strategies have the lion's share in the self-direction process which is an important process in problem-solving activities (Memnun, D. S. & Akkaya, R., 2009). It's claimed that strategic language learning which includes metacognitive strategies results in self-regulatory learning which is a desired goal for all language learners (Doughty & Long, 2003). As they point out, self-regulating learners are active participants of their learning process and can easily differentiate between what they know and what they don't know, resulting in the promotion of achievements. The last but not the least point in this section is that metacognitive strategies are recognized as the main predictors of academic performance. Cubukcu (2009) asserts that those language learners that consistently monitor, control and manage their learning, can easily review and retain new information. learning process so that they can control and monitor it effectively. Graham (1997) emphasizes the significant role metacognitive strategies play in individuals' educational progress, adding that those

C. Logical/Mathematical Intelligence & Metacognitive Strategies: Possible Relationship

As it was already mentioned, the basic focus of the current study is to investigate to what extent logical/mathematical intelligence and metacognitive strategies are related together. However, it's claimed that logical/mathematical intelligence is the true manifestation of the Multiple Intelligences theory; in other word, MI theory is represented mostly through the logical/mathematical intelligence (Veemana & Spaansa, 2005). So when we point to intellectual ability in this section, we mostly mean logical/ mathematical intelligence. Veeman & Verheij (2003) point out that there are three basic models to describe the possible relationship. The first model, namely known as "intelligence model", regards "metacognitive strategies as manifestation of intellectual ability". According to this model, intellectual ability and metacognitive strategies are cause and effect for each other and consequently can't stand freely as independent phenomena; this is in line with Sternberg's triarchaic theory of intelligence (Veeman & Verheij, 2003). According to the second model, "contrasting model", intellectual ability and metacognitive strategies are totally independent predictors of learning; as it's clear, the proponents of this model assume that logical/mathematical intelligence which is a true representative of the MI theory is not related to metacognitive strategies and consequently they function independently. The last model, namely known as "mixed model", assumes that metacognitive strategies and intellectual ability are

related together to a certain degree; later on metacognitive strategies occupy the top of intellectual ability. Therefore, metacognitive strategies are regarded as efficient tools for predicating the individuals' learning (Veeman & Verheij 2003). Other researchers, like Stankov (2000), believe that metacognitive strategies are functioning independently of intellectual ability (Veeman & Spaansa 2005).

However, as Gardner (1983) cautions the components of MI are culture-bound; so researchers are advised to be extremely cautious when generalizing the outcomes to different cultures (Almeida, Prieto, Ferreria, Bermejo, Ferrando & Ferrandiz, 2010). Moreover, as Bayer (1990, 1998, 1999) points out, sex differences have been observed in the self-evaluation tasks related to intelligence; so researchers are suggested to be extremely conservative when generalizing the outcomes of gender differences to different social and psychological realms (Furnham, 2001).

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Ninety eight EFL learners of English at Tarbiat Moallem University participated in this study; 55 females and 43 males were involved in our study. They aged within 18 to 23. They were all studying English at intermediate and upper-intermediate levels.

B. Instrumentation

In order to measure students' logical/mathematical intelligence, the Persian version of MIDAS (multiple intelligences development assessment scales) (See Appendix A) was utilized. To avoid the possible problems related to students' language proficiency, the Persian equivalent of the logical/mathematical intelligence was administered among the students. It contained 17 likert type questions. Moreover, we used the Persian version of MARS (Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory) (See Appendix C) to measure their metacognitive strategies. This questionnaire contained 30 questions which assessed students' global, supportive and problem solving strategies. Again, the Persian equivalent of the test was utilized to avoid any possible complexity on the part of students.

C. Procedure

We used two questionnaires to measure both logical/mathematical intelligence and metacognitive strategies Iranian EFL learners used in their reading comprehension process; first of all, all the 98 students were asked to answer the logical/mathematical intelligence test. The test contained likert-type questions and the subjects were assumed to choose the best answer based on their desire and interest. The questions were all related to problem-solving activities that measured the subjects' logics, planning, and mathematical ability. Furthermore, in order to investigate what sort of metacognitive strategies they used in their reading comprehension process, they were requested to answer a questionnaire of metacognitive strategies. This test, again, contained likert-type questions which primarily focused on three basic metacognitive strategies namely as global reading strategies, problem solving strategies and supportive reading strategies. Moreover, all of the subjects were asked to specify their gender because the effect of gender was under investigation and crucially influenced the outcomes of our study. Later, using Pearson correlation, we analyzed the data obtained from each individual participant; using Pearson correlation, we analyzed the obtained data and it was revealed that logical/mathematical intelligence had a significant relationship with all levels of metacognitive strategies students may apply in their reading comprehension process.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As table No.1 shows, logical/mathematical intelligence proved to have a significant relationship with metacognitive strategies Iranian EFL learners applied in their reading comprehension process. The above-mentioned relation is 0.596 which is significant ($p < .001$). In other words, those students who apply logical/mathematical intelligence do apply metacognitive strategies while reading and are regarded to be better problem solvers. Considering the relationship between logical/mathematical intelligence and each of the metacognitive strategies sub-skills, it's noteworthy to mention that logical/mathematical intelligence had a significant relationship with problem solving strategies ($r = 0.428$), global reading strategies ($r = 0.345$) and supportive reading strategies ($r = 0.381$). As the following table shows, regarding the correlation between logical/mathematical intelligence and each of the metacognitive strategies sub-skills, Pearson correlation can be summarized as $p < .001$, $p < .01$ and $p < .001$. Needless to mention, logical/mathematical intelligence had a stronger relationship with problem solving strategies ($r = 0.428$).

TABLE NO. 1:
CORRELATION MATRIX FOR LOGICAL/MATHEMATICAL INTELLIGENCE AND METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES

	LMI	PROB	GLOB	SUP	MCST
LMI	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.428** .000	.345** .001	.381** .000	.596** .000
Prob	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)		.096 .348	.264** .009	.699** .000
GLOBE	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)			.008 .935	.619** .000
SUP	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)				.610** .000
MCSt	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)				

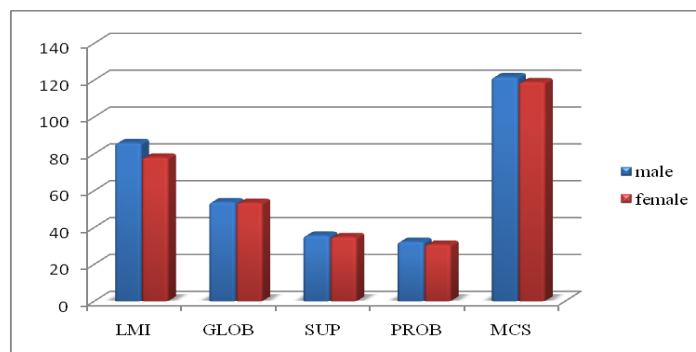
** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Considering males vs. females' performance, it's worth to mention that males surpassed females in the application of logical/mathematical intelligence. To put it differently, males and females didn't show any significant difference regarding the application of metacognitive strategies while males had a better performance in the application of logical/mathematical intelligence. Taking into account the mean for each group ($M=85.88$ for males and $M=78.00$ for females), our males' better performance is vividly depicted in the following table ($T=2.181$, $P<.05$).

TABLE2:
COMPARISON OF LOGICAL/MATHEMATICAL INTELLIGENCE IN MALES AND FEMALES

Variable	males			Females			df	T	P
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD			
LMI	43	85.88	18.28	55	78.00	17.33	96	2.181	.032

As Graph No.1 depicts clearly, males and females didn't show a sharp difference in the application of metacognitive strategies sub-skills namely global reading strategies, problem solving strategies and supportive reading strategies. However, regarding logical/mathematical intelligence, males' performance was better than females' performance.



Male and female comparison in logical/mathematical intelligence and metacognitive strategies usage

V. CONCLUSION

The present study tried to investigate the existing of any possible relationship between logical/mathematical intelligence and metacognitive strategies Iranian EFL learners used in their reading comprehension process. Moreover, it also investigated the effect of gender on the relationship. We used MIDAS (multiple intelligences development assessment scales) in order to measure students' logical mathematical intelligence. Furthermore, to measure the metacognitive strategies they used, MASRI (Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory) was used. Using Pearson correlation, we analyzed the obtained data. Data analysis revealed that logical/ mathematical intelligence had a significant relationship with metacognitive strategies in EFL context. Moreover, males and females, except for logical/mathematical intelligence usage, didn't have any significant difference in the application of metacognitive strategies. Although we found a significant relationship, caution should be observed in generalizing the outcomes to other situations in other contexts. In other word, the results show that it's definitely necessary to conduct more studies with larger samples in order to make it possible to generalize our outcomes.

APPENDIX A. LOGICAL/MATHEMATICAL INTELLIGENCE QUESTIONNAIRE (THE PERSIAN EQUIVALENT) MODIFIED FORM THE MIDAS BY C. B. SHEARER (1996)

پرسشنامه هوش ریاضی- منطقی

جنسیت: مذکر مونث

دانشجوی محترم لطفاً پس از خواندن سوالات زیر، یکی از شش گزینه ی ذکر شده را انتخاب نمایید.

(1) در کودکی، آیا درس ریاضیات را مثلاً جمع و تفریق و ضرب را زود و به راحتی فرا می گرفتید؟

(1) اصلاً (2) نسبتاً مشکل بود (3) نسبتاً ساده بود (4) خیلی ساده بود
(5) از همه بچه ها سریعتر یاد میگرفتم (6) نمی دانم

(2) در دوران مدرسه آیا شما نسبت به ریاضیات علاقه یا مهارت ویژه ای داشتید؟
(1) خیلی کم یا هیچی (2) شاید کمی (3) تا حدودی (4) بیش از حد متوسط
(5) خیلی زیاد (6) نمی دانم

(3) در مورد ریاضیات پیشرفته مانند جبر یا حساب دیفرانسیل و انتگرال چه طور؟
(1) هیچی یاد نگرفتم (2) نه خیلی خوب (3) نسبتاً خوب (4) خوب (5) عالی
(6) نمی دانم

(4) آیا شما به مطالعه علوم یا حل مسائل مربوط به آن علاقه مند هستید؟
(1) خیر (2) کمی (3) در حد متوسط (4) بیش از حد متوسط
(5) تا حد زیادی (6) نمی دانم

(5) آیا شما شطرنج یا چکرز را خوب بازی می کنید؟
(1) خیر (2) نسبتاً خوب (3) خوب (4) خیلی خوب
(5) عالی (6) نمی دانم

(6) آیا شما در انواع بازیهای کاردستی و یا فکری موفق هستید؟
(1) اصلاً (2) کمی (3) در حد متوسط (4) در حد بهتر از متوسط
(5) در حد عالی (6) نمی دانم

(7) آیا شما معمولاً جدول حل می کنید و یا بازیهای شبیه به جدول را دوست دارید؟
(1) هرگز (2) به ندرت (3) گاهی (4) اغلب
(5) همیشه (6) نمی دانم

(8) آیا شما از سیستم خوبی برای تراز کردن حسابهای یک دسته چک و یا رسم یک طرح بودجه برخوردار هستید؟
(1) اصلاً (2) نسبتاً خوب (3) خوب (4) خیلی خوب
(5) عالی (6) نمی دانم

(9) آیا شما حافظه خوبی در به خاطر سپردن اعداد مثلاً شماره تلفن یا آدرس دارید؟
(1) نه خیلی خوب (2) نسبتاً خوب (3) خوب (4) خیلی خوب
(5) عالی (6) نمی دانم

(10) شما در محاسبه اعداد در ذهنتان (به طور ذهنی) چگونه هستید؟
(1) نمیتوانم انجام دهم (2) نه خیلی خوب (3) نسبتاً خوب (4) خوب
(5) عالی (6) نمی دانم

(11) آیا شما کنجکاوی تا از علت و چگونگی هر چیزی سردر آورید؟
(1) به ندرت (2) گاهی (3) اغلب (4) تقریباً همیشه
(5) همیشه (6) نمی دانم

12) شما در طرح روشهایی برای حل مشکلات طولانی مدت و پیچیده مثلا برنامه ریزی برای زندگی‌تان چگونه هستید؟

1) اصلا خوب نیستم (2) نسبتا خوب (3) خوب (4) بهتر از حد معمول (5) عالی (6) نمی دانم

13) آیا شما نسبت به طبیعت مثلا ماهیها، حیوانات، گیاهان، ستارگان و سیارات کنجکاو هستید؟

1) به ندرت (2) گاهی (3) اغلب (4) تقریبا همیشه (5) همیشه (6) نمی دانم

14) آیا شما از تهیه کلکسیون اشیاء از یافتن هرگونه اطلاعات در مورد موضوع خاصی مانند عتیقه، اسبها و یا مثلا بیس بال لذت می برید؟

1) اصلا (2) کمی (3) گاهی (4) اغلب (5) تقریبا همیشه (6) نمی دانم

15) شما نسبت به مشاغل و پروژه هایی که به کارگیری ریاضیات یا نظم دادن امور در آنها زیاد است، چگونه هستید؟

1) اصلا خوب نیستم (2) نسبتا خوب (3) خوب (4) خیلی خوب (5) عالی (6) نمی دانم

16) خارج از محیط مدرسه، آیا شما از کارکردن با اعداد مثلا محاسبه میانگین امتیازات بازی بیس بال یا میزان مصرف سوخت در کیلومتر و یا نمودارهای بودجه و غیره لذت میبرید؟

1) اصلا (2) به ندرت (3) گاهی (4) اغلب (5) تقریبا همیشه (6) نمی دانم

17) آیا شما توانایی خوبی در طراحی فعالیتهای اجتماعی، کارهای تعمیراتی در منزل و یا تعمیرات مکانیکی دارید؟

1) گاهی (2) معمولا (3) اغلب (4) تقریبا همیشه (5) همیشه (6) نمی دانم

APPENDIX B. METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS OF READING STRATEGIES INVENTORY (MARSİ) VERSION 1.0

Kouider Mokhtari and Carla Reichard © 2002

DIRECTIONS: Listed below are statements about what people do when they read academic or school-related materials such as textbooks, library books, etc. Five numbers follow each statement (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) and each number means the following:

- 1 means "I **never or almost never** do this."
- 2 means "I do this **only occasionally**."
- 3 means "I **sometimes** do this." (About 50% of the time.)
- 4 means "I **usually** do this."
- 5 means "I **always or almost always** do this."

After reading each statement, **circle the number** (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that applies to you using the scale provided. Please note that there is no right or wrong answer to the statements in this inventory.

TYPE	STRATEGIES	SCALE				
GLOB	1. I have a purpose in mind when I read.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	2. I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	3. I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	4. I preview the text to see what it's about before reading it.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	5. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	6. I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	7. I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	8. I read slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	9. I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	10. I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	11. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	12. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	1	2	3	4	5

PROB	13. I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	14. I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	15. I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	16. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	17. I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	18. I stop from time to time and think about what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	19. I use context clues to help me better understand what I'm reading.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	20. I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	21. I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	22. I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	23. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	24. I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	25. I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	26. I try to guess what the material is about when I read.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	27. When text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP	28. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB	29. I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB	30. I try to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C. THE PERSIAN VERSION OF MARSI ADAPTED BY SAJAD DAVOUDI

- توضیحات: پرسشنامه زیر در رابطه با کارهایی است که افراد در هنگام خواندن متون درسی یا دانشگاهی انجام می دهند. در مقابل هر جمله پنج گزینه وجود دارد. معنای عدد هر گزینه به ترتیب عبارت است از:
- (1) = من هرگز یا تقریباً هیچ گاه این کار را انجام نمی دهم.
- (2) = من فقط گاهی این کار را انجام می دهم.
- (3) = من بعضی اوقات این کار را انجام می دهم. (تقریباً نیمی از اوقات)
- (4) = من اغلب این کار را انجام می دهم.
- (5) = من همیشه یا تقریباً همیشه این کار را انجام می دهم.

ردیف	شرح گویه	1	2	3	4	5
1	من هنگام خواندن هر متنی، هدفی را دنبال می کنم.					
2	من با یادداشت برداری هنگام خواندن به فهم متن کمک می کنم.					
3	من با رجوع به دانسته های قبلی ام به درک متن کمک می کنم.					
4	من برای آگاه شدن از کلیت مطلب قبل از خواندن دقیق متن، آن را به صورت اجمالی برانداز می کنم.					
5	هنگامی که خواندن متنی مشکل است آن را بلند می خوانم تا بفهمم.					
6	من از آنچه می خوانم خلاصه برداری می کنم تا بعداً به اطلاعات مهم آن فکر کنم.					
7	من به اینگونه ایا مضمون متن با هدف من از خواندن آن مطابقت دارد فکر می کنم.					
8	من برای اطمینان از فهم متنی که می خوانم آنرا آهسته ولی با دقت می خوانم.					
9	من برای سنجش فهم خود از متن در مورد آن با دیگران گفتگو می کنم.					
10	من قبل از خواندن متن آن را از جهت ویژگی هایی مثل طول و ساختار برانداز می کنم.					
11	هنگامی که تمرکز من از دست می دهم دوباره سعی می کنم حواسم را جمع کنم.					
12	من دور یا زیر مطالب مهم متن خط می کشم تا بعداً بهتر آنها را به یاد بیاورم.					
13	من سرعت خواندنم را مطابق با متنی که می خوانم تنظیم می کنم.					
14	من تصمیم می گیرم کدام قسمت ها را به دقت بخوانم و از کدام قسمت ها بی توجه بگذرم.					
15	من از کتاب های مرجع مانند دیکشنری ها برای فهمیدن متنی که می خوانم کمک می گیرم.					
16	هنگامی که متنی دشوار می شود برای فهم بهتر، آن را با توجه بیشتری می خوانم.					
17	برای فهم بهتر مطالب از جدول ها، آمار و تصاویر موجود در متن استفاده می کنم.					
18	هنگام خواندن متون گهگاه مکث می کنم و در مورد آنچه خوانده ام فکر می کنم.					
19	من از سرنخ های موجود در متن برای درک بهتر آن کمک می گیرم.					
20	برای فهم بهتر متن آن را به زبان ساده برای خودم تکرار می کنم.					
21	برای به خاطر سپردن مطالب سعی می کنم آنها را در ذهنم تجسم کنم.					
22	هنگامی که قسمتی از متن پررنگ یا مایل نوشته شده است متوجه می شوم که آن قسمت حاوی اطلاعات مهمی می باشد.					
23	من اطلاعات موجود در متن را به صورت نقادانه تحلیل و بررسی می کنم.					
24	من هنگام خواندن متن به جلو و عقب می روم تا ارتباط بین مطالب آن را بفهمم.					
25	هنگامی که احساس می کنم اطلاعات متناقضی در متن وجود دارد فهم خود را و بررسی می کنم.					
26	هنگام خواندن سعی می کنم حدس بزنم متن در مورد چیست.					
27	وقتی فهم متنی دشوار است سعی می کنم آن را دوباره بخوانم.					
28	هنگام خواندن، از خودم سوالاتی می پرسم که احساس می کنم در متن به آنها پاسخ داده شده است.					
29	من درست یا غلطی حدس هایم را درباره متن واری می کنم.					
30	من سعی می کنم معنای لغات و عبارات نا آشنا را حدس بزنم.					

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The Influence of Metaphor on Sense-impression in English

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Abstract—This paper discusses metaphor as a figure of speech first, and then talks about metaphor and synaesthesia from a cognitive perspective. In order to explain the metaphorical use of sense-impression in English, it borrows examples from some literary works. Finally, it draws the conclusion that metaphor has exerted a great influence on sense-impression in English.

Index Terms—metaphor, synaesthetic metaphor, sense-impression

I. INTRODUCTION

Metaphor has traditionally been viewed as the most important form of figurative language use, and is usually seen as reaching its most sophisticated forms in literary or poetic languages. Metaphor is like a simile, also makes a comparison between two unlike elements, but unlike a simile, this comparison is implied rather than stated. A metaphor is a figure of literary speech where one object is literally referred to as another. For example, my cat is a ball of fire would be a metaphor because the cat is being referred to as a ball of fire. A metaphor is also when two unlike things are compared directly to show some common quality between the two things. An example of a metaphor is "Time is a thief". Time is not really a thief, but both can be fleeting.

According to The Oxford English Dictionary, metaphor is the figure of speech in which a name or descriptive term is transferred to some object different from, but analogous to, that to which it is properly applicable; an instance of this, a metaphorical expression. For example,

(1) Happiness is a butterfly, which, when pursued, is always just beyond your grasp, but which, if you will sit down quietly, may alight upon you.

(2) Books are my sweethearts in my youth, my bosom friends in my middle age, and my companions in my declining years.

(3) Faith is the bird that feels the light when the dawn is still dark.

In sentence (1), a kind of feeling is portrayed as an insect; in sentence(2) books are regarded as human beings; while in sentence(3) faith is said to be a bird.

From the examples above, we can find that metaphor is somewhat like simile in that it involves the identification of resemblances, but that metaphor goes further by causing a transference, where properties are transferred from one concept to another.

II. TERMINOLOGY OF METAPHOR

In a figure of speech an implied comparison is made between two unlike things that actually have something in common. A metaphor expresses the unfamiliar (the tenor) in terms of the familiar (the vehicle). When Neil Young sings, "Love is a rose," "rose" is the vehicle for "love," the tenor. (In cognitive linguistics, the terms *target* and *source* are roughly equivalent to *tenor* and *vehicle*.)

There are generally two concepts that are involved in a metaphor. One is the starting point or described concept ('happiness' in sentence(1)) that is often called the target domain; the other is the comparison concept or the analogy ('a butterfly' in the same sentence) that is often called the source domain. In I. A. Richards's (1936) terminology the former is called the tenor and the latter, the vehicle.

III. TYPES OF METAPHOR

Metaphors can be classified in a range of different ways, based on various criteria, from complexity to level of usage.

A. Absolute Metaphor

Absolute metaphor is one where there is absolutely no connection between the subject and the metaphor. For example,

(4) I am the dog end of every day.

(5) That is worth less than a dead diggeridoo.

(6) We faced a scallywag of tasks.

In a non-absolute metaphor, the basic idea and the metaphor have some resemblance, for example using 'box' as a metaphor for 'house' or 'tube' for 'train'. A value of an absolute metaphor is in the way that it can confuse and hence make people think hard about the meaning of something. We seek always to find some meaning and hence some learning may arise. Absolute metaphors are also useful when you are at a loss for words. They can thus communicate frustration, confusion and uncertainty. The absolute metaphor is also known as a *paralogical metaphor* or *antimetaphor*.

B. Active Metaphor

An active metaphor is one which is relatively new and hence is not necessarily apparent to all listeners, although if the metaphor is well-selected, it will be easy enough to understand. For example,

- (7) Let me compare thee to an arctic day, sharp and bright, forever light...
- (8) It's been a purple dinosaur of a day.
- (9) You're looking pretty rabbit -- what's up?

Active metaphors are often used in poetry and eloquent speech to stimulate the reader or listener. When words do not fit your known patterns of meaning, you are forced to think harder about them, their use and what is intended by the author. Their use is a sign of a fertile imagination, and this attribute of the originator may well be recognized by the audience. This makes active metaphors a particularly useful method of impressing other people. Done badly, however, active metaphors can be a sign of arrogance or someone who thinks they are more intelligent than perhaps they actually are. The active metaphor is also known as a live metaphor.

C. Dead Metaphor

A dead metaphor occurs where the once-evocative transferred image is no longer effective or even understood, perhaps being lost in the aeons of time.

(10) Fabulous was something worthy of fable. Like many other superlatives, it has lost its original edge and now just means 'good'.

(11) Money was so called because it was first minted at the temple Juno Moneta.

(12) The origin of 'the whole nine yards' seems unknown, even to an expert word website.

Dead metaphors are dead in the sense that they no longer act as metaphors -- they just become plain words, with a simple functional meaning. In a sense, this is how language develops. Somebody tries to explain something by making up a word that conjures up an image, and eventually the word becomes a standard in the language, with its original image being lost or evolved. In the 'dumbing down' of language, the rich meaning of many words becomes lost, and thus many metaphors lose their meaning. To understand the metaphoric quality of many words requires that their origins are studied.

D. Extended Metaphor

An extended metaphor is one where there is a single main subject to which additional subjects and metaphors are applied. The extended metaphor may act as a central theme, for example where it is used as the primary vehicle of a poem and is used repeatedly and in different forms. For example,

- (13) He is the pointing gun, we are the bullets of his desire.
- (14) All the world's a stage and men and women merely players.
- (15) Let me count my loves of thee, my rose garden, my heart, my fixed mark, my beginning and my end.

The power of an extended metaphor is in the hammer blows that it applies, demonstrating the passion and commitment of the author. An extended metaphor is sometimes called a 'conceit', for example where the metaphoric theme of a poem is called its conceit, perhaps signifying the arrogance of the poet in assuming command of the language to the point of redefinition of terms that may be beyond many readers.

E. Mixed Metaphor

A mixed metaphor is one where the metaphor is internally inconsistent, for example where multiple metaphors are used which do not align with one another. The metaphors used often have some connection, although this is often tenuous or inappropriate. For example,

- (16) He's a loose cannon who always goes off the deep end.
- (17) He often shot his mouth off in the dark.
- (18) A rolling stone gathers no bird in the hand.
- (19) It was playing with fire in the belly.

Mixed metaphors are typically a result of trying to be too elaborate in speech and perhaps careless in the selection of metaphor. The result can be quite comic. This gives opportunity to use humor for deliberate effect.

IV. THE INFLUENCE OF METAPHOR ON SENSE-IMPRESSION

A. Sweetser's Identification of a Linguistic Metaphor

Cognitivists argue that because of their presence in speaker's minds, metaphors exert influence over a wide range of

linguistic behaviors. Sweetser(1990), for example, identifies a cross-linguistic metaphor MIND-AS-BODY, as when in English we speak of *grasping* an idea or *holding* a thought. She identifies this metaphorical viewing of the mental in terms of the physical as an important influence in the historical development of polysemy and of cognate words in related languages. Thus in English, the verb *see* has two meanings: the basic physical one of 'perceiving with the eyes' and metaphorically extended one of 'understanding' as in 'I see what you mean'. Sweetser discusses how over time verbs of sense perception in Indo-European languages have shown a consistent and widespread tendency to shift from the physical to the mental domain. Her claim is that this basic underlying metaphor underlies the paths of semantic change in many languages so that words of seeing come to mean understanding, words of hearing to mean obeying, and words of tasting to mean choosing, deciding or expressing personal preferences.

Sweetser's point is that historical semantic change is not random but is influenced by such metaphors as MIND-AS-BODY. Thus metaphor, as one type of cognitive structuring, is seen to drive lexical change in a motivated way, and provides a key to understanding the creation of polysemy and the phenomenon of semantic shift.

B. *The Relationship between 'Synaesthesia' and 'Metaphor'*

Synaesthesia refers to the use of metaphors in which terms relating to one kind of sense-impression are used to describe sense-impression of other kinds; the production of synesthetic effect in writing or an instance of this. (The Oxford English Dictionary, 1986) For example, a loud shirt; quiet color; cold words; sweet smile; heavy silence; soft green, etc.

From a cognitive perspective, synaesthesia is also a phenomenon of metaphor. The target domain and the source domain belong to different sense impression. Generally, we have five sense-impressions: visual impression, auditory impression, gustatory impression, olfactory impression and tactile impression. In literary works, terms relating to one kind of sense-impression are often used to describe sense-impression of other kinds in order to achieve a significant effect. Metaphor has the capacity to 'introduce a sensory logic at the semantic level alluding to a more complex scenario of interrelated meanings and experiences of the world'. (Cacciari, 1998:128) One of the most common types of metaphoric transfer is synaesthesia, i.e., the transfer of information from one sensory modality to another. The five sense-impressions are closely related to each other and interwoven with each other.

C. *The Metaphorical Use of Sense-impression*

Synaesthesia signifies the experience of two or more kinds of sensation when only one sense is being stimulated. In literature the term is applied to descriptions of one kind of sensation in terms of another; color is attributed to sounds, odor to colors, sound to odors, and so on. We often speak of loud colors, bright sound, and sweet music. A complex literary example of synaesthesia (which is sometimes also 'sense transference' or 'sense analogy') is this passage from Shelley's 'The Sensitive Plant'(1820):

(20) And the hyacinth purple, and white, and blue
Which flung from its bells a sweet peal anew
Of music so delicate, soft, and intense
It was felt like an odor within the sense.

The varicolored, bell-shaped flowers of the hyacinth send out a peal of music which effects a sensation as though it were (what in fact it is) the scent of the flowers.

Keats, in the 'Ode to a Nightingale'(1819), calls for a draught of wine:

(21) Tasting of Flora and the country green,
Dance, and Provencal song, and sunburnt mirth;
That is, he calls for a drink tasting of sight, color, motion, sound, and heat.

Occasional uses of synaesthesia imagery have been made by poets ever since Homer, such imagery became much more frequent in the Romantic period, and was especially exploited by the French *Symbolists* of the middle and later nineteenth century. Apart from the examples above, there are still other examples indicating the metaphorical use of sense-impression.

1. *Visual-Auditor*

(22) You see the creature with her curbstone English. (B. Shaw, *Pygmalion*)

In this sentence, curbstone English can be seen, which is a vivid example of auditory sense felt by visual sense.

(23) April, April

Laugh thy golden laughter...(W. Watson, *Song*)

Here laughter is shaded with the golden color as if it can be seen.

(24) In the air, always, was a might smell of sound that is seemed could sway the earth. With courageous words of artillery and spiteful sentence of musketry mingled red cheers. (S. Crane, *The Red-Badge of Courage*)

The word 'cheers' is modified by a color term 'red', which is vivid description of the scenario of the war field.

(25) The dusk was repeating them in a persistent whisper all around us, in a whisper that seemed to smell me menacingly like the first whisper of a rising wind.

(J. Conrad, *Heart of Darkness*)

(26) Like unto cicadae that in a forest sit upon a tree and pour forth their lily-like voice. (Homer)

In this sentence, 'voice' seems to have certain shape, a shape of the beautiful flower lily.

2. Gustatory-Tactile

(27) This mustard is hot enough to bite your tongue.

We all know that mustard is a condiment, and it cannot bite your tongue actually. Since it is very hot condiment, you will feel your tongue is bitten if you have too much of it.

(28) Yet I live here, I live here too. I sing
Expertly civil-tongued with civil neighbors
On the high wires of first wireless reports,
Sucking the fake taste, the *stony flavors*
Of those sanctioned, old, elaborate retorts

(Seamus Heaney, *Whatever You Say Say Nothing*)

Here, a flavor is a stony object, which is good example of tasting is touching.

(29) The following for the record, in the light
Of everything before and since:

One bright May morning, nineteen-seventy-nine,
Just off the red-eye special from New York,
I'm on the train for Belfast, Plain, simple
Exhilaration at being back: the sea
At Skerries, the nuptial hawthorn bloom,
The trip north taking *sweet hold* like a chain.
On every bodily sprocket.

(Seamus Heaney, *The Flight Path IV*)

Here holding is tasting, which denotes touching is tasting.

3. Gustatory- Auditory

(30) And the verse of sweet old song

It flutters and murmurs still...(H. W. Longfellow, *My Lost Youth*)

(31) And like music on the waters

Is thy sweet voice to me. (Lord Byron. *There be none of beauty's daughters*)

(32) The stewardness flung open the door, and someone opened the emergency door at the back, letting in the sweet noise of their continuing mortality the idle splash and smell of heavy rain. (J. Cheever, *The Country Husband*)

In the three sentences above, we have 'sweet old song', 'sweet voice', and 'sweet noise'. These expressions are all the synaesthetic effect of gustatory impression to auditory impression.

4. Olfactory-Auditory

(33) Soft music like a perfume, and sweet light

Golden with audible odors exquisite

Swathe me with cerements for eternity (A. Symons, *The Opium Smoker*)

Here the music seems to have the odors of perfume, which will impress the people how excellent the music is.

(34) His voice was a censer that scattered strange perfume. (O. Wilde. *Salome*)

In this sentence, 'voice' is said to be a censer, which also stresses how good the voice is.

(35) Lifted their noses as they smelt music. (W. Shakespeare. *The Tempest Act III*)

Music can often be listened to, but can we smell the music? Here the particular use indicates that people enjoy the music very much.

(36) A loud perfume, which at my entrance, cried ev'n at the father's nose. (John. Donne)

Another interesting use of perfume here is that perfume can cry at one's nose. In fact, it means the odor of the perfume is very strong.

5. Olfactory-Gustatory

(37) The warm bitter sweet smell of clean Negro welcomed us as we entered the churchyard.

The terms 'bitter' and 'sweet' are all gustatory terms. They are used here to describe the 'smell' which is a olfactory term.

6. Olfactory-Tactile

(38) Splendid cheese, ripe and mellow, and with a two hundred horse-power scent about them that might have been warranted to carry three miles and knock a man over at two hundred yards.

7. Tactile-Auditory

(39) Cool the sound of the brook...(Longfellow, *The Golden Legend*)

(40) Music, when soft voices die,

Vibrates in the memory (P. B. Shelley, *Music, when soft voices die*)

(41) Thinking of these years, the only real thing I recall is the soft hiss of bicycle tyres on the main street. (*American Dream*)

(42) Here will we sit and let the sounds of music creep in our ears; Soft stillness and the night become the touches of sweet harmony. (W. Shakespeare)

8. Combination of two or more senses

(43) Soft music like a perfume and sweet light
 Golden with audible odors exquisite
 Swathe me with cerements for eternity. (Arthur Symons: *The Opium Smoker*)

(44) It's my soul that calls upon my name
 How silver sweet sound lovers' tongues by night
 Like softest music to attending ears. (W. Shakespeare: *Romeo and Juliet Act II*)

Here, in the two examples above, two or more sense-impressions are activated metaphorically such as soft music (*Auditory-Tactile*); sweet light (*Gustatory-Visual*); audible odors (*Olfactory-Auditory*); silver sound (*Auditory-Visual*); sweet sound (*Auditory-Gustatory*).

V. CONCLUSION

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), "the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another". However, "... metaphor is not just a matter of language, that is, of mere words. On the contrary, human *thought processes* are largely metaphorical" (emphasis in original). In other words, "Metaphors as linguistic expressions are possible precisely because there are metaphors in a person's conceptual system". "Metaphoric expressions of the unity of the senses evolved in part from fundamental synesthetic relationships but owe their creative impulse to the mind's ability to transcend these intrinsic correspondences and forge new multisensory meanings. Intrinsic, synesthetic relations express the correspondences that are, extrinsic relations assert the correspondences that can be." (Marks, 1978, pp. 103)

We can say, without need for apprehension, that synaesthetic metaphors are indeed metaphors. Moreover, they can work just like most other metaphors (however that actually is!). The problem is, how easily can we say that they are derived in the same manner? For if they are not derived like other metaphors but have a type or extension/variation of truth behind them, do they come to have meaning via the same semantic processes as other metaphors?

The meanings for synaesthetic metaphors are not simply there, hard-wired and innate, but are generated through semantic processes and fashioned by time and cultural elements, much like other metaphors. The trends and universals of synaesthetic metaphors are built and evolve in the same manner as for other metaphors, through linguistic and cultural processes; and these trends and universals can be investigated from a linguistic standpoint.

The next step in investigation is to look at synaesthetic metaphors in other languages and cultures: uniformity in patterns across languages might indicate a more biological basis, while divergence would indicate the degree to which low-level, random synaesthesia is mediated by culture.

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The Sociolinguistic Drawbacks in the English Learning Environment in a Multilingual Society

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Abstract—This research paper focuses on barriers confronting learners of the English language in a multilingual setting specifically, a secondary school in Nigeria. Proficiency in English is used as a yardstick to measure the competency of students in Nigerian schools. Majority of students and graduates in Nigeria are not able to use standard English in their formal and informal discourse. The appalling situation of the educational sector is traceable to myriad of factors, but this paper focuses only on the sociolinguistic variables impinging on the Nigerian students' effort to learn and use English. It therefore, examines the collective negative impact of linguistic interference, social environment, and the shift in values on the student's learning and usage of English and recommends more effective measures on the damaging effects of illiterate English use on the learning efforts of students. This study adopted qualitative approach where the observation and interview methods were used to collect data. This paper urges the government to take strategic measures to control the usage of pidgin and vernacular dialects in schools and other elements that can weaken the effort to encourage the usage of standard English.

Index Terms—vernacular dialects, pidgin, multilingual society, learning English, linguistic interference

I. INTRODUCTION

English is now the major communication and learning tool, the access or window to developments in the world - be it political, cultural, economic, social, or technological. English, in Nigeria is the language inherited from their colonial master (the British). Given the multilingual setting of Nigeria (over 400 indigenous languages and dialects), English became the lingua franca for administration, education, mass media, commerce, etc. English is the first and second language of most Nigerians after their mother tongue. According to Adegbite (2003):

The over 400 languages in Nigeria have been categorized in different ways by scholars, based on the parameters of sequence of acquisition, number of speakers and roles assigned to languages ...with the following labels:

1. Dominant language: English
2. Majority languages: Hausa, Igbo, and Yoruba
3. Minority languages: Angos, Edo, Efik, Tiv, Fulfude, Kanuri, etc (p. 186)

Whenever a group of Nigerians meet and find that they do not share a common language, say Igbo, Hausa, Yoruba, Edo, etc, they choose to interact in English. Thus, English serves as the lingua franca, a unifying force among the various ethnic groups, the medium of instructions in schools, the means of communication with the outside world, the language of the mass media, and the language of law, commerce and industry. It is obvious from these uses of English in Nigeria that the language at least for now, is very important tool for communication. Subsequently, proficiency in both spoken and written forms of the language is vital. Adegbite's (2003) functional classification of Nigerian languages is presented below (p.186) :

TABLE 1:
STATUS OF LANGUAGES IN NIGERIA

Status	Languages	Roles
Level V	English	National and International Roles
Level IV	Hausa, Igbo, and Yoruba	Regional Lingua francas, used in network news
Level III	Pidgin English	Restricted lingual franca
Level II	Edo, Efik, Fulfude, Idoma Igala, Ijaw, Kanuri, Nupe, Tiv	Ethnic language used in network news
Level I	Other minor languages	Ethnic or sub-ethnic roles

This is the basis of Olaore's (1992) suggestion that we:

include... in the country's language policy the fact that for a long time to come English will continue to play a prominent role in the socio-economic and political development of Nigeria as the language of administration, politics industry, education, science and technology. (p. 21)

Therefore, English for development is a 'sine qua non' for tapping, exploring and exploiting local and foreign resources. Compared to the zeal and resources put up to fight AIDS/HIV in Nigeria by the local, state, and federal governments, not much effort, emphasis, and concern has been given to the learning of English. This paper would focus on this neglect and the circumstances confronting the Nigerian students in their effort to learn and use English. The researchers examined the negative impact of linguistic interference, social environment, and the collective shift in values on the students' learning and usage of English.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Every language is an idiom in the sense that it encapsulates people's vision of the world, their historical experiences, their understanding of the world and their personality (Carrol, 1956). No two groups of people are purely identical in their outlook on life. The language is thus, the distinguishing characteristic medium through which they express themselves. Thus, their reasoning pattern is reflected in the structuring and patterning of their language (Lanza & Svendsen, 2007, p. 276).

The term, 'Nigerian English' is actually the direct consequence of interference because they tend to use their previous mother tongue or first language experiences as the basis for organizing the second language (English) data (Brown, 2008). 'Nigerian English' is actually a reference to the substandard variety of English generally use in Nigeria, especially in social situations. Examples are: '*I am coming*' meaning '*In a moment*' or '*Excuse me*', '*He is not on seat*' meaning '*He is not available in the office*'.

Interference can take place in several forms namely phonological, lexical and syntactical. Phonological interference refer to the sound pattern or features of a given language. English language for example has 44 phonemes of vowel and consonant description. Some of these phonemes or sounds are present in English alone while some are identical or similar to the ones in other languages. For example, the dental fricatives / θ, ð / are not in the local languages of Nigerians (Yoruba, Hausa, Igbo, Efik, Idoma, Edo, Ijaw, etc). But the plosives /t, d/ are among our local language phonemes. Therefore, we tend to realize the plosives /t, d/ in place of the dental fricatives /θ, ð/ when we come across them in words. Examples:

Phonological Interference

	English	Nigerian
thank	/θæŋk/	/tæŋk/
thief	/θi:f/	/ti:f/
Tactic	/tæktik/	/tæktik/
them	/ðem/	/dem/
tail	/teil/	Thee /ði:/
third	/θ3:d/	/t3d/
division	/divi3n/	

From the phonetic transcriptions above it is obvious that average Nigerian users of English are not able to realize the dental fricatives / θ, ð / in their pronunciation. Aside from this general difficulty, tribal groups in Nigeria have their peculiar phonological difficulties.

The fricatives / f, v / are difficult for the Hausa speaker of English as illustrated below:

	English	Hausa
fifty	/fifti/	/pipti/
five	/faiv/	/paip/

Note that in place of the labio-dental /f, v/, they tend to realize the bilabial plosive sound/p/.

Also / ð / becomes / z / and / θ / becomes / s /.

The Yoruba speaker tends to realize the fricative /s / in place of the affricate / ts / and palato- alveolar / ʃ /. For example:

	English	Yoruba
church	/ts3:ts/	/s3s/
child	/tsaild/	/saild/
chalk	/ts :k/	/s :k/
soil	/s il/	/s il/
son	/s^n/	/s^n/
soon	/su:n/	/su:n/

Interference is the result of the influence of first language in the process of acquiring a new language which can affect the bilingual communicator's competence to use the acquired language effectively. Quirk & Greenbaum (1973) explained interference as "the trace left by someone's native language upon the foreign language he has acquired". Brown (2008) described the observation as 'the interfering effects of the native language on the target (the second) language' opines that 'adult second language linguistic processes are more vulnerable to the effect of the first language

on the second' (p. 102). It constitutes a barrier because the first language usually has a dominating influence on the organs of speech of the communicator and invariably his grammatical, lexical and phonological systems are affected. Therefore, learning a foreign language amounts to learning to overcome the difficulties imposed by the influence of the native language.

Lexical Interference: also described in linguistic terms as lexico-semantic interference, is when the communicator ascribes the meaning of a word or utterance as obtained in the first language to target language. Thus, an additional or totally new meaning as influenced by the first language is transferred to the word in the second language in performance. Instances are:

"My electric globe is dead"	for	"My electric bulb is burnt"
"The novel is sweet"	for	"The novel is interesting"
"I have put money on her head"	for	"I have paid her bride price"
"Our chairman has eaten our money"	for	"our chairman has embezzled our money"

Syntactic Interference: This form of interference manifests in adopting the syntactic pattern (grouping of words into sense relations to create utterances as a phrase, clause, sentence) of our first language in forming utterances in the target language. Examples are;

"We have been asked to pay two naira"	for	"we have been asked to pay two naira each"
"You are understanding me now?"	for	"Do you understand me now?"
"Thank you of yesterday"	for	"Thank you for yesterday"
"This matter is painning me"	for	"This matter disturbs/worries me"
"Do not frown your face"	for	"Do not frown"

Factors of Interference

There are several factors interfering with the English learning process in Nigeria namely the environment, campus life, and social factors.

The present social environment which is generally dominated by electronic media brings negative impact on the children's morals, education, and culture. Students show more interest in entertainment, money, compact discs (CD) and clothing. They prefer to watch violent movies and listen to music with obscene themes and contain vulgar and offensive lyrics. This attitude is carried to the classroom. Hence, slangs more than pidgin, standard English, even local languages, dominates their language choice in their interactions. There is a painful shift in values from concern for and interest in education to materialism.

Naturally, young people are adept at copying what they see and hear and perhaps made negative improving on their language, character, norms and values (Garrett and Baquedano-Lopez, 2002, p. 339-340). As we learned from philosophers, the quality of a man's language is a good measure of his moral state. That our students now prefer pidgin, vulgar, and slang varieties of English in their discourse is a pointer to their level of debasement and disinterest in acceptable social norms reflected in standard English.

Good English has never been known to be the language of gangsters, prostitutes, armed robbers, motor park touts, market traders, and entertainers. Illiterate English (slang, pidgin, etc) is usually the hallmark of this group of people. They are influenced by the economic status. It can be argued that the economic status of a man determines his social class and thus, his class or variety of language (in this case, English). In total, the general poverty of Nigerians is responsible for their poor education and poor English.

Observation: Campus

In the past, on campus, pidgin English was informally outlawed and users were mocked and ridiculed and everyone was wary and made it a point to use proper English. Proficiency in English was one major mark of recognition of a student. The reverse is the case now. The researchers had on several occasions observed students' common language of discourse, interaction or entertainment is always pidgin English, local language or slang. And we know that it would likely be the same at other schools (primary, secondary, tertiary); never standard English. A glossary sample of current campus slang is presented below:

"Fade, relocate, discharge"	means to disperse; leave a place; or to go away
"How far?"	means "hello; how are you?"
"Resolve yourself"	means "relax, be humble; keep quiet"
"Halla"	means "call "shout; scream"
"Lock up"	"to ignore; be quiet; to say nothing"
"Which level"	means "what is going on?"
"Over you"	means "to be disappointed" a loss
"Remove, manga, waste, drop"	means to "kill"
"Lugga, fine girl"	means 'a gun (pistol)

The researchers noted too that that a large number of teachers conversed with their students using pidgin English. This posed another cause for concern as students view their teachers as role models (Cosin, Dale, Esland, Swift, 1971, p. 4). It was also observed that the children of the rich and privileged speak better English because they came from well nourished and educated background. They only began to encounter substandard English when they met the children of

the poor at school. Bandwagon takes effect and they invariably copied the slangs and pidgin English used by the majority of the students.

The researcher conducted observation in the teachers room for three times a week for two weeks. During the observation sessions, there were at least twenty teachers at a time. They communicated with pidgin English; and this pattern was consistent throughout the observation period.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Sampling

The subjects of this study were thirty students comprised of boys and girls who were in Year Five of secondary schools. They were preparing for the exiting examination. They came from various social strata and with different levels of English proficiency. Twenty teachers teaching English were employed in this study. They possessed degree in English from various institutes of higher learning in Nigeria.

B. Methodology

This study employed the qualitative approach for its data presentation. The data for this study were collected through observation and interview. The observation was conducted in the teachers' room, in the school compound where the students hung out during their break time and in the samples' homes for a period of two months. The observation was carried out fortnightly in order to note some changes if any. The consent of the samples' families were obtained before the researchers visited them. The second method of data collection was through interview. This process allowed the researchers to get more information on factors that discourage them from speaking standard English and also to obtain information that was missing during the observation.

a. Discussion

The researchers observed the choice and patterns of language (English, pidgin, vernacular) used by tertiary school students in a state in Nigeria (the situation in the state would be reflective more or less of the general condition in Nigeria). The purpose was to examine the collective negative impact of L1 transfers, social environment, and values on students' learning and usage of English, highlight the damaging effects of these factors and suggest remedial measures to make learning and use of English more effective in schools.

The observations revealed that the use of English was most often restricted to formal situations (examples, school offices, meetings with teachers, and class presentation) and that outside of these contexts, vernacular or mother tongue (say Hausa, Igbo, Edo, Yoruba, Tiv, etc. depending on the ethnic group in the region) and pidgin English- the common lingual franca especially in southern part of Nigeria-were used in informal situations (at homes, outside of the classroom, most social meetings, etc, see table 1). This situation, by implication limited the students' learning of English and in the classroom. They had limited or no opportunity of acquiring the English language through interactions. As a consequent, they received very little input in English and little outlet for his English output.

The data collected through interviews with 30 students (because many refused the interview session due to shyness) revealed (female:10, male:20) some of the barriers and personal frustrations of some of the students at their effort to use English. They claimed that due to peer group influence they we.re often encouraged to use pidgin or vernacular. Many of their friends and school mates poked fun at them as pretentious 'white boys or girls' when they insisted on using standard English. For fear of mockery and ridicule coupled with the fact that interactions were conducted in languages other than English, virtually killed their attempts to speak standard English. Regarding the negative effects of illiterate English and vernacular use on their general English knowledge, the students interviewed agreed that it had serious impact on their overall English abilities. However, some students succeeded the challenges and were actually able to speak good English.

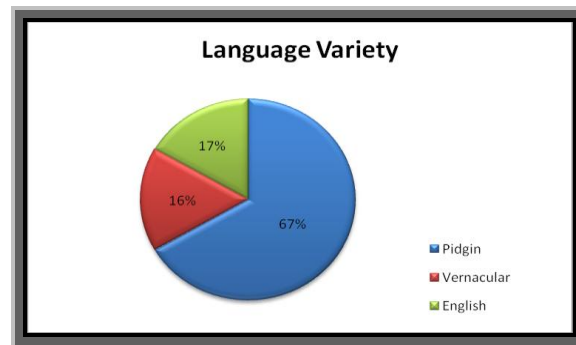
One of the teachers in a primary school in a personal communication with the researchers lamented the dilemma of most teachers especially in the rural areas who are compelled to conduct their classes in pidgin since it is the common language the pupils understand and can use.

b. Interviews

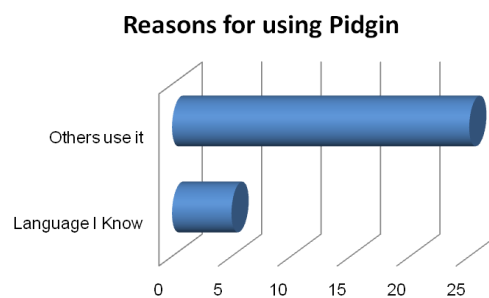
Results from the interview revealed that all the teachers interviewed were disappointed with the falling standard of the usage of English amongst students. They felt that if this trend continues, the role of standard English as a medium of instruction and interaction will be replaced with pidgin. They were also concerned that if no action is taken, the students' academic performance will deteriorate because the texts and examinations are written in standard English. As a result, students may no longer be able to comprehend written text. They also expressed dismay towards their colleagues who encourage the use of pidgin in their classrooms. On the part of the students, those interviewed expressed their desire to continue speaking pidgin and revealed how they were influenced by their peers to speak pidgin instead of standard English. A small number of the students however, disagree with the use of pidgin because they felt that acquiring standard English can guarantee better career opportunities and social status. The following table shows the questions asked during the interview and the results are shown below.

c. Interview Questions and Results

1. Which of these languages do you use regularly: pidgin, vernacular, English?



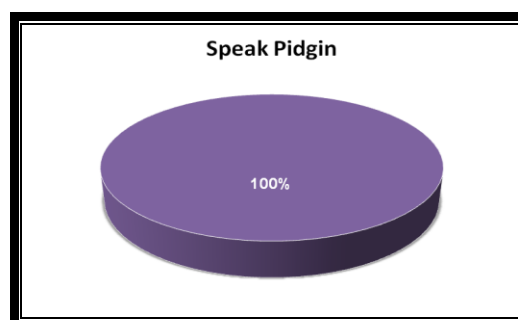
2. Do you use pidgin because others use it or it is the language you know?



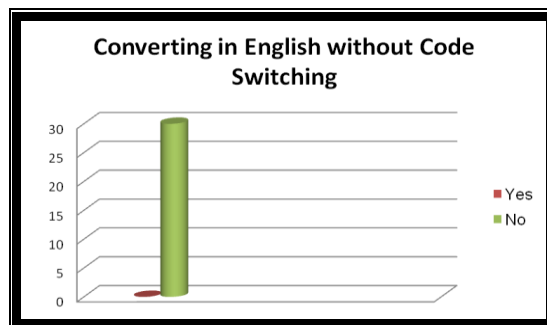
3. Can you comment on the negative effects of pidgin or vernacular on your learning and use of English?



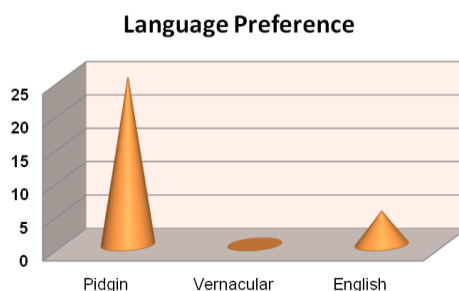
4. Which of these languages do you often use in the classroom without the teacher in class?



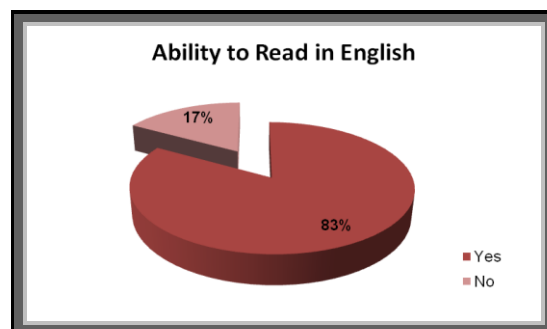
5. Are you able to converse in English without code switching?



6. Do you prefer people speak to you using pidgin, vernacular, English?



7. Do you find it difficult to read English materials?



IV. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is clear therefore, that the environment of students in Nigeria *vis a vis* their home was lacking educational material, daily scraping for a living, negative influence of schoolmates, entertainment features, and shift in social values impact negatively on the students' learning and use of English. In effect, the problem of poor English of students in Nigeria must be examined and tackled from both economic and political perspectives and the government is best suited to do this. After all, it is a truism that the English of the poor is nearly always poor (Lanza and Svendsen, 2007, p. 275).

We therefore recommend that:

1. Parents and governments should invest more resources and manpower in education;
2. The Federal and Local Governments should make a determined effort to improve the living standard of Nigerians so a significant number can move up the socio-economic ladder to the middle class;
3. The government should institute harsh punitive measures to control the production, circulation, and sale of pornographic literature and violent movies;
4. Entertainers (especially musicians) be sanctioned for using any obscene language; more so foreign music, media and entertainment literature be strictly censored;
5. More counseling be done in schools on the damaging effect of illiterate English use on the learning efforts of students;
6. Condemn and reject crime and all those who benefits by it. When these are taken care, then children will learn more from what they see and hear and would cease to regard these common thieves, their ways and their language as model personalities; and

7. Youths should be encouraged to be moderate in their dress code as we tend to speak in the manner of our attire. There is every likelihood that a man of unpleasant and shabby appearance would use vulgar, indecent and slangy language.

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On Approach of Interpretation with Explanations in C-E International Communication of China's Universities

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Abstract—In accordance with the classifications and features summarized with regard to the practical use of international communication of China's universities, through the thinking and practicing in the international affairs work in China's universities, this paper intends to study some interpretation approaches to look for a most effective approach for the guidance of interpreters in practical international communication interpretation work. Among all those interpreting approaches the explanatory interpretation approach is a most effective and commonly used one in the international communication of China's universities.

Index Terms—interpretation, explanation, international communication

I. TRANSLATION APPROACHES AND INTERPRETATION WITH EXPLANATIONS APPROACHES

From more than two thousand years, the most common terms associated with translation, have been *meaning*, *equivalence*, *accuracy*, *technique*, and so on. These concepts are purely technical and evaluative, referring to an activity performed on words, sentences and whole texts. Translation has traditionally been thought of in highly mechanical ways: as an impersonal process of transferring a meaning from a source text to a target text without changing it significantly. Interpreters, the people of primary importance behind this process, have been studied largely "in negative ways, in terms of the distortive or disruptive impact of their 'opinions', 'biases', or 'misunderstandings' on the successful completion of the processes". (Robinson, 1997, p.8) To a great extent, theoretical attention to interpreters has been directed at stripping the ideal interpreter of such distortions. It specifically aimed at warning interpreters against errors of all sorts, and intentional or unintentional divergences from the stable meaning of the original text. Therefore, the interpreting activity would not be interfered with human interaction and motivation of the real world.

Newmark (2001) once said "The final solution is explanation when there encounters the situation of at one's wits' end." As a matter of fact, interpretation with explanations accounts for a large proportion during the interpretation process. The commonality of human beings has caused a variety of language semantics that can be accommodated and are understandable within different cultures; therefore it is not that difficult to solve the difference of language forms in the process of interpretation. The interpreter may describe or explain with the most similar source language after totally understanding the original meaning of the message according to his mastered vocabulary and language features of the source language. Only in this way, can they abandon the binding of the specificity of the original grammar and vocabulary to not only make the interpretation language pure mother language but also express the content and style of the original works faithfully. And this kind of interpretation is the explanation to the meaning of language and the most appropriate and equivalent meaning of the original text. In a certain sense, interpretation with explanations is to directly integrate knowledge unknown to readers in original text into the interpretation and not relying on explanatory notes, which is so called "hua yin wei xian".

"What translation theory does is," Newmark said, "first, to identify and define a translation Problem (no problem---no translation theory!); second, to indicate all the factors that have to be taken into account in solving the problem; third, to list all the possible translation procedures; finally, to recommend the most suitable translation procedure, plus the appropriate translation." Then he concluded, "Translation theory is pointless and sterile if it does not arise from the Problems of translation practice..." In addition, he said that the various theories in his book "are only generalizations of translation practices."

From the practical perspective, interpretation with explanations approach refers to the addition of words to make the receptors understand the content of the words and avoiding misunderstandings when the passage refers to some aspects of a country's situation.

II. CHARACTERS FOR INTERPRETATION IN INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION OF CHINA'S UNIVERSITIES

Each interpreter, when interpreting, has the duty to do his best to achieve, to the utmost extent, faithfulness, accuracy and adequacy to enable his receptors to acquire the original message. This should be the goal of interpreters all over the globe. The final standards for the assessment of the quality of a translation, said Mr. Tan Zaixi, a well-known scholar

and translation theorist, are as follows: (1) The interpretation can enable its readers to comprehend, in a correct way, the information contained in the original text, i.e. it is “faithful to the original”; (2) The interpretation is easy to comprehend; (3) The interpretation has an appropriate form or style that appeals to its receptors. In a word, the interpretation must conform to the requirements for an interpreted text. These three standards may be said to be the crystallization of Nida’s Principles of “dynamic equivalence”, or “functional equivalence”. (Tan, 1984, p.126)

What principle should we apply when interpreting in the international communication of China’s universities? In accordance with the general characters of international communication in particular, accuracy, politeness and innovation are the most important principles to apply.

A. Accuracy

Being the first requirement and characteristic of the language used in diplomatic practice, accuracy is so important that any misuse may result in trouble or even disaster for a nation. This is the same with a university. Commenting on the necessity for the accurate use of language in diplomatic situations, on 8th November, 1949, on the establishment meeting of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Premier Zhou Enlai once said, “Diplomacy is a more difficult career than others... Any weakness caught in diplomacy will invite a rebuff from the adversary.” “Weakness” mentioned by Premier Zhou refers to a mistake or inappropriateness in language. In this sense, accuracy is also required in interpreting one language into another as well as in using a foreign language directly.

1. The accuracy of phonetics

First, one of the fundamental differences between human beings and the other animals is that humans have language with which they can communicate and exchange complex ideas. However, the key point of language is phonetics or pronunciation. Throughout the history of English interpretation, there have been lots of examples of success and lessons of failure as well as the jokes and misunderstandings arising from inaccurate pronunciation. The accuracy of phonetics in international communication of China’s universities is the basic requirement for successful interpretation.

For example, once when a China’s educational delegation conducted the visiting investigations in abroad, one of the interpreters caused a big misunderstanding because of the inaccurate pronunciation. He originally intended to speak to the waitress that, “Give me the keys, please.” But because of the inaccurate pronunciation, the long vowel [i:] was pronounced into the short vowel [i]. The original sentence was thus interpreted as “Give me a kiss.” The inaccuracy of one word’s pronunciation caused an international misunderstanding which could certainly have been avoided. Eventually, owing to another interpreter’s explanation, the misunderstanding didn’t cause an adverse consequence. Again, other words such as “six / sex, sheep / ship, soup / soap, menu / manure” etc. are all the words that are easy to be mispronounced. So the interpreters must have an excellent pronunciation basically and must strictly abide by the standards and requirements of English interpretation in international communication.

2. The accuracy of listening

Listening is the most important and difficult hurdle in interpretation of international communication affair. It is also a most important indicator to measure the real interpretation’s level of interpreters. There exist big differences between oral interpretation and paper translation. Paper interpreters not only have sufficient time to search for appropriate words and sentences and refine the translation contents repeatedly to make the translation work perfect, but also can look up accessible dictionaries or consult other references. The tasks of oral interpreters are quite different from that of paper translators. Because of the time limitation, oral interpreters are not allowed to refer to dictionaries or consult other people, but have to respond promptly and input or output the information at a high speed on the spot. So interpreters must understand the source language completely to achieve the goal of successful input and output to target receptors.

There are some demands in improving the listening ability for interpreters.

First, the key point that affects listening is the language environment. Interpreters working abroad all year long or those interpreters working with foreigners in domestic environment for a long term can improve their listening abilities very quickly and effectively. Conversely, interpreters who work in a poor language environment where there is little chance to go abroad for visiting tasks or very few foreigners come to visit are sure to improve their listening abilities very slowly. So if they don’t have a long-term and planned listening training, their listening ability will become lower and lower. As we know that listening is the first threshold of exchanges, so if they can’t listen they can’t exchange ideas.

Second, interpreters need to be accustomed to different foreigners’ accents. English is most widely used in all over the world. Therefore, the English pronunciation and intonation differ from different people in different countries. For example there are British English, American English, Southeast Asia English, Germany English, England English, and so on. Even in the same country, people in different regions have different pronunciation. For example: There are big differences between British English and American English in pronunciation.

The British English pronunciation of the sentence is: “I can not [ka: nt] do it.”

The American English pronunciation of the same sentence is: “I can not [k nt] do it.”

The interpreters who are unfamiliar with the pronunciation of American English easily get the information of “I can do it.” The two different pronunciations are totally opposite and easily lead to misunderstandings for listeners.

3. The accuracy of knowledge

The interpreters’ range of knowledge is an important factor that has influences on the interpretation career and is critical to the success of an interpretation. Due to the differences among individual foreign dignitaries, social status, education, occupation, hobbies and so on, the interpreters not only need to know the foreigners’ background of politics,

economics, culture but also the foreign policy, geographic location, climate, communist party and government organizations, even heads of state, but also need to understand the folk traditional customs of foreigners.

A professional interpreter has a wide knowledge range and be able to interpret in more than one area of knowledge accurately. Most professional interpreters are called upon to interpret in a variety of fields. It would be hard to find an interpreter who is a scientist, a lawyer, a medical doctor, and an engineer at the same time. In fact, such a person probably does not exist. One does not have to be a lawyer when s/he is interpreting legal documents. Many a professional interpreter has been able to gain enough knowledge and acquire a vocabulary in a variety of technical fields to be able to produce perfectly accurate and well-written interpretations in those fields. One must, however, have a natural curiosity about many different areas of human knowledge and activity, and an interest in increasing one's vocabulary in a variety of related as well as unrelated fields. On the other hand, one must be sensitive to certain basic principles of interlingual communication, and on the basis of these principles, acquire the necessary skill through extensive practice. Quite clearly, a theory of interpretation is not enough. One must put it into practice. Reading a book about sports such as swimming, skiing, or riding a bicycle will not make one really involved in these activities without practice.

4. The accuracy of the cross-culture

Nida (1969) says: "It is true that in all translating and interpreting the source language and target languages must be implicitly or explicitly compared, but all such interlingual communication extends far beyond the mechanics of linguistic similarities and contrasts. One of the main reasons for this is that the meaning of verbal symbols on any and every level depends on the culture of the language community. Language is a part of culture, and in fact, it is the most complex set of habits that any culture exhibits. Language reflects the culture, provides access to the culture, and in many respects constitutes a model of the culture." In the process of translation, cultural messages carried by a certain language can be expressed in another language, thus making cross-cultural communication possible. In this process, new concepts, new genres and new devices are introduced into a target culture. The history of translation is, in a way, the history of the shaping power of one culture upon another.

Interpretation is not only a kind of inter-language activity but also a kind of cross-cultural activity. The differences caused from language and culture will inevitably bring difficulties to interpreters in comprehension. But as an international communication interpreter, a person must accurately understand the different culture and interpret the original against the cross-culture background.

In some cross-cultural communications, there are distinctive differences between English and Chinese in the ways of expression. For example, when Chinese people come to meet the overseas guests, they usually say, "您一路辛苦了!" If we interpret literally into "You must be tired after such a long trip." it will obviously displease the western guests, because the westerners will think that he looks very tired and old. The more appropriate translation is "Did you have a nice trip?" Or "Did you enjoy your trip?" Thus, a correct analysis and comprehension of the original language is the basis of interpretation in practical international communication. If we cannot understand correctly, it will be impossible for us to accurately convey the message. Therefore, in the English interpretation of international communication of China's universities, to understand the differences between English and Chinese culture and to interpret with accurate cross-culture knowledge will make the interpretation effective.

B. Political Nature

With China's development and opening up, China plays an increasingly important role in the world. More people throughout the world want to have a better understanding of China, not only its culture and history, but also its present political and economic development. Political interpretation in China, as a mouthpiece of the Chinese government, is actually an effective means to inform people within and outside China of its prevailing policies as well as its political and economic affairs. Interpretation, as an indispensable way of cultural exchange and communication between different nations, is therefore decisive in regard to whether these messages can successfully get across to the target language receptor. It therefore demands a high degree of political sensitivity from international communication interpreters.

Accordingly, international communication interpretation is of a political nature. The interpretation content should be strictly faithful to the original text. Interpreters need to consider carefully the selection of words and sentences and accurately convey the stance and attitude of original text. In other words, the political interpretation should be unified by words and ideas. To achieve this, interpreters must be familiar with the current policy integrated with the foreign affairs business. As for the important expressions, particularly related to territorial sovereignty and other vital national interests, interpreters must remain sober-minded and keep a sense of political sensibility. Not only should the literal meaning of the words be interpreted, but the profound connotation of the original words should be expressed. This requires interpretation with explanations. As an interpreter in international communication of China's universities, he should undoubtedly encounter the interpretation cases of a political nature. Under such circumstances, he must be sensitive to the politics of the situation and interpret to foreigners accurately.

C. Politeness

Interpreters working in the field of international communications in China's universities actually bear the responsibility of the universities' "diplomatic" task. Because of this, interpreters need to master the knowledge and

skills of diplomacy.

Diplomatic language is a polite and tactful language. In terms of language, there are two factors which affect the degree of Politeness: One is the degree of intimacy between the addresser and the addressee. The more intimate, the less polite. The less intimate, the more polite. Second, the degree of social status and distance separates the addresser from the addressee. Politeness tends to increase when the addressed is senior in status, and the exchange is less intimate. This is true in diplomacy language. When diplomats meet, they are representing their respective countries, and the relations between one another make them polite and less intimate. This feature is shown in many documents(except for memoranda, legal documents, statements and communiqués) and presentations with prevailingly complimentary phrases.

President Nixon gave his toasts at the banquet given by Premier Zhou Enlai, on February 21, 1972, in which he did not fail to use many complementary phrases:

Mr. Prime Minister and all of your distinguished guests this evening:

“On behalf of all of your American guests, *I wish to thank you for the incomparable hospitality for which the Chinese people are justly famous throughout the world.* I particularly want to pay tribute, not only to those who prepared the magnificent dinner, but also to those who have provided those splendid music. Never have I hear American music played better in a foreign land...”

In the international communication of China’s universities, for example, when welcoming foreigners at the airport, the interpreter usually presents a bouquet of flowers as a warm gesture of welcome and courtesy. But he should know well about the various taboos in different countries prior to the presentation. According to the traditional customs and etiquette of China, interpreters usually prepare carnations and add some brief explanations to foreign guests at the appropriate time that carnations represent the warm welcome to visitors in China. This kind of explanation is very helpful under such situations.

International communication interpreters in China’s universities should strictly abide by the policy and discipline in the manner of courtesy since the higher education of a country is to some extent a representative of the state’s dignity and image. The interpreters must preserve the national interests and abide by national policies and must not express personal views arbitrarily trying to achieve a relaxed, polite and unrestrained atmosphere for international communication.

III. THE TECHNIQUES OF INTERPRETATION WITH EXPLANATIONS IN INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION OF CHINA’S UNIVERSITIES

A. *The Explanation of Proper Names*

In international communications of China’s universities, there are many peculiar Chinese expressions and designations such as historical or geographical terms, people’s names, peculiar Chinese things, traditional customs etc. Chinese receptors can easily understand those expressions. However, it is clear that foreign receptors who have grown up in a different culture and society, will often be quite unable to recognize these names or phrases and to make the necessary connections in order to make sense of the interpretation. If the interpreter takes it for granted that the foreign readers can understand those peculiar terms and interpret them word-by-word without any explanation, the interpreted text might be unintelligible for the foreign receptors. Because rather than be experts who understand China very well, most of the foreign receptors are just common receptors who don’t know much about China, not to mention those peculiar Chinese expressions. For example:

(1) 秦始皇: Speaking of Qin Shihuang, the Chinese people will spontaneously think of him as the first emperor. We know that he was a great person who united China. However, the western people don’t know about much of Chinese history. So in their understanding, Qin Shihuang is just the name of a historical person and they do not understand his significance. Under such circumstances, an interpretation with explanations is very helpful to understand the important position of him in Chinese history. Interpreters may add some words like “Qin Shihuang, the first emperor of China who united the country in the second century B.C.”

(2) 广州: Guangzhou which is the south gate of our country is also called “Yang Cheng(羊城)” and “Hui Cheng(穗城)”. In the early period of Qin Han, Guang Zhou refers to the prosperous metropolitan city. Under such a historical background, we may translate as “Guangzhou, also known as Canton, lies in the southern-most part of China, adjacent to Hong Kong and Macao. The city’s long history dates back to more than two thousand years ago when it became a prosperous trading Port.” This paragraph of introduction to Guang Zhou is not interpreted strictly by the style and content of original text. The interpreter augmented the translation with cultural details and supplied background knowledge to guarantee the conveying of original text information. For example, we use the “canton” which is familiar to western people to substitute the word “Yang Cheng” and “Hui Cheng”; use the expression of “Hong Kong and Macao” to show the geographical position of Guang Zhou; and “the period of Qin Han” is implied by the meaning of “two thousand years ago” (Wang, Xu, 2007).

Interpreters in international communication of China’s universities should not only work as “work converters”, but interpret the ideas in an effective interpreting method to make the international communication interpretation accurate and meaningful.

B. *The Explanation of Acronyms*

Each language continuously creates acronyms and short names as a part of the process of language development. Owing to the generalization and summary of Chinese people, there appear many acronyms and short names with rich connotations and a wide range of meanings in the Chinese language. When interpreting these kinds of words, all the omitted contents should be interpreted or the necessary explanatory statements should be added. Otherwise, the target receptors will not understand the connotation of the meaning. For example: When the interpreter in international communication of China's university introduces Zhengzhou University to foreigners, "211project" is a typical acronym with strong Chinese characteristics which reflects the current educational policy being carried out in China. To reach the goal of mutual understanding between target language receptors and source text speakers, interpreters should apply the method of interpretation with explanations to specifically explain the policy background contained in these phrases. With regard to educational policy in China, Zhengzhou University is a national "211 project" key university inaugurated by the Henan Provincial Government and the State Ministry of Education on July 10th, 2000. This interpretation is very clear to foreigners as it states not only the national educational policy and measurements but also the national position of Zhengzhou University in China.

C. *The Explanation of Proverbs and Allusion*

In the international communication of China's universities, it is inevitable that Chinese speakers use some proverbs, idioms and allusion with Chinese characteristics to express the original vividly and humorously. But the characteristic proverbs, idioms and allusions of one language are totally strange to the receptors against the background of another language cultures. Widely well-known legends, historical allusions and proverbs can not be understood by western listeners, because they don't know about the structure of Chinese proverbs and idioms and have little knowledge of the source of historical allusions even the great significance of the proverbs in the culture essence of China. In this case, the interpreters should supply the necessary interpretation with explanations to briefly add the knowledge of the cultural background or use equivalent common expressions to substitute the fixed expressions (Wang, Xu, 2007).

Chinese proverbs

三个臭皮匠，顶个诸葛亮。"Three cobblers with their wits combined equal Zhuge Liang the master mind." This proverb will certainly arouse questions from target receptors if it is interpreted literally. Who is Zhuge Liang? Why is he compared to the three cobblers? With the method of interpretation with explanations, it is obvious necessary to explain the identity of Zhuge Liang and the relationship between Zhuge and the cobblers. This kind of interpretation not only maintains the Chinese characteristic of original text, but also helps the target language receptors imagine the proverb in their culture of "Two heads are better than one."

Again, during the reception by Foreign Affairs Departments of China's universities, after accommodating the foreigners, there will be a formal welcome meeting with the same status leaders from the host universities. During the meeting, in accordance with the Chinese cultural norms and the international customs of courtesy for the conduct of foreign affairs interpretation, the host parties will deliver a warm speech of welcome. Some leaders like to use some Chinese saying such as "有朋自远方来，不亦乐乎！". The interpreters need to interpret these Chinese proverbs from classical Chinese into a sentence that is easy to understand but not to interpret word by word. So we have to make the general receptor understand and translate this Chinese proverb into "Is it not a pleasure to have friends visit from afar?" Some explanatory interpretations are also needed before or after this interpretation. "There is a very popular Chinese saying to express the host hospitality in classical Chinese. That is..." Then, the foreign guests may better understand the hospitality being offered by the host and feel more comfortable.

Chinese allusions

Allusions are usually composed of vivid stories, legends or historical anecdotes, which are of a few words but have deep connotations and wide relevance, such as "夸父追日", "愚公移山", "拔苗助长", "三顾茅庐", "完璧归赵" etc. From different cultural backgrounds, the receptors can hardly understand the deep connotation between the lines or the relevant stories. For example, if we literally interpret "愚公移山" into "The foolish old man who moved the mountains.", it is too cryptic for foreign receptors. Moreover, interpreters should add some brief explanations about unique Chinese customs, catchphrases and allusions. Although the legends and literary allusions from history are known to Chinese people, most foreigners do not understand them. For example: when we say that Chinese people are building their own country like "愚公移山", if we don't add the explanations with a few words, "Yu Gong" will be understood literally as the "silly old man." In order to help the receptors understand the further cultural connotation, it should be interpreted as "This Chinese fable praises the old man's firm and unswerving spirit."

D. *The Explanation of Background Meaning*

Duan Liancheng (1988) pointed out in the book "How to Help Foreigners Know China," that we should neither underestimate the intelligence of foreign receptors nor overestimate the foreigners' general level of understanding about China. The actual meaning refers to the necessity of explanation of background meaning in the international communication interpretation.

In May 1986, Beijing International Broadcast Station conducted a survey and reported on the issues that arose from more than a dozen countries in the audience. The survey results revealed the widespread interest of the audience in both

China and the Chinese people and how little they know about China. Among those more than 200 issues, some included: What is the China's national flag like? What is the China's national anthem? Who is the President of China? How big is China? What is the population of China? Etc. We should not blame the ignorance of foreigners. But let's try to ask how many Chinese people, including the high educated Chinese, can immediately answer the same questions about our neighborhood Japan? Obviously, we need to introduce necessary additional background knowledge of the country's current situation to foreigners for deeper understanding.

As I have mentioned in chapter three of the addition method in interpretation. We usually need to make additional explanations under the following situations. For example: "before liberation (解放前)" and "after liberation (解放后)". Any Chinese person knows that this refers to before or after the founding of the PRC in 1949. So if we add the specific year 1949, foreigners will easily understand the exact meaning. When we introduce the foundation history of universities during the international communication, we are better to use the specific year and explain the background specifically. For example, when we make a brief introduction to a university in the welcome meeting, we may introduce with the exact year like this: *Henan University of Technology was founded in 1956. Approved by the State Ministry of Education and Henan Provincial Government in May 2004, it was established by the amalgamation of Zhengzhou Institute of Technology and Zhengzhou Polytechnic Institute.*

Similarly, even the Chinese primary school students know about the "May 4 Movement (五四运动)" and the "Revolution of 1911 (辛亥革命)", but the foreigners generally do not know. Therefore, we need to make a further explanatory explanation to those foreigners. Often we need to add some more explanation for example "The May 4 Movement in 1919 against foreign imperialism and domestic feudalism" and "The Revolution of 1911 that overthrew the last dynasty and established the country as a Republic". When speaking of the Great Wall and the terracotta warriors, we will naturally mention the Qin Dynasty. But the foreigners cannot recall that "Qin" is the first feudal dynasty in China that arose more than 2,200 years ago. When talking about the Summer Palace and the Palace Museum in Beijing, we will naturally mention the Qing Dynasty. According to the Chinese Phonetic Alphabet, there is only one slight difference of a letter between "Qin" and "Qing". It is very difficult for foreigners to identify these two words. Therefore, if we add the explanation of the years after "Qin" and "Qing" it will be much clearer (Duan,1988).

E. The Explanation of Rhetoric Meaning

If we sing high praises of a foreign colleague and say that he has a kind of Bethune spirit, we should also have to add a brief note of the moving story of Bethune when he was in China, because very few foreigners have read the book "*Selected Works of Mao Zedong*" as most Chinese people have. The saying "不到长城非好汉 (Not stop until one reaches the Great Wall.)" has become a most popular mantra among foreign tourists in Beijing, but few people know that this sentence comes from Mao Zedong's poem "*Liupanshan*(六盘山)". If the interpreters may give the foreign guests a brief introduction about the poem, it is even more meaningful (Duan,1988). It is the same case with foreign tourist reception. For example, when we visit Sichuan Leshan Giant Buddha, "大肚能容容天下难容之事, 慈言常笑笑世上可笑之人" is the well-known couplet. When the interpreters introduce the Giant Buddha to foreign guests, some explanatory interpretation need to be added about some of the content of the couplet and knowledge of its history, as well as the Buddhist attitude: Then we interpret it as: "A large heart is tolerant, it tolerates what usually can not be tolerated. A kindly face lights up with smiles, it smiles at those who are smiled." This will give the listeners a profound understanding of the sentence, but also the understanding of the Chinese traditional culture of the couplet.

In most cases, interpreters with a strong sense of responsibility and rich experience can add some necessary explanations into the interpretation to help foreigners understand. But fundamentally speaking, the explanation work is at first the speaker's responsibility; the translation can only do some technical supplementary explanation. What needs explaining will vary from situation to situation depending on the subject, and there is not a definite rule.

F. The Explanation of Figures

It is very common that large numbers are cited in statistics that are used in Chinese international communication. When we introduce some specific situations to foreigners, we generally present lots of cited statistics, such as the number of billion Jin of food production increase, or the number of hectares of school area. In this kind of introductory meetings, we often see the visitors' facial expressions show that they are at a loss, even if they are interested in the figures. Jin, mu, the Chinese Yuan and other units of measurement are strange to foreigners and have little significance to them. It is easy to make mistakes in interpretation of those numbers, so if some of the major figures can be issued in written materials and distributed to the units of measurement of the metric system and the imperial system, it would be much more effective and more accurate.

Another noteworthy aspect in the phenomenon of the chaos that the use of numbers can engender is that Chinese figures are commonly used in rhetoric rather than a strictly accurate manner. For example, *Gezhouba* is considered "The first dam of the Yangtze River" (万里长江第一坝) in China with rhetorical numbers. But it could be interpreted into the "The 5,000 kilometers Yangtze River is the first dam" by the interpreter's lack of experience. As we all know, the Yangtze is actually 6,300 kilometers long. The actual length of Great Wall is 13,400 li (6,700 km). Another cause of "numbers confusion" is to excessively use approximate figures, such as "dozen", "nearly 20", "over 30", "about 40"

"The school has dozens of teachers, hundreds of students," and so on, which gives a blurred view, or may even give the foreigners an erroneous impression.

G. The Explanation of Culture

Language is the carrier of culture. The cultural customs also need to be transferred to foreigners through language. For example, in the interpretation of traditional culture holidays, the greatest traditional holiday in China is "Spring Festival". It can be interpreted with explanations as: *Spring festival is a three-day celebration of the traditional Chinese New Year which falls in January or February according to cycles in the Chinese lunar calendar.* 炎黄子孙 is interpreted as: *The descent of Yan Di and Huang Di means that all the Chinese people are supposed to be descents of Huang Di and Yan Di, two chiefs of famous ancient tribes in the Huanghe River Valley.*

China is a country with a long and rich culture of food. In international communication work, it is inevitable that interpretation of the food culture will arise. As a foreign affairs interpreter, it is necessary to master knowledge of the food culture. For instance, there are great differences between Chinese food and Western food in order of the menu and the way food is served. To create a comfortable and courteous atmosphere for both sides, the foreign affairs interpreters need to briefly introduce the traditional Chinese food culture to foreigners.

Many other traditional culture interpretations such as "dog", "dragon" etc. needs to be interpreted with a supplementary explanation of Chinese traditional culture. Language has different modes of expression in different countries and regions. Interpreters need to know more about history, and society background so as to understand the language essence.

H. The Explanation of Special Meaning

Under some special circumstances, interpreters need to have the ability to respond promptly and to draw on a rich background of knowledge. We need to add supplementary explanation to some things or phenomena of special meanings to help foreigners further know about the current situation of policy, society and culture.

For example, on November 11, 2005, 1000 days before the opening of the Beijing Olympic Games, the mascot of the Beijing Olympic Games "Fuwa" was unveiled to the public. Fuwa is a set of five dolls, namely, Beibei, Jingjing, Huanhuan, Yingying and Nini. The partial tone of the five characters is "Bei Jing Huan Ying Ni." Beibei conveys a blessing, while Jingjing is a lovely panda. As the national treasure of China, the panda is deeply loved by people of all over the world. Huanhuan symbolizes the Olympic flame and is the embodiment of enthusiasm for sport. It spreads the "Faster, Higher, Stronger" Olympic spirit. Yingying is an agile pantholops hodgsoni (藏羚羊). It comes from west China and spreads health and good blessings to the world. Nini is a swallow from the sky. Nini brings spring and happiness to people and sows the blessing of "Good luck to you." The design of the Olympic mascot stresses putting people first and emphasizes the harmonious co-existence between people and nature (天地合一).

IV. CONCLUSION

At present, China's international communication interpreters have realized the importance of the interpreting method and have done research on this topic, but most of them contribute papers on how to qualitatively improve the interpretation of China's IC from their own experience, instead of from the perspective of translation theories. This thesis makes a tentative study on how to improve the translation of China's IC in China's universities international affairs work by using as guidelines the principles of Newmark's translation theory of communicative translation and some of Nida's translation theory.

As far as the current China's international cooperation and exchanges situation is concerned, competent interpreters are sure to play important roles in the development of China's international affairs. The level of higher education in a country is an important representative of its comprehensive national strength. Accordingly, the urgent need for professional and efficient interpreters with high qualities in universities is being felt in China's international communication, but how to convey the truth of the development and conduct of the country to the world, with which translating method and how to apply it most effectively is a topic worthy of study.

Chinese interpreters should never stop making efforts to improve their skills in translating in China's IC, since they shoulder the important duty to publicize China, to make an objective and comprehensive international image of China, and then to create a good international environment for China's development. Interpretation plays an important and paramount role in foreign affairs. Different languages predispose their speakers to think differently, so different languages reflect different cultures. Accordingly, among the various translating methods, explanatory translation is a required and practical method of transplanting cultures for China's international communication in universities.

In short, the successful interpretation in the foreign affairs of universities is related to the development of universities and even the higher education of China in the world competition. Therefore, through the hard work of the language researchers and the practical interpreters in foreign affairs, they have reached a final agreed conclusion that the applications of explanatory interpretation will definitely promote the quality of foreign affairs in China's universities and the interpreters should apply this theory to the foreign affairs job.

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The Impact of Teachers' Belief on EFL Writing Instruction

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Abstract—This study examines Iranian EFL teachers' beliefs about writing instruction. A sample of 122 EFL teachers teaching at private language institutes were randomly selected, consisting of EFL teachers with different degrees of educational qualification, years of experience, and genders. Questionnaires were submitted to the participants and then analyzed to determine whether the participants hold a form-based, a process-based, or a social-based view of writing. The responses were then compared in terms of their level of education, experience, and gender. Results suggest that most of the teachers were eclectic in their orientations, but the form-based view was the dominant one. Also Chi-square analyses indicate that teachers' orientations to teaching writing were not affected by the level of education or year of experience or gender.

Index Terms—cognition, belief, EFL, writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Researchers in the past 40 years have studied teachers' cognition and have considered the study of teachers' belief about teaching, learning, learners, and the influence it may have on teaching practices, activities, and learning outcomes (Burns, 1992; Shavelson, & Stern, 1981) to find effective teaching behaviors.

In the 1980s the study of different aspects of teachers' cognition became an important area of research. Educational researchers thus became more aware of the fact that teachers' mental lives played a role in their instructional choices (Elbaz, 1981; Shulman, 1987) so the main focus was on studying the way teachers think about their work, their mental processes in planning their teaching, their decisions, and their beliefs. How teachers construct their conceptions and theories about teaching (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Leinhardt, 1990), teachers' understanding of the teaching processes (Peterson & Comeaux, 1987), teachers' belief about teaching, students, teachers, and the learning processes (Hollingsworth, 1989; Kagan & Tippins, 1991), and the instructional thoughts, actions, and decision making in the classroom (Fogarty, Wang & Creek, 1983; Magliaro & Borko, 1986) are amongst the subject matters that have been examined in this respect.

Teacher's belief is a complicated phenomenon that involves various aspects. Beliefs might be defined as one's personal views, conceptions, and/or theories (Thompson, 1992). According to Pajares (1992), belief systems represent a personal guide by helping individuals define and understand the world and themselves. Teachers' beliefs play a central role in the process of teacher development because teachers are highly influenced by their beliefs, which in turn are closely linked to their values, to their views of the world and to their conceptions of their place within it (Williams & Burdun, 1997).

One of the aspects of teachers' cognition in language teaching is teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and thinking about writing skills and its teaching. Teaching writing skills is one of the most difficult aspects of teaching English, because it remains unclear how students acquire the skills needed to produce an effective piece of writing in another language. Compared to other language skills it seems that less priority is given to writing skill. There has been a lot of debate about how to teach writing skill and what activities should be practiced in the classrooms. No studies have focused exclusively on foreign English language teachers' beliefs about teaching writing. Specifically, this study focuses on the theoretical orientations of writing instruction held by teachers. Teachers' beliefs are analyzed according to three major theoretical orientations to writing: writing as a formal system, writing as a cognitive process, and writing as a social activity. These theoretical orientations are described below.

Writing can be seen as a formal system. Theories of writing under this orientation emphasize the linguistic and rhetorical characteristics of a text. Writing, according to this viewpoint, is seen as production of a text which follows the conventions of English rhetoric and proper usage. Teaching writing is typically product-oriented with a focus on correct language and sentence. Two main approaches to teaching writing from this perspective are controlled composition and current traditional rhetoric (Silva, 1990).

Writing can also be seen as a cognitive process which emphasizes the mental operations that a writer goes through when composing. According to Tribble (1996), process approaches stress “writing activities which move learners from the generation of ideas and the collection of data through to the ‘publication’ of a finished text” (p.37). Learning to write through the process approach means dealing predominantly with linguistic skills such as planning and drafting and there is much less emphasis on linguistic knowledge, such as knowledge about grammar and text structure.

Writing may also be viewed as a social activity, focusing on the interaction among discourse community members in creating meanings. This approach is based on the assumption that “language is socially constituted” (Gere, 1987, p.87). In this approach, language is seen as embedded in (and constitutive of) social realities since it is through recurrent use of conventionalized forms that individuals develop relationships, establish communities, and get things done. They assume that every successful text will display the writer’s awareness of its context.

Learning writing is more difficult than other skills in Iran. It is the least developed language skill and teachers put less time on it as compared to other language skills. Writing skill is often limited to making sentences, and the grammatical points of those sentences are the most important parts of learning how to write well. This could be partly due to the effect of the teachers’ beliefs about writing and its teaching. The present study more specifically seeks to answer the following questions:

- 1- Is there any difference between more experienced and less experienced teachers' beliefs about writing and its teaching?
- 2- Is there any difference between beliefs of teachers with bachelor degree (BA) and master degree (MA) about writing and its teaching?
- 3- Is there any difference between beliefs of male and female teachers about writing and its teaching?
- 4- What are Iranian English language teachers’ beliefs about writing and its teaching?

II. PARTICIPANTS

This study was conducted with the participation of 122 Iranian EFL teachers teaching at private language institutes in Iran. To be more precise, out of 200 individuals who received the questionnaire sent to four language institutes in Isfahan and an online inquiry through TELL SI (Teaching English Language and Literature Society of Iran) only 122 responded positively. The participants were both female and male (79 female, 43 male) teachers with an age range from 22 to 50. They were all Persian native speakers and their teaching experience varied substantially (from less than a year to 17 years). Based on the years of experience, teachers were divided into three groups. The first group included teachers with less than 2 years of experience. The second included teachers with 2 to 8 years of experience, and the last one included teachers with more than 8 years of experience. In addition, their levels of qualification were different; 48 teachers held BA, 74 teachers held MA, and 4 of them were PhD students.

III. INSTRUMENT

Following Johnson (1992), a questionnaire was designed consisting of 15 statements about the nature of writing, five related to each of the three orientations described earlier (form-oriented, process-oriented, and social-oriented views). In addition an open-ended question about teachers’ overall view of teaching writing skill and its importance was added. The questionnaire was validated by two university lecturers who had been teaching writing for over 16 years. They were asked to group the statements according to the three basic orientations of writing. The reliability of the questionnaire was measured through KR-21 and the correlation coefficient was 0.83. It was concluded that the newly developed questionnaire was a reliable and valid instrument and could provide us with interpretable data to probe the questions set forth in the study.

IV. PROCEDURE

Copies of the questionnaire were distributed among teachers in different institutes in Isfahan and to TELL SI members via email. A few teachers answered the items in the questionnaire in their recess times, but most teachers assigned a time for returning the questionnaire, between 3 to 5 days. So the responses were collected during 2 months. Participants were asked to mark 5 statements from the 15 items that most closely reflected their beliefs about how writing in English as a foreign language is learned and how writing in English as a foreign language should be taught, and answer an open-ended question which asked about their beliefs about writing and its importance. In addition the participants were asked to complete 5 demographic questions about their teaching background, experience, and qualifications. Then the collected data was tabulated to be analyzed.

V. RESULTS

The participants were classified into three groups based on their teaching experience: 2 years and less (less than one SD below the mean), 2 to 8 years between (within one SD above and above the mean), and 8 years and over (more than one SD above the mean). Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics.

TABLE 1.
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS AND THEIR TEACHING EXPERIENCE

	Experience	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
form	2 and less	2.1667	.64772	30
	2-8	2.1447	.94804	76
	8 and over	2.5000	1.41421	16
	Total	2.1967	.95899	122
process	2 and less	1.6000	.89443	30
	2-8	1.6184	.81596	76
	8 and over	1.3125	.79320	16
	Total	1.5738	.83238	122
social	2 and less	1.2333	.85836	30
	2-8	1.2500	.91104	76
	8 and over	1.1875	.98107	16
	Total	1.2377	.90044	122

As the table shows, 30 teachers had less than 2 years of teaching experience, 76 had between 2 to 8 years of teaching experience, and only 16 were involved in teaching activities for 8 years and over.

Then a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of teaching experience on the participants' responses to the questions of the questionnaire and consequently their approach to teaching writing. Table 2 shows the results.

TABLE 2.
THE RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE RESPONSES OF THREE GROUPS BASED ON TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	1.000	8.259E4	3.000	117.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.000	8.259E4	3.000	117.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	2117.610	8.259E4	3.000	117.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	2117.610	8.259E4	3.000	117.000	.000
Experience	Pillai's Trace	.026	.524	6.000	236.000	.790
	Wilks' Lambda	.974	.521 ^a	6.000	234.000	.792
	Hotelling's Trace	.027	.519	6.000	232.000	.794
	Roy's Largest Root	.024	.939 ^b	3.000	118.000	.424

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept + Experience

Table 2 reveals that according to all four test statistics of Pillai's Trace, Wilks' Lambda, Hotelling's Trace, and Roy's Largest Root there was not a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the responses of the three groups, $F(6,236) = .524$, $p = .790$; $F(6,234) = .521$, $p = .792$; $F(6,232) = .519$, $p = .794$; $F(3, 118) = .939$, $p = .424$.

The effect of academic qualification on the approach adopted to teach writing was investigated to find answers to the second research question. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics.

TABLE 3.
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS AND THEIR ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION

	education	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Form	MA	2.0946	.90915	74
	BA	2.3542	1.02084	48
	Total	2.1967	.95899	122
process	MA	1.5946	.85878	74
	BA	1.5417	.79783	48
	Total	1.5738	.83238	122
social	MA	1.3243	.90823	74
	BA	1.1042	.88100	48
	Total	1.2377	.90044	122

As Table 3 illustrates, 74 teachers held a master's degree and 48 a bachelor's degree.

Similar to the previous section, a MANOVA was run to explore the effect of academic qualification. Table 4 shows the results.

TABLE 4.
THE RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE RESPONSES OF MA AND BA PARTICIPANTS

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	1.000	1.176E5	3.000	118.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.000	1.176E5	3.000	118.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	2988.805	1.176E5	3.000	118.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	2988.805	1.176E5	3.000	118.000	.000
education	Pillai's Trace	.026	1.056 ^a	3.000	118.000	.370
	Wilks' Lambda	.974	1.056 ^a	3.000	118.000	.370
	Hotelling's Trace	.027	1.056 ^a	3.000	118.000	.370
	Roy's Largest Root	.027	1.056 ^a	3.000	118.000	.370

a. Exact statistic

b. Design: Intercept + education

The results of the analysis of variance show no significant difference between the responses of MA and BA participants to the questions of the questionnaire, $F(3, 118) = 1.056$, $p = .370$.

The teaching approaches adopted by female and male participants were compared and the answer to the third research question was sought. Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics. Out of 122 participating teachers, 79 were female and the rest were male.

TABLE 5.
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE FEMALE AND PARTICIPANTS

	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Form	MALE	2.1395	.80420	43
	FEMALE	2.2278	1.03712	79
	Total	2.1967	.95899	122
process	MALE	1.7674	.71837	43
	FEMALE	1.4684	.87465	79
	Total	1.5738	.83238	122
social	MALE	1.0930	.78115	43
	FEMALE	1.3165	.95467	79
	Total	1.2377	.90044	122

Another test of between-subjects effects MANOVA was conducted this time to compare the responses of female and male participants. Table 6 shows the results.

TABLE 6.
THE RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE FEMALE AND MALE RESPONSES

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	1.000	1.121E5	3.000	118.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.000	1.121E5	3.000	118.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	2849.665	1.121E5	3.000	118.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	2849.665	1.121E5	3.000	118.000	.000
gender	Pillai's Trace	.036	1.454 ^a	3.000	118.000	.231
	Wilks' Lambda	.964	1.454 ^a	3.000	118.000	.231
	Hotelling's Trace	.037	1.454 ^a	3.000	118.000	.231
	Roy's Largest Root	.037	1.454 ^a	3.000	118.000	.231

a. Exact statistic

b. Design: Intercept + gender

The results of the analysis of variance show no significant difference between female and male responses to the questions addressing their view about writing, $F(3, 118) = 1.454$, $p = .231$.

The next step was to address teachers' belief based on a classification that assigns teachers to three classes (dominant-oriented, dual-oriented, and multiple-oriented). To do this, the responses of the participants were analyzed by grouping the statements chosen by individual teachers according to the theoretical orientation the statements represent (form-based, process-based, and social-based). Teachers were considered to have a dominant orientation if they chose 4 or 5 statements related to one theoretical orientation. Teachers were considered to have a dual orientation if they chose 3 statements reflecting one orientation and 2 statements reflecting another orientation. Teachers who chose statements from all three orientations were considered to have a multiple orientation.

Table 7 demonstrates the results of the descriptive analysis of the participants' frequency for these three main effect groups.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' FREQUENCY BASED ON THEIR ORIENTATION

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
dominant orientation	11	9.0	9.0	9.0
dual orientation	38	31.1	31.1	40.2
multiple orientation	73	59.8	59.8	100.0
Total	122	100.0	100.0	

According to this Table 11 participants were dominant-oriented, 38 were dual-oriented, and 73 participants were multiple-oriented.

The information about teachers' orientations was then compared with the teachers' sex, academic qualification, and experience and Chi-square was used to determine if there were any significant relationships between these background variables and teachers' beliefs.

We then examined if the number of years a teacher had been involved in teaching activities had a significant influence on her/his orientation class. Similar to the first section, we grouped the participating teachers into three: 1) those who had 2 years of teaching experience and less, 2) those who had between 2 to 8 years of teaching experience, and 3) those whose experience was 8 years and over. Table 8 shows the frequency and percentage of these groups.

TABLE 8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' FREQUENCY BASED ON THEIR EXPERIENCE

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
2 and less	30	24.6	24.6	24.6
2-8	76	62.3	62.3	86.9
9 and over	16	13.1	13.1	100.0
Total	122	100.0	100.0	

As can be seen from the above table, most of the participating teachers were involved in English teaching activities for 2 to 8 years (%62.3), %24.6 had been teaching English as a foreign language for less than 2 years, and only %13.1 of them had had 8 years and over of experience.

In addition, Table 9 shows the percentages of teachers for each orientation who had different numbers of years of teaching experience.

TABLE 9.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TEACHERS' TEACHING EXPERIENCES AND ORIENTATIONS

		experience groups			Total
		2 and less	2-8	8 and over	
dominant orientation	Count	2	7	2	11
	% within orientation	18.2%	63.6%	18.2%	100.0%
	% within experience groups	6.7%	9.2%	12.5%	9.0%
	% of Total	1.6%	5.7%	1.6%	9.0%
dual orientation	Count	7	24	7	38
	% within orientation	18.4%	63.2%	18.4%	100.0%
	% within experience groups	23.3%	31.6%	43.8%	31.1%
	% of Total	5.7%	19.7%	5.7%	31.1%
multiple orientation	Count	21	45	7	73
	% within orientation	28.8%	61.6%	9.6%	100.0%
	% within experience groups	70.0%	59.2%	43.8%	59.8%
	% of Total	17.2%	36.9%	5.7%	59.8%
Total	Count	30	76	16	122
	% within orientation	24.6%	62.3%	13.1%	100.0%
	% within experience groups	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	24.6%	62.3%	13.1%	100.0%

Interestingly, these data reveal a similar trend across teachers who had teaching experiences of 2 years and less, 2-8 years, and 8 years and over. In fact, the majority of these teachers tended to be more dual or multiple oriented and only %6.7 of the first group, %9.2 of the second group, and %12.5 of the third group were dominant oriented.

Now to examine the relationship between teaching experience of the participants and their orientation class, a Chi-Square test was conducted. Table 10 shows the results of the Chi-Square test.

TABLE 10.
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR TEACHERS' TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND ORIENTATION

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.026(a)	4	.554
Likelihood Ratio	3.030	4	.553
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.462	1	.117
N of Valid Cases	122		

Based on the results demonstrated in Table 10 in analyzing the distribution according to the years of teaching experience, no significant difference was found, $X^2(4, N = 122) = 3.026, p > .05$. Teaching experience seems to have no statistically significant influence on the orientation class of teachers.

Examining the relation between teachers' academic qualification and their orientation class comes next as shown in Table 11 and 12. Table 11 shows the frequency and percentage of the teacher who held an MA or BA and Table 12 shows these statistical descriptions within different orientations.

TABLE 11.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' FREQUENCY BASED ON THEIR QUALIFICATION.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
MA	74	60.7	60.7	60.7
BA	48	39.3	39.3	100.0
Total	122	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 12.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TEACHERS' TEACHING EXPERIENCES AND THEORETICAL ORIENTATIONS

		education		Total
		MA	BA	
dominant orientation	Count	5	6	11
	% within orientation	45.5%	54.5%	100.0%
	% within education	6.8%	12.5%	9.0%
	% of Total	4.1%	4.9%	9.0%
dual orientation	Count	21	17	38
	% within orientation	55.3%	44.7%	100.0%
	% within education	28.4%	35.4%	31.1%
	% of Total	17.2%	13.9%	31.1%
multiple orientation	Count	48	25	73
	% within orientation	65.8%	34.2%	100.0%
	% within education	64.9%	52.1%	59.8%
	% of Total	39.3%	20.5%	59.8%
Total	Count	74	48	122
	% within orientation	60.7%	39.3%	100.0%
	% within education	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	60.7%	39.3%	100.0%

Table 11 shows that 60.7 percentage of the participants held a master's degree and the rest had a bachelor's degree. As we look at Table 12, we see that here again a trend similar to what we saw in the previous section is leading. Both groups of teachers tend to be more dual or multiple oriented and only 6.8 percent of the master's degree holders and 12.5 percent of bachelor's degree holders seemed to follow one dominant theoretical orientation.

Now to examine the relation between academic qualification and orientation class a Chi-Square test of independence was performed. Table 13 reveals the results of this analysis.

TABLE 13.
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR TEACHERS TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.323(a)	2	.313
Likelihood Ratio	2.301	2	.317
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.303	1	.129
N of Valid Cases	122		

The results of the Chi-Square test show that the relation between these variables was not significant, $X^2(2, N = 122) = 2.323, p > .05$. Therefore, similar to teaching experience, academic qualification seems to have no statistically significant influence on the teachers' orientation class.

The relation between the variable of sex and teachers' orientation class was also investigated. Similar to the previous sections first the descriptive statistics of the participants is presented in Tables 14 and 15.

TABLE 14.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' FREQUENCY BASED ON THEIR SEX

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	43	35.2	35.2	35.2
	female	79	64.8	64.8	100.0
	Total	122	100.0	100.0	

TABLE 15.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TEACHERS' SEX AND THEORETICAL ORIENTATIONS

		sex		Total
		male	female	
dominant orientation	Count	3	8	11
	% within orientation	27.3%	72.7%	100.0%
	% within sex	7.0%	10.1%	9.0%
	% of Total	2.5%	6.6%	9.0%
dual orientation	Count	11	27	38
	% within orientation	28.9%	71.1%	100.0%
	% within sex	25.6%	34.2%	31.1%
	% of Total	9.0%	22.1%	31.1%
multiple orientation	Count	29	44	73
	% within orientation	39.7%	60.3%	100.0%
	% within sex	67.4%	55.7%	59.8%
	% of Total	23.8%	36.1%	59.8%
Total	Count	43	79	122
	% within orientation	35.2%	64.8%	100.0%
	% within sex	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	35.2%	64.8%	100.0%

A chi-square test of independence was run to examine the orientation classes of the participants according to their sex. Table 16 reveals the results.

TABLE 16.
CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR TEACHERS' SEX AND THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.609(a)	2	.447
Likelihood Ratio	1.631	2	.442
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.424	1	.233
N of Valid Cases	122		

Table 16 shows that the relation between these teachers' sex and their orientation class was statistically insignificant, $X^2(2, N = 122) = 1.609, p > .05$. Both female and male teachers were likely to belong to similar orientations classes in teaching writing in an EFL class. These results are no different than the results of the analysis of the variables teaching experience and academic qualification.

The open-ended question collected in the final part of the survey included some impressions and suggestions made by the participating teachers. This part reflects the beliefs of the participants about the skill of writing and its teaching which is based on a qualitative approach. More precisely, the question is divided into two parts, the first part asks about the teachers' beliefs about writing skill and its importance, and the second part concerns about their beliefs about the way writing should be taught. Totally 122 teachers return the questionnaire but only 71 of them answered this question. These answers were analyzed and the most common patterns and beliefs were taken out and reported in the following sections.

In the first part, the participants were asked about their belief about writing skill and its importance. They mainly expressed similar ideas. Most teachers considered it as a productive skill the same as speaking. They believed that writing is a kind of skill whose learning and teaching provide serious problems for learners and teachers. A lot of teachers believed that writing is just as important as other language skills, but in our country, Iran, it is mostly ignored and is not practiced the as sufficiently as other language skills. Their reason for that is that writing needs a lot of time and thought and there is not enough time for teaching and practicing writing in the classes so it is considered just as a homework assignment. Majority of the participants believed that language learners are reluctant to learn writing and they find it boring and uninteresting.

The second part of the question sought answers to how participants would teach writing. Firstly, the proverb "practice makes perfect" is widely believed by the participating teachers; they said that writing is best learned by doing a lot of writing.

A few teachers believed that brainstorming before starting to write is necessary. A few of them talk about the content of text and its importance. They believed that the subjects for writing should be interesting and teachers should be careful about choosing a suitable subject.

Most teachers suggested that using different samples to work on and analyze is one of the best ways of teaching writing skills. They claimed that working on a sample, analyzing sentences such as finding the topic sentence and supporting ideas and thesis statement could be helpful.

Some teachers are concerned about the cohesion and coherence of the texts; they believed that a person who can write a text which is both coherent and cohesive knows writing skill well. This can be fitted in a wider picture which is believed by a lot of participants in this study; according to them a focus on the organization of paragraphs and ideas is an effective way of teaching and learning writing. Contrary to the majority of the participants, some teachers believed

that students should be taught to write a good sentence first, then a good paragraph, and only after that to write an essay. They believed that knowing grammatical structures and vocabulary plays an important role in learning writing skills.

VI. DISCUSSION

The results suggest that many teachers believe in a form-based patterning in writing, though insignificantly. Others of course selected a process-based view and social-based view on writing. In addition, this manner was not affected by the teachers' academic qualification, years of experience, or gender. Also based on teachers' responses, the factors of experience, academic qualification, and gender are not effective for placing teachers in different classes of theoretical orientation (dominant oriented, dual oriented and multiple oriented). These findings are not in line with Lockhart (2008), Tsui (2003), Ghodousi (2008), and Richards (1996), whose findings indicated differences in teacher's beliefs resulting from above-mentioned variables.

While the results show that there is no significant difference between the beliefs of teachers with master's degree and the beliefs of teachers with bachelor's degree, Lockhart's (2008) reports that teachers' beliefs about writing skill differed according to their academic qualification in Hong Kong; teachers with post-graduate qualification hold different beliefs toward writing from teachers with lower professional qualifications. Teachers who have undertaken post-graduate study are more likely to adopt a social or process orientation while teachers who have only completed a bachelor's degree are more likely to hold form-oriented beliefs.

The situation is partly the same for the factor of experience. While Richards (1996) states that teachers' experience of work is one of the sources of change for language teachers' belief system, this study suggests that less experienced teachers have the same beliefs as more experienced teachers toward writing skills and its teaching. It means that there is no difference between less experienced teachers' belief and more experienced teachers' beliefs. This is in line with Lockhart (2008) which shows no significant difference between teachers' beliefs according to years of teaching experience in Hong Kong. Contrary to these findings Tsui (2003) says teachers' beliefs may be changed or modified as teachers gain experience or as they encounter critical incidents that challenge them. They may also be very resistant to change.

Also, comparison of male and female teachers' beliefs about writing and its teaching shows no significant difference between them. They were considered to have the same orientations. In the study of teachers' beliefs about grammar and its teaching by Ghodousi (2008) male teachers had stronger beliefs than women toward some techniques of teaching.

Interestingly, the quantitative results matched the qualitative ones. Results of the open-ended question show that teachers mostly apply form-based views toward teaching and learning writing. The findings reported here are somewhat consistent with those of studies in Hong Kong, which indicated that Hong Kong teachers had a strong preference for focusing on grammar (e.g., Hirvela & Law, 1991; Richards, Tung, & Ng, 1991). A form-based orientation to writing leads to constraints which include specifying the number of essays students are to write during the year, requiring teachers to correct every grammatical mistake students make when writing, specifying how much class time can be allotted to writing lessons, and requiring students to practice writing under examination conditions.

VII. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, experience, academic qualification, and gender do not affect Iranian teachers' beliefs about writing and its teaching. This suggests that there seems to be other factors affecting Iranian teachers' belief about writing that were not studied in this research and, therefore, need to be considered by further research. Other factors such as student-related factors, cultural context of school, and educational curriculums may affect teachers' beliefs. Theories of teacher development propose that changes in teacher's classroom practices is a gradual process which begins with changes in attitudes and beliefs (Freeman, 1989). In the early stages of the innovation process, teachers first acknowledge new ideas and form an attitude toward them (Rogers, 1983). If a decision is made to adopt the innovation, teachers usually implemented the innovation "on a limited basis, modifying it as needed to fit the conditions of their individual situations" (Pennington, 1996, p.322). At a later stage, teachers will either confirm or reverse their earlier decision about the innovation.

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A Brief Analysis of Culture and Translation

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Abstract—Language and culture are closely related to each other. Language is part of the culture of people and the chief way by which the members of a society communicate. This paper will focus on the influence of culture on translation and provide us the semantic and pragmatic equivalence approaches in translation with large amounts of representative examples. Thus we can know the relation between culture and translation better.

Index Terms—culture, translation, semantic and pragmatic equivalence

I. INTRODUCTION

Different nations have different cultures. Then, what is culture? To put it simply, “culture refers to the entire ways of people.” This simple definition implies that culture is the patterns of customs, traditions, social habits, values beliefs and language of society. Language and culture are closely related to each other. As cultures are diverse, so language are diverse. Understanding these foreign words or expressions is not a easy task. And these words may contain some cultural connotations and obviously mirror cultural characteristics, therefore, it is very difficult to translate them correctly.

So by exploring the relation between culture and translation, we should know the translation approaches of semantic equivalence and pragmatic equivalence when translating these words. Also we know that between different languages and different cultures, there exists in translation semantic correspondence and semantic zero. So we should try to make up semantic zero caused by culture when translating.

II. RELATIONS BETWEEN CULTURE AND TRANSLATION

A. What is a Good Translation?

Translation is, in fact, a converting process. Theoretically, a good translation should give its reader the same conception as what a native reader gets from the original. Nida remarked that how to determine a good translation is the response of the receptor to the translated message, and this message must then be compared with the way in which the original receptors presumably reacted to the message when it was given in its original setting. Jakobson held the view that translation does not just mean the change of symbols into another language, but it is a process of information substitution. The task of a translator is to translate the information he receives into symbols which he will send out. Catford explained that in translation there is no meaning equivalence, but just the signifier equivalence. Because of the differences between the original language and the target language, there exists the translation equivalence limitedness. This limitedness is not only manifested in the meaning of words, grammatical features, but also manifested in cultural differences more seriously.

B. Relations between Culture and Translation

The purpose and characteristics of translation are to promote understanding among different countries and nations. Eugene Nida, a famous American translation theorist, defined translation as: translation consists in reproducing the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style. However, to reproduce “the closest natural equivalent” in the target language is more or less influenced by the cultural differences. Because of the differences in histories, geographic locations, local customs and religious beliefs, etc., there are some translation obstacles which hinder people from understanding each other properly. So, translation not only involves translator’s or interpreter’s linguistic competence, but also calls for the acquaintance with the respective cultures. In this sense, translation means more that merely translating the words, sentences or articles from the source language into the target language. It means also to transfer between cultures.

III. INFLUENCE OF CULTURE ON TRANSLATION

Actually, the aims of translation are how to achieve cultural equivalence between the source language and the target language and how to make up semantic zero caused by culture. Cultural equivalence mainly refers to semantic equivalence and pragmatic equivalence.

A. Semantic Equivalence

In translation, the meaning of a word usually can be divided into designative meaning and associative meaning. The

designative meaning of a word serves to define the range of referents which the word in question can represent, while “the associative meanings of a word are derived primarily from the context (both cultural and linguistics) in which such words habitually occur”. The associative meanings of words are often subtle and elusive because these words contain more cultural connotations.

Semantic equivalence aims to achieve both the designative and associative meanings, and this kind of examples is few. But, we still can list some equivalent words, for example:

(1) first hand information: 第一手材料---both two versions express that the information is quite reliable because we get it from our practical experience.

(2) strike the iron while hot: 趁热打铁---also, both two versions indicate that we should seize the chance and do something quickly.

(3) one stone kills two birds: 一石二鸟, 一箭双雕--- these two idioms share the same meaning that we can achieve two aims by doing one thing.

(4) constant dripping wears through the stone: 水滴石穿---both two versions vividly describe the same phenomenon, and make us believe that we can overcome any difficulty if we have a persistent heart.

(5) turn on green light: 开绿灯---both two versions mean to make somebody do something smoothly.

(6) castle in the air: 空中楼阁---both two versions refer that some body's thought or plan is actually not practical.

Idiom is considered as the special cultural image. Its translation requires not only to convey the meaning of the original as much as possible but also to keep the national features.

In English and Chinese, there are some idioms which are of the same grammatical forms and of the more or less same meaning. In this case, these idioms in the target language can be borrowed. For example:

Two heads are better than one.-----三个丑皮匠, 胜过诸葛亮。

One swallow does not make a summer.-----一花独放不是春。

Among the blind the one two eyed man is king.-----山中无老虎, 猴子成霸王。

Also, 97% Chinese idioms are in the form of 4-character phrases because of their beautifulness in sound, parallel in form, concise and comprehensive in meaning. It's tendency that more and more 4-character phrases are used in writing and translation of Chinese.

Sometimes there are set-phrases that have equivalent meaning in English. For example:

A drop in the ocean-----沧海一粟

Burn one's boats-----破釜沉舟

Smell of the baby-----乳臭未干

Not to have a bean-----囊空如洗

Sometimes there are no equivalent set-phrases in English, so a right expression should be chosen by translator. For example:

Misery loves company.-----同病相怜

The truth comes out.-----真相大白

The storm clouds gathered darkly.-----乌云密布

There are cultural differences between Chinese and English because of different beliefs, religions, custom and so on. So we should pay much attention to this factor in translating culture-loaded components into 4-character phrases.

As strong as a horse-----健壮如牛

As clear as daylight-----洞若观火

As clear as the sun at midday-----昭然若揭

Bleed like a pig-----血流如注

As dumb as an oyster-----守口如瓶

So in this case, we should understand the culture they are involved in, and reconstruct the true meanings they carry faithfully. 4-character phrases are very popular, but they can not be used too much. Otherwise it will make negative effect in translation. In short, the adequate use of 4-character phrases in translation can make the translation graceful and concise, but there are still some factors which we should pay attention to. This means that we can achieve the semantic equivalence to some extent. But we have to use pragmatic equivalence when there are no equivalents in target language.

B. Pragmatic Equivalence

Pragmatic equivalence studies meaning not in isolation but in context. Context is considered as constituted by the knowledge shared by the speaker and the hearer and consists of linguistic context, paralinguistic context, social cultural context and stylistic context. This paper focuses on the social cultural context which includes historical culture, local culture, customary culture and religions culture, etc. Actually, pragmatic equivalence doesn't pay much attention to the meaning of a word or a sentence itself, but stresses the availability of the words that the receptors can understand properly in certain context.

a. Historical cultural differences

It refers to the culture that comes into being in the process of historical developments. As specific historical developments are diverse, so cultures are diverse. It is natural then that with differences in historical cultural contexts, difficulties often arise in communication between nations or countries.

Many English allusions involve events or characters from the treasure house of English literature, especially from Shakespeare. Native speakers of English quote the allusions every day, often without realizing they are doing so. Once there was a sentence in an American magazine TIME: “many took to gambling and got in over their heads, borrowing from shylock to pay their debts.” Actually, shylock is a character of Shakespeare’s famous play *The Merchant of Venice*. Usually, it is often used to symbolize a cruel, greedy and money-grabbing person. Between different contexts, pragmatic equivalence stresses the same use value, and here we can neglect the language form as long as translated version can be properly understood by receptors. In this way, the sentence can be translated into Chinese like: 那些债台高筑的赌徒不得不借高利贷还债。If we have no idea of the allusion in specific context, we simply cannot go any further in understanding.

Also, there is another example: 凭你有李、杜文章, 颜、曾的品行, 却是也没有一个来问你。-----You might have the genius of LiBai or DuFu and the moral worth of YanHui or Zeng Shen (both of them were disciples of Confucius), no one would ask your advice.

Chinese people are very familiar with the four men- LiBai, DuFu, YanHui and Zeng Shen. In the source language only their first name are given, the source reader can understand. But it is unfamiliar for a target reader. Therefore, it should be amplified when translating, or it can’t be understood by the reader.

With the extra annotation, the source message’s semantic, the linguistic and social meaning are all conveyed. Thus, the reader can understand the Chinese unique culture.

b. Local cultural differences

Geographical locations, natural environment and social customs, etc., contribute a lot to the forming of local culture. In this paper, local cultural differences mainly concern that some equivalent words in two languages actually have no same cultural connotations.

There is an English sentence which has a completely different cultural connotation with that of Chinese. “You are a lucky dog”. Maybe people who have little knowledge of the western culture will directly translate it into “你是条幸运的狗”. However, we should translate like this “你是幸运儿”. Similarly, being aware of the local cultural contexts, we’d better handle the rendering under the principle of pragmatic equivalence. In western culture, the connotation is totally different, “dog” has a derogatory meaning, and it is often used to curse somebody, for example: “狗腿子”, “狗胆包天”, “狗急跳墙”, etc.

A poem can very often show the culture of language. It may involve allusions, history, geography and its religion, etc. The good translation of poems cannot be isolated from culture.

Shall I compare thee to a summer’s day?

Thou art more lovely and more temperate;

Rough winds do shake the darling buds of May,

And summer’s lease hath all too short a date.

我怎么能够把你来比作夏天?

你不独比他可爱也比他温婉;

狂风把五月宠爱的嫩蕊作贱,

夏天出赁的期限又未免太短。

Here comes an improper translation caused by different geographical culture, because the summer in Britain is mild and lovely, the comparison of “you” to “summer” is very proper. If the summer in the target language country is not as lovely and in Britain, then “春天” is more proper than “夏天” in translating the word “summer”.

Also, let us read the following stanza by Robert Burns:

John, Anderson, my Jo, John,

When we were first acquaint,

Your locks were like the raven,

Your bonnie brow was brent,

The Chinese Version by Liang Yuchun(梁遇春):

John, Anderson, 我的爱人, John

我们当初认得的时候

你的头发黑的象乌鸦

你的额头也是丰润无痕

The poet compared his lover’s locks with that of the raven and which has no derogatory connotation. But to a Chinese, the raven is unwelcome, unpleasant. And is usually associated with derogatory sense, such as in the expression “乌鸦嘴” and “天下乌鸦一般黑”. The Chinese version retains the metaphor, but runs counter to the aesthetic standards of Chinese readers; therefore, the original meaning of the poem may not be perfectly represented, the following translation would be better.

约翰安德生，我的爱人
记得我们初相遇
你的头发如墨
你的脸儿似玉

c. Customary cultural differences

All of us may have a glimpse of the customary culture, for it comes into being in everyday life. Customary culture covers greetings, compliments, apologies, addresses, euphemisms and taboos, etc.. And customary cultural differences are unavoidable in translation.

Take English and Chinese for example: in Britain, the weather changes a lot, and so people have a special feeling for weather, "Lovely day, isn't it?". It becomes the most convenient and safe greeting. In china, the problem of daily bread has been the subject people have been concerned with.

Also the widely used color words and the connotations they carry in one culture are generally different from another culture. In Chinese, we often use the seven kinds of color "赤橙黄绿青蓝紫", while in English the basic color words are black, red, yellow, green, blue, brown, purple, pink, orange, and grey. Red is related to happiness, anger, danger, fire, blood and crime. For example:

red-letter----喜庆的
red with anger----气的满脸通红
red alert----战祸
red alert----紧急通报
red-handed----血淋淋的
get into the red----负债

To Chinese people, blue can produce fine imagination, and it stands for purification and magnanimousness. To English people, blue expresses failure, depression, horror and grief. For example:

"She looks blue today." means "She is depressed."
"in the blues" means "in low spirits."
"blue Monday" means "the dejected Monday after the rest of weekends."
"blue murder" means "horrid scream."

Green not only symbolizes life and youth, but also carries the meaning of ignorance and inexperience in English. For example:

"green hands" means "new hands".
"green eyed" means "jealously".
"green power" means "the power of money".

English color words are colorful. Both Chinese and English color words have their different cultural connotations. Color words, though very small in number, reflect to certain extent the cultural, moral and aesthetic values of different races and people of different times.

d. Religions cultural differences

Religion is an integral part of human culture. Religious culture can be reflected in many ways, such as religious beliefs, values, worships, taboo, etc. Religions have a profound impact in people's lives. As a result, we should notice the cultural differences in translation.

In Chinese religious culture, "dragon" is a highly respected creature, it's a symbol of sacredness, prestige and solemnity. In ancient china, emperors of different dynasties regarded themselves as the symbol of "real dragon". The Chinese expression means "wishing one's son becoming somebody later". However, in western culture, "dragon" is a kind of fierce and cruel and horrible monster who can spurt fume and fire. This, of course, is quite counter to Chinese custom. When foreigners hear "dragon", they would connect it with the animal exists in their mind. So, in our translation, we'd better translate "dragon" like "Long", and add some explanation about the word "Long". By this, foreigners can get correct information.

Because of the cultural differences between the source language and target language, semantic and pragmatic equivalence cannot be achieved at the same time. In most of the cases, semantic equivalence is hardly to be achieved, for there are few equivalent words which are of the same designative and associative meanings, but pragmatic equivalence can overcome the obstacle of cultural differences and functions in the process of translation.

IV. CONCLUSION

From the above, we know that translation is more closely related to culture factors in language. Without the culture knowledge, it is difficult to translate the original into target language accurately. So after those examples, on the one hand, we may now get a clear idea of the relation between culture and translation; on the other hand, we also may master the approaches of semantic and pragmatic equivalence in translation. It is true that these two aspects can open our eyes to a new perspective of understanding culture and translation.

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Linguistic Features of Typographic Emoticons in SMS Discourse

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Abstract—With the flourishing of information technology in the last 50 years, electronic communication has become a significant part of our daily lives. As electronic language is written text, it is divorced from gestures, facial expressions, and prosodic features such as intonation, rhythm, and volume. That is why emoticons have entered cyberspace; they infuse electronic communication with an emotional, human touch. This paper deals with typographic emoticons as linguistic units, and observes their structures and uses in sentences. The research corpus covers 258 French text messages collected with an anonym questionnaire around the years 2008 - 2009. After a graphic analysis of typographic emoticons, we define “emoticon structure” as “a pictogram-like unit formed with alphagrams and topograms of distinctive significative function, and visually conditioned to the referent”. Morphological analysis has shown that, in emoticon structure, graphemes of entirely different significances and functions become morpheme-like units, which, like word morphemes, can be derivational, inflectional, or abbreviated, but never unbound. Relying on a corpus, we isolated the two main uses of the emoticon: non-verbal and verbal. The former is the more frequent use, so it is considered in more detail in this paper. Analysis has shown that emoticons are not only paraverbal devices, but also structural markers, and they play a significant role in the formation of the sentence.

Index Terms—emoticon, smiley, sms language, paraverbal, morphological analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

With the flourishing of information technology in the last 50 years, electronic communication has become a significant part of our daily lives. As electronic language is written text, it is divorced from gestures, facial expressions, and prosodic features such as intonation, rhythm, and volume. These features naturally led to the difficulty of comfortable and smooth communication, as it is known that the contribution of the purely linguistic elements in our actual face-to-face communication is much smaller than non-verbal information and prosodic features (Mehrabian, 1971). That is why emoticons (or smileys) have entered cyberspace to provide the electronic communication with emotional and human touch. An emoticon (word from *emotion* and *icon*) is a facial expression represented by a combination of punctuation mark, letters or other characters, that viewed from the side resembles a facial expression or, more rarely, gestures. Today some software, such as Microsoft Word or email client programs, automatically convert typographic emoticons into graphic ones, that are more expressive, often animated and represent images in Gif format.

The Hacker's Dictionary (Raymond, 1994) provides a section on the origins and proper use of emoticons, as well as its generally accepted definition: “An ASCII glyph is used to indicate an emotional state in e-mail or news”. Sanderson defined “smileys” as “a sequence of ordinary characters you can find on your computer keyboard. Smileys are used in e-mail and other forms of communication using computers” (Sanderson, 1993, p. 1). For Rezabek and Cochenour emoticons are “visual cues formed from ordinary typographical symbols that when read sideways represent feelings or emotions” (Rezabek and Cochenour, 1998, p. 201). Godin agreed that “until the advent of the smiley, otherwise known as an emoticon, individuals using electronic communication had no way to indicate the subtle mood changes. They couldn't tell jokes, use irony, slip in a pun or become bitingly sarcastic” (Godin, 1993, p. 4). According to Marvin “these symbols are the paralanguage of the internet” (Marvin, 1995).

The first smiley face, which represents eyes, a nose and a smiling mouth, was invented in 1982 by Scott Fahlman, research professor specialized in artificial intelligence at Carnegie Melon School of Computer Science. Smiley faces become more and more popular among Internet and SMS users, despite some researchers such as Andrews claiming that “emoticons waste bandwidth, have inconsistent definitions and are superfluous, a well-constructed sentence needs no clarification and emoticons serve no purpose” (Andrews, 1994).

The field of emoticon study has a long tradition and was observed from different perspectives with a focus on specific objectives. Some research in psychology has focused on the emotional dimension of emoticons and their role in message interpretation (Walther & D'Addario, 2001). Emoticons are also considered as politeness indicators (Bunz & Campbell, 2004). The feasibility of emoticons as answer categories for questions aiming at emotional states and feelings has also been investigated (Meschtscherjakov, Weiss & Scherndl, 2009). In particular, Riva analyzed emoticons with relation to socio-cognitive processes of emotional expression.

Gender differences in the use of emoticons are frequently examined (Witmer & Katzman, 1997; Fullwood & Martino, 2007). Huffaker and Calvert (2005) for example suggest that teenage girls use emoticons less frequently than teenage boys. Drawing on the current literature, Witmer and Katzman (1997) on the other hand found evidence to suggest that women use more emoticons than men in Computer Mediated Communication. The use of emoticons in communication may be influenced to some extent by the sex of the partner with whom one is interacting. Indeed, Wolf (2000) found that when males are communicating with females they tend to adopt the female standard of expressing more emotion. Wolf (2000) also noted that men and women used emoticons for different purposes. Men tended to use emoticons in a sarcastic or teasing manner, whereas women tended to use emoticons more often when they were attempting to communicate humorous messages.

Studies about emoticons' place within the speaking-writing dichotomy are also numerous. Most often, emoticons are represented as conventions used to compensate for the absence of paralinguistic indicators, such as mimogestuality or intonation (Baron, 2000; Kruger, Epley, Parker, & NG, 2005; Marcoccia, 2000). Mourhlon-Dallies and Collin (1994) compare smileys to the system of stage directions in theatrical texts, as they allow the reader to recreate absent reality and corporality while reading the text.

Linguistic studies of emoticon offer their semantic and syntactic descriptions (Bodi & Veszelszki, 2006), thematic and functional classification (Bodi & Veszelszki, 2006; Marcoccia & Gauducheu, 2007). The visual aspects of emoticons are also examined (Herring, 2001).

Studies of emoticons from pedagogical perspective are also interesting. Azuma and Ebner have proposed the implementation of a universal auxiliary language based on the use of emoticons and its possible educational applications (2008).

II. RESEARCH OBJECT AND CORPUS

The research corpus covers 258 French text messages collected with anonym questionnaire around the years 2008 - 2009. After providing their age (17 to 35 year), gender and profession informants were asked to copy 3 or 5 SMS from their mobile phones into the questionnaires. The questionnaires with special cover letter were sent via e-mail to the addresses collected in social sites. We have moved from the corpus publicity messages, SMS containing only non-letter characters and messages written on the computer.

In general three types of emoticon can be found in electronic communication:

1. Typographic emoticons - :-) - formed with punctuation marks or other typographic symbols that can be found on the computer keyboard or mobile phone's keypad.

2. Graphic emoticons - ☺ - often animated, represent images in Gif format. As said before, some software automatically converts typographic emoticons into graphic ones.

3. Verbal emoticons ('Happy Smiley') verbally represent graphic or typographic ones and become more and more productive, parallel with the classical, non-verbal smileys. In this case, we observe the reverse process of imitation of graphic symbol by linguistic means. It is a new and interesting type of emoticon that can be studied separately. This type of emoticons cannot be found only in internet communication.

In our paper we will discuss typographic emoticons, their structure and use in sms discourse.

III. DISCUSSION

A. Structure

Emoticons consist of two, three, or four graphemes corresponding to the zones of the human face described by Ekman¹. Semantically more changed and thus more variable are the eyes and the mouth. Two other zones, the nose and eyebrows, can be added or omitted. In addition to these four basic graphemes, emoticons may include additional zones, such as tears, hair, saliva, teeth, tongue, etc.

The eyes are often encoded by a colon, but they can also be found as a semicolon, equal sign (=), the numeral eight (8), the letter B, a percent sign (%), etc. All of these characters represent varying degrees of openness of the eye and consequently, in combination with other characters of the face, they encode a variety of emotional nuances. The mouth is denoted traditionally by the bracket (to encode a spread of emotions from sadness to joy), but different meanings may be indicated by letters, typographic characters, numerals, and other characters. The nose rarely changes the meaning of an emoticon, except in the case of mischief or tomfoolery, so it is traditionally denoted by a hyphen.

As it is known, the sign that conveys its meaning through its pictorial resemblance to a physical object is a pictogram. Thus, emoticons can be viewed as pictograms formed with graphemes – the smallest units of the graphic form defined by their function in written communication (Anis, 1988).

Anis delineates three classes of graphemes:

¹ Paul Ekman, Professor of psychology at the University of California, is recognized as a world expert in the study of emotions, including their nonverbal facial expressions. He recorded that the majority of facial expressions and their corresponding emotions are not because of culture, but derive from human biology. He considers six basic emotions to be universal: happiness, sadness, anger, fear, disgust, and surprise. A principle of Ekman's study of emotions is that the face is divided into three horizontal areas: brow / forehead, eyes, and lids / root of nose and the lower face, including the cheeks, mouth, most of the nose, and chin. Their juxtaposition allows recognition of the six basic emotions (Ekman, 1977).

1. Alphabetic graphemes (or alphagrams): purely distinctive units constituting the heart of graphic systems;
2. Punctuo-typographical graphemes (or topograms): distinctive, significative units [parallel] to the syntagmatic and enunciative structuring of the graphic chain;
3. Logogrammatical graphemes (or logograms): unique graphemes corresponding to a significant unit or group with a synthetic function (acronyms, logos) (Anis, 1998: 15).

From these three classes of graphemes, we can easily observe that emoticons more frequently contain alphagrams and topograms (logograms are extremely rare), although, according to Anis, alphagrams are only segmental units; in the structure of emoticons, they have their own significance. For example, in picture 1 the final grapheme (P) is an alphabetic representation of an extended tongue. In the same emoticon, standard graphemes are used with non-standard significance.

:-P

Picture 1

Pierozak (2003) compares the graphemes of emoticons to word morphemes and underlines the arbitrary relationship between the signifier and signified. But as emoticons in their structure are pictograms, thus conveying their meaning through their pictorial resemblance to physical objects, the relation between signified and signifier cannot be arbitrary. Each grapheme in emoticons is visually conditioned.

Thus, we can define the structure of emoticons as follows: *Emoticons are pictogram-like units formed with alphagrams and topograms of distinctive significative function, and visually conditioned to the referent.*

If, as Pierozak (2003) suggests, we define graphemes of emoticons as morphemes, then we can say that they are lexical morphemes that have a completely different significance when standing alone. For example, in picture 2 the bracket represents the mouth, but when standing alone, it is a punctuation mark. Thus the sign “)” as a grapheme is free, but as a morpheme in the structure of an emoticon, it is bound. The process of reduplication in the structure of emoticons is also interesting. It is expressed in the repetition of the right (lower) part of the emoticon and serves to reinforce the emotions. In this case, this part of the emoticon can be treated as an inflectional morpheme. These are generally morphemes of the mouth, which through redoubling express the superlative (picture 3).

:-)

Picture 2

:-) :-(:-D :-P
:-)) :-(:-DD :-PP

Picture 3

Besides the mouth, reduplication may also be applied to the components as a “tear” and as “saliva”.

(1) *Ca doit etre super bon :-)*²

‘It looks delicious :-)’²

The repetition of the character cannot be considered as reduplication when it does not reinforce the emotion, but instead completely changes the meaning of the emoticon. Thus, the sign “8-[]” symbolises opening and closing the mouth (or the jaw twitching), but it cannot be called reduplication.

Interestingly, like words, emoticons can also have reduced forms. Reduction in the emoticon concerns the elements with less semantic function (i.e., not carrying significant information). Obviously, this process is conditioned by the desire of the economy. Usually the most insignificant element of the emoticon is the middle section, which represents the nose. As the image of the nose in most cases is the same and does not carry significant information, it simply is omitted without any changes in the semantics of the emoticon.

Thus, we can conclude that in the structure of emoticons, graphemes with absolutely distinct significance and function become morpheme-like units, which - like word morphemes - can be derivational or inflectional, as well as abbreviated, but never unbound.

B. Classifications

Typographic emoticons can be classified into two major groups (Table 1):

1. Emotional-attitudinal emoticons that provide emotional information and represent
 - Facial expressions

² The examples are transcribed as they appear in the corpus (with orthographic or typographic errors/adaptations).

- Objects, peoples, animals
- Action
- Appearance

2. Pictorial emoticons are simple pictures made with keyboard characters that do not convey non-verbal information.

TABLE 1

Emotional-attitudinal		Pictorial
Facial expressions	:-) --- happy, smile :-(--- sad :-D--- hearty laughing :- { --- angry ;-) --- wink :*(---crying softly :-e --- disappointed :-o or 8-0 --- shocked, amazed %) or : -s --- confused :”) --- embarrassed :-T --- keep a straight face :-/ --- skeptical x:-/ --- uncertain =:-O --- scared	=:-H --- football player *< :-) --- Santa Claus *<<<<+ --- Christmas tree +:-) --- doctor or priest C=:-) --- chef = : -) --- punk 8(:-) --- Mickey Mouse })i(--- butterfly ><> --- fish 8) --- frog :/--- duck :8) --- pig 3:-o --- cow +<: -) --- pope *<: o) --- clown :-[--- vampire @ @ @ @:-) ---Marge Simpson ~(_8^(I) --- Homer Simpson @(*0*)@ --- koala () _ _ _ _ _ } } ~ ~ ~ --- cigarette]---["I""I""I""I""I"]>----- ---syringe ...D- ---glass of champagne >(//)< --- candy
Objects, peoples, animals	O: -) --- angel >:-> --- devil @>:-; --- a rose O>-< hands up [] friendly hugs »»-(^ ^)«« pierced heart	
Action	:-Q --- smoking while talking (((H))) --- big hug l^o --- yawning or snoring `:-) --- sweating l-O --- yawn :-@ --- screaming :p~ ~ --- drooling : - * --- kiss :-? --- smoking a pipe : #) --- drunk	
Appearance	:o) --- a big nose (: -) ---big face >%-) --- cross eyed { : -) --- hair parted in the middle &: -) --- curly hair 8 *) --- glasses and a half mustache : -)) --- double chin (or really happy) : -}) --- handlebar mustache B-) --- wearing glasses : - { } --- wearing lipstick : %) % --- a face with acnes :~) --- got a flowing or running nose (: --- Left handed	

C. Use

Like other non-verbal means, emoticons can also supplement the verbal context as well as express the significance independently. This feature of the graphic sign is very important in written communication, as it simplifies the communication, makes it less ambiguous, and allows part of the semantic information to be transferred from the grammatical form to the separate semantic unit. For example, an unpleasant message can be easily mitigated by putting a smiley at the end. As in speech, sometimes, intonation identifies the intended meaning better than the verbal context, and emoticons can radically alter the meaning of the message. Compare three different answers to the question, *Veux-tu aller demain au cinéna avec moi?* [Will you go with me to the movies tomorrow?]

- “Non.”
- “Non >: /”
- “Non :(”

The three convey completely different meanings. The first answer is neutral, however, it could be considered offensive. The second would likely be taken as offensive, because it means, “Leave me alone.” Finally, the third implies, “No, unfortunately,” and it would therefore come across as more positive.

Alternatively, for example, consider the following answers to the question: *Veux-tu m'aider?* [‘Can you help me?’]

- “OK”
- “OK :)”

- “OK:-/”
- “OK;-)”

The first answer is just a simple statement of fact. The second means, “I am pleased to help.” The third implies that the person feels forced to help, while the fourth indicates ambiguity and flirtatiousness.

We can specify two different uses for emoticons: non-verbal and verbal.

Non-verbal emoticons express the para-verbal or non-verbal elements. They are not pronounced, but are expressed through non-verbal devices, such as mime, gesture and intonation.

Some functions of non-verbal emoticons in sentences are as follows:

• **Addition of para-verbal elements to the message** (when the verbal plane of the text does not contain information about non-verbal elements):

(2) *Quand je suis retourné il était déjà chez lui :(*

‘When I returned, he was already home :(‘

Here ‘he was already home’ can be understood both in a positive and negative sense. The sad emoticon at the end indicates that the message has a negative interpretation. Thus, para-verbal elements help to eliminate misunderstandings while the verbal plane of a message can create it.

• **Redundancy**

- Direct denotative correspondence between emoticons and verbal components (when emoticons express the same emotion as the verbal plane):

(3) *T’a passé ton exam! :), heureux pr toi! :)*

‘You have done your examination! :) I’m happy for you! :) ‘

In the example (3) the first emoticon expresses happiness, which is already clear from the verbal and punctuational plane of the text. The second emoticon also expresses happiness, which, as mentioned, is already expressed with verbal components. Thus, in both cases, the emoticon repeats the verbally expressed emotion.

- Indirect denotative correspondence (when emoticons reinforce or strengthen the significance of verbal components):

(4) *Wow! Enfin t’es libre! Heureux pr toi! :)*

‘Wow! You are free! I’m happy for you! :) ‘

Here the emoticon represents tears of joy, which reinforces the emotion expressed verbally while also adding a little humour to the message.

• **Antiphrasis** (when emoticons are used to contradict or annul the verbally expressed meaning):

(5) *Je suis heureuse pour eux :((*

‘I am happy for them :((‘

(6) *tu sais je suis un ange moi >:(*

‘I am a real angel you know >:(‘

• **Entire turn** (when emoticons serve the purpose of an entire message)

(7) – *encor mal, po pa aller avc toi. :(*

- :((

‘- I am still ill and can’t come with you :(

-:((‘

• **Syntactic marker** (often serving as punctuation). The role of intonation and other paralinguistic features in spoken discourse is often decisive in the analysis of the structure of information (Hazaël-Massieux, 1993; Martinet, 1985). As electronic discourse can be considered a ‘written oral language’ (Anis, 1998), paralinguistic adaptations, especially emoticons, often play the role of syntactic markers.

Consider some examples of different positions emoticons can take in the syntactic chain. Emoticons most often appear at the end of a sentence, either with or in place of standard sentence-final punctuation marks. In this position, emoticons often replace periods and sometimes exclamation marks, but never question marks. Consider the following example:

(8) *Merci :) [Place of exclamation mark] D’accord pour 11 h? :-)*

‘Thanks :) do you agree to meet at 11? :-)’

In many cases, emoticons appear in the medial position. An interesting question is whether emoticons in this position are related to other structural markers.

(9) *Coucou Jojo:) Ca va? Pourquoi ne m’ecris pas?*

‘Hi Jojo :) how are you? Why don’t you write to me?’

In the example (9), an emoticon with a relatively neutral emotive color is connected to the salutation. It is positioned after the greeting and serves as a politeness indicator. In addition, the emoticon performs the role of punctuation mark, which is absent.

(10) *Slt :-(ca va pa bien :((*

‘Hi :(I am not very well :((‘

The example (10) contains a more salient emotive emoticon, ‘:(,’ which is unrelated to the salutation emoticon and expresses disappointment, areal emotion. Therefore, the message has to be understood in the following manner:

1) “Hi”

2) “:(I am not very well :-(”

The emoticon's function as punctuation is also evident: A smiley in the intermediate position not only marks the end of the first segment but also introduces the second. In the examples cited above, the emoticons serve as single structural markers. However, the message below presents an example of double marking:

(11) *moi?:) je l'ai aimée bien.:)*

‘me? I liked her very much.:)’

In the example (11) the structural function is performed by both emoticons and punctuation marks.

Interestingly enough, the message below (12) starts with a smiley:

(12) *:) oui, une bonne soirée. Tu veux voir des photos ? Je suis bon photographe tu sais ;)*

‘:) Yes it was a very cool party. Do you want to view photos? You know I am a good photographer ;)’

It is evident that in this case, the smiley presents an emotive answer to a previous message. The smiley is followed by a verbal answer. The sentence “:) Yes, it was very cool.” consists of two segments: an emoticon and a verbal message.

Ultimately, we can conclude that in SMS discourse, paralinguistic typography generally consists of para- and non-verbal cues, but at the same time, it can be considered a non-traditional source of information structure.

The verbal use of emoticons is new and less common. It means using an emoticon instead of a word or a phrase. Our research corpus contains only a few examples of verbally used emoticons.

(13) *Je t'aime et je veux te :-*)*

‘I love you and I want you to :-*)’ (kiss)

(14) *Je te déjà dit, :-Q e mal pr la santé;)*

‘I have already told you, :-Q (smoking) is damaging for the health;)’

In these two examples, emoticons are used as verbs. They can also replace nouns and adjectives.

(15) *Voici, c'est por toi :===@*

‘Here is for you :===@ ‘(a rose)

(16) *Je suis très >:(*

‘I am very >:(‘ (Angry)

Verbally are generally employed graphical pre-designed emoticons. They are animated versions of emoticons that are more sophisticated than the simple combination of keyboard characters and are automatically offered in almost all computer software as a part of instant messaging programs, forums, etc., as well as mobile phones.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The popularity of emoticons has increased scientific interest in this new phenomenon. As we saw in the introductory part, studies on emoticons are numerous and adopt different perspectives. Linguistic studies concentrate on analyzing the role of emoticons in the speech-write dichotomy. Therefore, the main objective of our paper was to analyze emoticons as linguistic units and their structure and use in sentences.

Based on the graphic and morphologic analyses of emoticons, we have defined their structure as pictogram-like units formed with alphagrams and topograms that have distinctive and significative functions and visually conditioned relations to their referents.

Based on the research corpus, we have identified two main types of emoticon use, non-verbal and verbal. The first is more frequent, and we describe it in more details in our paper.

Analysis has shown that emoticons are not only paraverbal devices but also structural markers and play a significant role in the formation of sentences.

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Universality and Variation of Conceptual Metaphor of Love in Chinese and English

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Abstract—Metaphors are so pervasive in expressing some abstract emotions such as love and anger that it seems that they play an important role in our expressing emotions. Love is a universal emotion shared by people from different countries. The paper discusses universality and variation of conceptual metaphors of love in English and Chinese from cognitive angle.

Index Terms—conceptual metaphors, universality and variation

Metaphor is a way people construe the objective world, and it is the reflection of culture. The existence of one metaphorical concept in different nations and different cultures shows the universality of metaphorical cognition and similarity of cognition among different nations. On the other hand, metaphorical concepts are somewhat culturally different because of the influence of different cultures. How foundational metaphor is to cultural understanding has been a matter of considerable debate, manifested in the question of whether cultural models are, at bottom, based on conceptual metaphors (Gibbs 1994; Lakoff 1993; Lakoff and Johnson 1999; Quinn 1991). But one thing is true, that is, the understanding of conceptual metaphor depends on the understanding of socio-cultural backgrounds. For example, in a culture with a tradition of Shamanism, it is not obvious that “lack of sensible behavior” would be automatically related with “madness” or “anger.” Thus, we can say that culturally determined metaphors lead to different conceptualization of “sensible behavior” in different cultures.

I. INTRODUCTION

Our emotions are neither primitive nor ‘natural’, but rather intelligent, structured by concepts and judgments that we learn in a particular culture, through which we give our experience some shape and meaning”(Solomon,1990). According to Lakoff’s experiential cognition, the physical experience of cognitive subjects plays a very important role in cognitive development, and forming of abstract concepts comes from the physical experience of cognitive subjects in certain environments. Culture influenced language greatly and the use of metaphor is carried out in the cultural environment and historical background. Because of the regional and cultural differences of English and Chinese, people living in different cultures act and behave differently, and have different physical experience. Thus, there is the conceptual metaphor WEST WIND IS COLDNESS in English and EAST WIND IS WARMTH in Chinese. That is the reason why the famous British poet Shelley wrote in *Ode to West Wind* “thou breath of Autumn’s being”, “drive my dead thoughts”, “to quicken a new birth”, “The trumpet of a prophecy! If Winter comes, can spring be far behind?” While in Chinese, west wind means coldness as in *Autumn Thought* from Ma Zhiyuan “古道西风瘦马。夕阳西下，断肠人在天涯”。Meanwhile, Chairman Mao Zedong states “西风烈，长空雁叫霜晨月”。In Chinese, west wind means coldness, bleakness, blight; while east wind means warmth and spring as in Xin Qiji’s *Lantern Festival* “东风夜放花千树，更吹落，星如雨” The understanding of conceptual metaphors is greatly constrained by the different cultures.

LOVE uses different source domains for different reasons, namely to convey information related to different concrete objects respectively. There are different systematic mapping between a source domain and a target domain because of different cultures.

II. UNIVERSALITY OF LOVE METAPHORS

The way in which human beings think and the way that they act are largely metaphorical. Not surprisingly, human beings communicate through language by means of conceptual systems that are essentially metaphorical. Since metaphor is considered as a set of systematic mappings between a source domain and a target domain, it is easy to find many shared conceptual metaphors in both English and Chinese. However, the shared conceptual metaphors in English and Chinese display variations in the metaphorical linguistic expressions.

When we are encountered with metaphors in English and Chinese, we can have a distinct impression that is a lot of non-universal metaphors exist in different languages. As shown in Chapter 3, universality and variation are both

common. Love is one of many emotions we experience in a complex way which is finally not irrational but decidedly rational. In both English and Chinese, love is conceptualized as a journey, plant, fire, unity and so forth; while love is commonly viewed as commodity in English and as paired animals in Chinese.

As for the universality and variation of metaphors, we can resort to primary metaphors, which can be put together to form conceptual metaphors, such as LOVE IS JOURNEY, or LOVE IS FIRE, in which they function as conceptual correspondences or mappings between the source domain and the target domain.

Culture greatly influence what complex conceptual metaphors emerge from the primary metaphors. It is commonly believed that emotions are culturally dependent experiences, and language and the underlying conceptualization of emotional experience are culture-specific. English and Chinese belong to different cultures, which didn't have much contact with each other when conceptual metaphors evolved.

III. VARIATION OF LOVE METAPHORS

It is clear that a culture employs a particular source domain for the conceptualization of different target domains. Meanwhile, the set of conceptual metaphors are a particular target domain is roughly the same in English and Chinese, but English or Chinese shows a clear preference for some of the conceptual metaphors that are employed.

Universal primary experiences produce universal primary metaphors. Conceptual metaphor, in a great sense, depends on the universality of thinking models of easterners and westerners. However, it sometimes reflects its national cultural features, that is, nationality. Love is a common emotion of human beings, but the expression of love is somewhat culturally different. Chinese prefer to use some specific objects of natural forces, animals and plants to be the source domain; while Englishmen would like to take plants or natural forces as a whole to be the source domain. For example, LOVE IS PLANT is a typical conceptual metaphor in English, with "love grows in her/Their love flowered" to be the commonly found examples, but in Chinese some specific plants, such as twin lotus flowers on one stalk, are metaphorically used to represent love.

Metaphorical language allows speakers to make a variety of points about the corresponding experience. As mentioned above, Chinese resort to internal organs to express love, which are linked to five elements, that is, wood, fire, earth, metal and water, which are considered as the makeup of the universe according to ancient philosophy. Five-element theory takes different elements as different representatives of different feelings, and different feelings are related to different bodily organs. Since heart is the most important internal organs (heart, liver, spleen, lungs and kidneys), heart is always used to express love among human beings.

Some conceptual metaphors are unique to either English or Chinese. As is mentioned in Chapter 3, Chinese and English share a lot of basic metaphorical source domains for love: journey, fire, plant, natural forces, and so forth. However, the fact is there are more conceptual metaphors concerning love in English than those in Chinese. Meanwhile, a lot of modern Chinese love metaphors are borrowed from or influenced by western cultures.

Chinese and English share a lot of basic metaphorical source domains for love: journey, fire, plant, natural forces, and so forth. There are some Chinese conceptual metaphors, which are not found in English, such as love-as-silk metaphor. The application of such metaphors reflects the more introverted character of speakers of Chinese, while the love-as-fire metaphor reflects the extroverted characteristic of English speakers. It is obvious that westerners talked about love with great passion and bravery, Chinese talked about love indirectly and tactfully. In the following part, some reasons for the variation of English and Chinese conceptual metaphors will be discussed from cross-cultural perspectives.

IV. REASONS FOR VARIATION

Quinn claims that metaphors expressed in language are underlain by cultural models. Zoltán (2005) claims the causes of variation in metaphor can be grouped into 2 large classes: differential experience and differential cognitive preferences or styles. On the one hand, many of our metaphors vary because our experience as human beings also varies. And, on the other hand, our metaphors vary because the cognitive preferences and styles we put to use for the creation of abstract thought also vary. Physical environment, national personalities, thinking models, religious beliefs and cultural-ideological traits are mentioned respectively.

A. *Physical Environment*

People living in different physical environments construe the physical environments differently, and the metaphors they use vary, too. Universal embodiment associated with a target domain may be composed of different components, or distinct aspects. The different conceptual metaphors might be based on one aspect or component in one area and another in another area, let alone in different countries which are totally different in physical environments.

It is easy to discover that people living in Britain conceptualize metaphors differently from those in China. For example, spatial conceptualization changes because of the degree of contact between humans and animals. In Britain, people and dogs keep a close contact with each other, it is likely to find conceptual metaphors like DOGS ARE FRIENDS, such as in "Love me love my dog," "You are a lucky dog."

Because of different physical environments, people focus on different native products. Agriculture is very important

in Chinese history, which results in plenty of farm products to be the source domain when love is the target domain. In Chinese, love is mulberry and love is silk with mulberry and silk are the basic national farm products in China; While English involves farm products in English speaking countries, such as bread-and-cheese marriage. The English expression *love in cottage* has the counterpart in Chinese, which is *couples of chaff-and-husks days*. Similarly, both English and Chinese have the same metaphor LOVE IS PLANT. However, in Chinese the specific domain is jumbo bean (love bean), in English the commonly employed domain is rose or even wild plant. The conceptual metaphor in English and Chinese is similar, but the entities to express the emotion are different because of the physical environmental differences.

B. Different Personalities of English Speakers and Chinese Speakers

When we are studying metaphorical expression of a conceptual metaphor, we should consider such factors as the literal meaning of the expression, the figurative meaning and the conceptual metaphor. It seems that in English it is internal considerations of external conditions that cause people in love to do something in certain ways, while external conditions make Chinese lovers do something in other ways. The reason why Chinese are more externally forced to act or make decisions than westerners is Chinese are more fatalistic when facing life, let alone emotions. Chinese people are likely to give in to forces that are believed to be beyond one's control.

A degree of extroversion is not easily found in Chinese culture, whereas westerners, especially Americans are eager to express their love openly and directly with examples like "I am burning with love", "my love is a red rose"

English speakers are passionate, romantic and daring in characteristics. In their eyes, love is the most pleasant thing in life. Without love, life is not interesting any more. Hence, they prefer to employ direct and passionate ways to express their emotions, and love is conceptualized as red, red rose, which symbolizes the passionate love between lovers.

Meanwhile, Chinese compare love as moon, and westerners as the sun because of the cultural difference. In Chinese culture, moon is praised and oft-quoted by ancient poets since moon is as gentle and indirect as love shared by ancient Chinese, while English people considered love as brilliant, powerful and mighty. Hence, in Chinese there are such sentences as 思君如满月, 夜夜减清辉, which show the pure and loyal love of the woman. However, in English there are expressions like "Juliet is the sun" in the following:

Romeo:

But soft, what light through yonder window breaks?

It is the east, and Juliet is the sun.

Arise, fair sun, and kill the envious moon,

Who is already sick and pale with grief

That thou, her maid, art far more fair than she.

Romeo And Juliet Act 2, scene 2, 2-6

Juliet is fairer and more brilliant than the moon is meant to be taken as Romeo's sincere belief. When Juliet appears above, on her balcony, she appears like the sun at dawn, her light overpowering the moon's merely reflected brilliance. This is just one in a long series of metaphorical associations of Juliet with light. Romeo feels that his love infinitely regresses and cannot be explained or rationally resolved or reduced to anything tangible but that he can only find the sun which vindicates and confirms his love of Juliet. Romeo is suggesting an elemental absolutism or natural truism to his love for Juliet.

C. Different Thinking Models

Metaphor is a way of showing people's thinking, and is influenced by people's thinking in the process of construing the world. Although human thinking models are of their own rules, which results in universality of metaphors, thinking models of different nations cause the nationality of metaphors.

Metaphor is a way to embody thinking, and is influenced by individual way of thinking in the process of people's cognition of the world. Although the ways of thinking of peoples from different countries follow the same principle, and have something in common, ways of thinking of different nations vary, with specific features. Westerners are good at analysis and logic, thus ways of thinking are linear; whereas easterners are good at integration, and imaginative and dependent on intuition, which is circling in form. When the two ways of thinking are reflected on metaphoric conceptualization, Chinese uses more concrete objects in mapping, while English employs association and analogy to describe the corresponding target domain.

Influenced by modern industry, westerners emphasize individualism and materialism, which makes westerners take marriage as a contract and love as commodity, reflected in expressions as "I paid a lot for so little love". Westerners consider more about love when they consider to be married, and children or properties that are not closely related to love could not bind them.

D. Different Religious Beliefs

We equate insanity with the loss of sensible behavior that we judge them similar. This is less obvious than it may seem because such a judgment of similarity is dependent on cultural mediation. It is likely that unless a metaphor is based on some primary concept, or embodied experience as the work of Lakoff and Johnson in *Philosophy in the Flesh*

supports in certain circumstances, the source domain is equally a product of some culturally dependent conceptualization.

Beside the different ways of thinking of English speakers and Chinese, different traditional cultures result in the different outlook of the world, which determines the choice of mapping and conceptualization of metaphors, with Chinese influenced deeply by Daoism, Confucianism, while westerners by Christianity.

The Chinese conceptual metaphor LOVE IS FATE is the typical example to illustrate the different cultural models of different nations. Chinese culture is influenced by Buddhism, Daoism and feudalism, which makes Chinese express love indirectly and implicitly. Chinese prefer Buddhist conceptualizations of states-of-being, rebirth and event structure for their reducibility to primary metaphors, which are constituted by culture-specific understandings. The Chinese word “缘分” (fate) comes from Buddhism. According to Buddhism, phenomena in the world are caused, including being a couple or being in love. Fate makes people get married or fall into love with each other, such as 十年修的同船渡, 百年修的共枕眠. However, most westerners believe in Christianity and they are deeply influenced by Christianity, which results in the love conceptual metaphors related to Christianity or God. For example:

She worships the ground she walks on.

He is forever singing her praises.

Chinese culture is influenced by Buddhism, Daoism and feudalism, which makes Chinese express love indirectly and implicitly. If we survey the ancient Chinese poems, it is difficult for us to find the word love directly; However, the conceptualization of love in English language is so strongly influenced by the idea of Christianity, materialism, and individualism that westerners express their love directly and passionately. Stearns(1994) claims “in intense, spiritualized passion, couples hoped to find some of the same balm to the soul that religion had once....More concluded that true love was itself a religious experience.” Let’s take the following English and Chinese poems as examples:

Till a’ the seas gang dry, my dear,

And the rocks melt wi’ the sun;

And I will love thee still, my dear,

While the sands o’ life shall run.

——Robert Burns A Red, Red Rose

上邪! 吾欲与君相知, 长命无绝衰。山无陵, 江水为竭, 冬雷震震, 夏雨雪, 天地合, 乃敢与君绝!

——汉乐府古辞《上邪》

Both of the two poems express the everlasting love between lovers, with the English one stating that I will love you still, my dear, while the Chinese version expressing love by saying that nothing will separate us even when the rocks melt and the seas go dry.

E. Cultural-ideological Traits

“Basic conceptual metaphors are part of the common conceptual apparatus shared by members of a culture. They are systematic in that there is a fixed correspondence between the structure of the domain to be understood (e.g., death) and the structure of the domain in terms of which we are understanding it (e.g., departure). We usually understand them in terms of common experiences. They are largely unconscious, though attention may be drawn to them. Their operation in cognition is almost automatic. And they are widely conventionalized in language, that is, there are a great number of words and idiomatic expressions in our language whose meanings depend upon those conceptual metaphors.”(George Lakoff and Mark Turner, 1989)

Cross-cultural variation is not a matter of availability or shortage of certain source domains but merely a matter of preference of certain conceptual metaphors. Given a shared generic-level metaphor, English and Chinese might have different source domains to conceptualize the same target domain--love, such as LOVE IS ANIMAL, in Chinese the specific source domain is *flying twin swallows* or *mandarin ducks*,; while in English one of the few animals which can be conceptualized as love is *dove* as in “They sat there billing and cooing till after midnight/It was all lovey—dovey”. The metaphors in Chinese imply that the lovers should be as harmonious as birds flying together, or fish and water, which live together harmoniously. However, the English metaphor lacks such implicature.

LOVE IS UNITY is the reflection of one cultural ideology of love: ideal love, which reflects more traditional ideas about love. Being the traditional conception of love, unity of lovers makes them a whole. In a source domain, there are two parts which form a whole and fit one another, and make up a unity that functions as a whole. Love is considered as the spiritual merger of two souls into one.

The two physical parts

two lovers

The physical joining of the parts

the union of the lovers

The physical unity

the spiritual mergers of the two souls

The physical fit between the parts

the harmonious relationship between the two lovers

On the other hand, LOVE IS ECONOMIC EXCHANGE is the reflection of another cultural ideology of love: typical love. Stearns (1994) notes that people nowadays talk more about the rewards the individual should get from a relationship, which is easily related to economic exchange or commodity.

According to Swidler (1988:119), the emerging cultural view of love emphasizes exchange. What is valuable about a relationship is ‘what one gets out of it’. The conceptual metaphor LOVE IS EXCHANGE is becoming prevalent in

American culture. We should admit that exchange metaphor has become a more and popular one in modern Chinese due to the influence of materialism of American culture. However, Chinese people prefer to take love as a pure and romantic emotion, which is not polluted by money or exchange. Hence, people wish lovers to be united as a whole and wish newly married couples “a harmonious union lasting a hundred years” or “bathe in a river of love forever”.

V. CONCLUSION

Conceptual metaphors are basic to human understanding, thinking, and reasoning. Conceptual metaphors shape the way we think and act, along with our communication. Love is a universal emotion shared by people from different countries. Universality and variation of conceptual metaphors concerning love are mainly because of cultural differences. Because most social, moral, emotional experience is metaphorically constituted, English learners should study and compare the metaphor system in both English and Chinese, which conceptualize the English speakers' experience and Chinese experience respectively.

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The Effect of "Bilingualism" on Iranian Pre-university Students' English Grammar Proficiency

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Abstract—This paper presents the results of a study of the effect of bilingualism on the grammar proficiency of three groups of Iranian pre-university female students: two composed of Azeri-Turkish bilinguals and Armenian bilinguals the other, of Persian monolinguals. The study attempted to ascertain whether bilinguals would do better than monolinguals on a Standard English grammar test and whether those bilinguals who have had school education and academic courses in their mother tongue i.e., for examples Armenians in this study would outperform the other bilingual group who do not have a bilingual program. To get the answers for these two questions, it was necessary to form three homogenous groups, so subjects were given the Nelson's pre-intermediate test to answer as pre test. After forming 3 homogenous groups, all in pre-intermediate level they were trained for two months and finally they were given a post-test (Nelson's intermediate grammar test). The results were then analyzed, and it was concluded that bilinguals definitely outperformed monolinguals on the English Grammar and Armenian's group did better than Azeri-Turkish bilinguals. Given these results, bilingual education programs beginning in early elementary school were recommended for Iran.

Index Terms—learning a foreign language, proficiency, foreign language bilingualism, a multilingual person, cognitive structure, grammar, communicative competence, bilingual education, bipart-bilingualism, formal grammar of a language

I. INTRODUCTION

Bilingualism can be observed everywhere in the world. Among the reasons fostering bilingualism are various kinds of migration, intermarriages and educational/vocational opportunities. It is said that "more than half of the world's population is bilingual and two thirds of the world's children grow up in a bilingual environment" (Crystal, 1997)

Today, we live in an era in which learning English as a language of information is not optional but absolutely mandatory because every educated person needs to know English for different purposes such as communication, getting information from current sources and handling educational projects without getting help from others. As we know, our country, Iran is a multilingual and multicultural country in which we have many bilingual people who learn English as their third language. But there might be some differences between these bilingual people in learning English and Persian monolinguals. (i.e. Farsi speakers) . Bilingualism is one of the controversial issues, and researchers have been conducted to find its effect on individual's linguistic development, educational attainment and intelligence, Peal and Lambert (1962) concluded that bilingual children had a greater cognitive flexibility and a more diversified set of mental abilities than monolingual children. They found that bilingual children significantly outperformed monolinguals on factors such as cognitive flexibility, concept formation, picture completion and figure manipulation.

"Bilingual acquisition" is one of the most important topics for researchers. There is a widespread popular impression that the children of bilingual parents are linguistically at risk. It is said that their brains will not be able to cope, and that they will grow up "semi lingual", confused or retarded. There is no justification for the pessimism, as is evident from the confident fluency displayed by millions of bilingual and trilingual children all over the world. By the time these children arrive in school, the vast majority has reached the same stage of linguistic development as their monolingual peers do. But the process of learning two languages is not exactly the same as the process of learning one. Three main stages of development have been noted by Crystal (1997):

1. The child builds up a list of words, as does a monolingual child, but the list contains words from both languages. It is rare for these words to be translated when sentences begin to contain two or more elements

2. Words from two languages are used within the same sentences. The amount of mixing rapidly declines. In one study, at the beginning of the third year, nearly 30% of sentences contained mixed vocabulary; by the end of the year, it was less than 5%.

Keshavarz (2000) concluded that only a small proportion of multiword utterances were mixed and the rest were language specific.

3. As vocabulary grows in each language, translation equivalents develop. But the acquisition of separate sets of grammatical rules takes longer. For a while a single system of rules seems to be used for both languages until finally the two grammars diverge.

When bilingual children reach this stage, they have become aware that the two languages are not the same; they typically use each language to each person who speaks it, and not to the other. But Keshavarz (2000) found that this ability is attained a lot earlier.

On the basis of these processes in learning two languages and considering the different views on bilingualism and its effect on educational attainment and intelligence, it can be said that more researches are needed to be done bilingualism.

In this study, we want to compare two bilingual groups (Armenians and Azeri-Turkish speakers) in Iran with monolinguals (Farsi speakers). In other words there will be a third way comparison among Armenians who have systematic educational courses in Armenia in their schools, Turkish people who lack that systematic education in the state schools and Persian monolinguals have systematic education in their first language but they do not know two languages as their first and second languages, and compare their achievement in the syntax of English language.

This study intends to identify the effective factors in learning a foreign language in bilingual societies to distinguish among positive factors from negative ones, and to apply the positive factors by making educational-cultural suggestions, hence removing the existing misunderstandings about bilingualism. And if there is any success in learning English due to bilingualism, to introduce it to authorities, syllabus designers, and those who are interested in the bicultural- bilingual studies.

For example if the findings of this study may be considered, evaluated and included in giving all the bilinguals in Iran (i.e., Kurdish people) with school education.

The experience of becoming bilingual in a subtractive context is common for young children in Iranian educational institutions. According to Makin, Campbell & Diaz (1995), in some situations, mother languages are gradually replaced by second or dominate languages. In our society, the dominant language in schools is Farsi. Although many minority bilingual children are successful in learning Farsi at school, their bilingualism is often limited because their first (home) language is not supported in the mainstream educational settings. As Cummins (1981) mentioned, children must attain a critical level of proficiency in their native language in order to avoid cognitive deficits associated with bilingualism, and that a critical level of proficiency in L2 must be reached if advantages in cognitive functioning are to develop. As Bialystok (2001) noted, children need a great amount of support from their communities, their families, and above all, support from their school, particularly when they are socio-economically disadvantaged.

And the other problem is that; there are contradictory views regarding the effects of bilingualism on individuals' linguistic development, educational attainment and intelligence. Here the aim is to investigate whether there is any difference among two bilingual groups and monolingual pre university learners in learning English language syntax as a second or third language, and if there is a difference, which group has a better achievement and control over target language syntax.

Key terms of the study: Learning a foreign language, Proficiency, Foreign language Bilingualism, A multilingual person, Cognitive structure, Grammar, Communicative Competence, Bilingual education, Bipart- Bilingualism, formal grammar of a language

Definitions of the main key terms

Key terms of this study: learning a foreign language, proficiency, foreign language, bilingualism, a multilingual person, cognitive structure and syntax.

Learning a foreign language: learning English in a very limited context in terms of facilities no contact with native speakers, no encouragement from the side of administration which plays the most important role in pushing the students toward learning English Ur (1996).

Proficiency: The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (1978) defines *Proficient* as "Performing in a given art, skill or branch of learning with expert correctness and facility" and further specifies that the term implies "a high degree of competence through training" (cited in Hadley 2003). Hadley (2003) defines proficiency as a somewhat idealized level of competence and performance attainable by experts through extensive instruction.

Foreign language: A foreign language is a language not spoken by the people of a certain place: for example, English is a foreign language in Iran, China, and Japan.... It is also a language not spoken in the native country of the person referred to, i.e. an English speaker living in Japan can say that Japanese is a foreign language to him or her. These two characterizations do not exhaust the possible definitions, however, and the label is occasionally applied in ways that are variously misleading or factually inaccurate. In the United States, for example, Spanish has been present longer than English, but since the majority of the population is native speakers of English, Spanish is often termed a foreign language. (Retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Foreign_language).

Bilingualism: Definition 1: The use of more than one language.

Definition 2: The ability to communicate naturally and fluently in more than one language in all areas of life. The term bilingual refers to individuals who can function in more than one language. The category of bilinguals is very broad - encompassing individuals who are sophisticated speakers, readers, and writers of two or more languages, as well as those who use a limited knowledge of a second language (L2) for purposes such as work or schooling, and who

may be literate in only one language or even completely illiterate (Cited in <http://www.geocities.com/bilingualfamilies/bilingualism.html>).

No single definition for individual bilingualism is broad enough to cover all instances of individuals who are called "bilingual". The range can be from native-like control of two or more languages to possessing minimal communicative skills in a second or foreign language. Also, the term 'bilingualism' has not been used in a consistent way among researchers and theoreticians. Most of the writers use a simple definition, such as follows: Bilingualism is the practice alternatively using two languages (Wienrich 1968); Native-like control of two languages (Bloomfield, 1993).

A multilingual person: in the broadest definition, is anyone who can communicate in more than one language, be it active (through speaking and writing) or passive (through listening and reading). More specifically, the terms bilingual and trilingual are used to describe comparable situations in which two or three languages are involved, respectively. A generic term for multilingual persons is polyglot Faingold (2004).

Cognitive structure: T. Saetti (2001) in her book speaks about cognitive scientist's explanation of a mental structure of learners. According to her; cognitive scientists have looked at three things to explain the mental structure of the learners. They have explored the "knowledge base", the store house of information, concepts, and associations that human beings build up as they develop from childhood to adulthood.

formal grammar of a language: A formal grammar (sometimes simply called a grammar) is a set of formation rules for strings in a formal language. The rules describe how to form strings from the language's alphabet that are valid according to the language's syntax. A grammar does not describe the meaning of the strings or what can be done with them in whatever context—only their form.

Formal language theory, the discipline which studies formal grammars and languages, is a branch of applied mathematics. Its applications are found in theoretical computer science, theoretical linguistics, formal semantics, mathematical logic, and other areas.

A formal grammar is a set of rules for rewriting strings, along with a "start symbol" from which rewriting must start. Therefore, a grammar is usually thought of as a language generator. However, it can also sometimes be used as the basis for a "recognizer"—a function in computing that determines whether a given string belongs to the language or is grammatically incorrect. To describe such recognizers, formal language theory uses separate formalisms, known as automata theory. One of the interesting results of automata theory is that it is not possible to design a recognizer for certain formal languages. Retrieved from: (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Formal_grammar)

Communicative Competence: is a linguistic term which refers to a learner's L2 ability. It not only refers to a learner's ability to apply and use grammatical rules, but also to form correct utterances, and know how to use these utterances appropriately. The term unifies the view of language learning implicit in the communicative approach to teaching (Brown, 2000). The term was coined by Dell Hymes in 1966, reacting against the perceived inadequacy of Noam Chomsky's (1965) distinction between *competence* and *performance*. Hymes' ideas about communicative competence were originally research-based rather than pedagogical. Specifically, to address Chomsky's abstract notion of competence, Hymes (1972; 1977; 1994) discussed the ethnographic-oriented exploration of communicative competence that included 'communicative form and function in integral relation to each other. His research-oriented ideas have undergone an epistemic transformation: from empirically oriented questions to an idealized pedagogic doctrine (Leung, 2005). Chomsky's view of linguistic competence, however, was not intended to inform pedagogy, but serve as part of developing a theory of the linguistic system itself, idealized as the abstract language knowledge of the monolingual adult native speaker, and distinct from how they happen to use and experience language. Hymes, rather than Chomsky, had developed a theory of education and learning.

Canale and Swain (1980) defined communicative competence in terms of four components:

1. grammatical competence: words and rules
2. sociolinguistic competence: appropriateness
3. discourse competence: cohesion and coherence
4. strategic competence: appropriate use of communication strategies

Canale and Swain's definition has become canonical in applied linguistics.

A more recent survey of communicative competence by Bachman (1990) divides it into the broad headings of "organizational competence," which includes both grammatical and discourse (or textual) competence, and "pragmatic competence," which includes both sociolinguistic and "illocutionary" competence. Through the influence of communicative language teaching, it has become widely accepted that communicative competence should be the goal of language education, central to good classroom practice (e.g. Savignon 1998). This is in contrast to previous views in which grammatical competence was commonly given top priority. The understanding of communicative competence has been influenced by the field of pragmatics and the philosophy of language concerning speech acts as described in large part by John Searle and J.L. Austin.

Bilingual education: According to definitions available on (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bilingual_education), bilingual education

involves teaching most subjects in school through two different languages - in the United States, instruction occurs in English and a minority language, such as Spanish or Chinese, with varying amounts of each language used in accordance with the program model. The following are several different types of bilingual education program models:

- **Transitional Bilingual Education.** This involves education in a child's native language, typically for no more than three years, to ensure that students do not fall behind in content areas like math, science, and social studies while they are learning English. The goal is to help students' transition to mainstream, English-only classrooms as quickly as possible, and the linguistic goal of such programs is English acquisition only. The overwhelming majority of bilingual programs in the U.S. are transitional.

- **Two-Way or Dual Language Bilingual Education.** These programs are designed to help native and non-native English speakers become bilingual and biliterate. Ideally, in such programs in a U.S. context, half of the students will be native speakers of English and half of the students will be native speakers of a minority language such as Spanish. Dual Language programs are less commonly permitted in US schools, although research indicates they are extremely effective in helping students learn English well and aiding the long-term performance of English learners in school.

- **The most effective form of Bilingual Education** is a type of Dual Language program that has students study in two different ways: 1) A variety of academic subjects are taught in the students' second language, with specially trained bilingual teachers who can understand students when they ask questions in their native language, but always answer in the second language; and 2) native language literacy classes improve students' writing and higher-order language skills in their first language. Research has shown that many of the skills learned in the native language can be transferred easily to the second language later. In this type of program, the native language classes do not teach academic subjects. The second-language classes are content-based, rather than grammar-based, so students learn all of their academic subjects in the second language.

- **Late-Exit or Developmental Bilingual Education.** Education is in the child's native language for an extended duration, accompanied by education in English. The goal is to develop bilingualism and biliteracy in both languages. This program is available to students whose native language is not English, and also less common than transitional programs.

Bipart- Bilingualism: Information about bipart- bilinguals is rare. This might be because the term itself and the definition behind contain facts that are not very common in the phenomenon of bilingualism.

Bipart- bilingualism appears in areas where more than one language is spoken, but where the minority population is monolinguals. In these ethnic minorities, the people still have contact with their neighbourhood. this type of situation is called bipart- bilingualism. Usually people from the Balkan countries are considered to be bipart-bilingual (Wikipedia2005)

II. THE STUDY

Building on literature outlined above, and the importance of raising awareness of bilingualism as an area which has potentials for serious misunderstandings to arise, the present study is aimed at answering the following research questions:

A. *Research Questions*

RQ1. Is there any advantage due to bilingualism in learning English Grammar in Iranian schools?

RQ2. Does school education in first language for bilinguals have any effect on learning English Grammar as their third language?

B. *Hypotheses*

The above mentioned research questions are the basis for the following null hypotheses:

H0. Bilingualism in Iranian schools does not bring any advantage in learning English Grammar

H0. Having academic education in first language doesn't contribute to learning English grammar in bilingual groups

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

In this study, the subjects consisted of pre university female students with three different languages; Azeri-Turkish, Armenian, and Farsi. The subjects were selected from state and private schools according to Nelson's grammar test. Based on this test, the learners who were in pre-intermediate level were selected for this study. The subjects were divided into three groups, based on their language background each consisting of 30 students. The age range was between 17-19. A grammar course was offered for two days a week, each session lasting for 1:30 minutes for eight weeks) in their schools. It is important to say that the course book and material for this purpose was provided by their teacher herself based on the Nelson test's requirements and the teacher would council in choosing the material and course book with the experts of this field.

Groups	No. of Subjects
A: Tabriz(Azeri-Turkish- Persian) Nafis Institute	30
B: Tabriz(Armenian-Persian Bina Institute	30
C: Tabriz(Persian) Nafis Institute	30
Total	90

B. Instrumentation

In this study there two tests were used; both were Nelson's grammar tests, one at the pre-intermediate level as the pretest for placement purposes and the other at the intermediate level as the post-test for achievement purposes. For validating the test, first of all the emphasis was on content validation approach. According to Bachman (1990) the content validation approach is squarely on the judgment of experts. In assessing the CVR(Content Validity Ratio), a panel of subject matter experts (English teachers here) was asked to examine each item on the test to determine whether the item is "essential", "useful" or "not necessary" to the operationalization of the construct. Across raters, the CVR for an item was determined as follows:

$$CVR = \frac{N_e - N/2}{N/2}$$

N_e is the number of subject matters rating the item as essential and N is the total number of subject matter experts making a rating.

$$CVR = \frac{25 - 30/2}{30/2} = \frac{25 - 15}{15} = 10/15 = 0.66$$

According to (Schmitt& Ostroff 1986) the CVR can range from +1 to -1 for a particular item. This formula was used for all of the test items (all 50 items) to determine its content validity and each time the gained CVR was 0.66. and according to (Schmitt& Ostroff 1986) the CVR of 0.66 for eavh item would be sufficient with 30 experts. So the test was used for measuring the mastery of grammatical structure.

C. Pretest

In order to find a homogenous, pre intermediate group, a valid language proficiency test (Nelson's pre-intermediate test) was administered to 120 pre-university students. There were two subtests in this test namely cloze and structure tests. A brief discussion of each subtest and the number of items is depicted in table 3.2.

TABLE 3.2
SUBTESTS OF PRETEST

subjects	No. of Items
Cloze test	14
Structure test	36
Total	50

Since these subtests were separately validated, their correction coefficients were calculated. The result revealed there was high correlation between these two subparts. The correlation coefficient between subtests was as follows:

$$\text{Cloze/ Structure} = .84$$

And as we know when a test is reliable it is valid too (Bachman 1990), therefore these parts were safely matched with each other.

D. Design

According to the literature evidence reviewed in chapter 2, much of the research conducted in the discipline of "the effect of bilingualism", takes a quasi-experimental design, because this study, made comparisons among the mean performances of groups that occur normally. These are groups into which subjects would not usually be randomly assigned because individuals naturally belong to one group or the other.

Procedure

To accomplish the purpose of the study, a step-by-step procedure was followed.

At first the aim of the researcher was to select a homogenous group of subjects. They were homogenous concerning their level of proficiency in English, nationality, sex and age .As for their proficiency, a homogenous group "increases the range of the true score variance, and tends to increase the reliability coefficient" (Brown, 1983). The more a group is homogenous the more consistent the results are. For this purpose, the proficiency test (Nelson's pre intermediate grammar test) was given to 150 students. The students' English proficiency was measured through the sum of the two sub-scores of cloze and structure test. The evaluation of the subjects' performance on this test was perfectly objective because it was a multiple-choice test and every item had only one correct answer.

After getting the subjects' scores 90 students whose score fell half standard deviation above and half standard deviation below the mean were selected as pre-intermediate students for the purpose of the present study.

Secondly, the treatment (teaching intermediate level English grammar) were given to them in a systematic way; two days a week, each session lasting for 1:30 minutes for eight weeks, in their schools.

The material for teaching them was prepared by the researcher, since the goal of the study was to measure syntactic knowledge of the learners; she scrutinized Nelson's intermediate level tests carefully for several weeks to provide a suitable material for her goal. After contemplating on test she extracted those structural categories which were included in intermediate level tests. She found out that for handling the cloze test which was the first part of the test, having command on English tenses, possessives, pronouns, parts of speech, conjunctions and conditional forms are required, then she dealt with part B of the test which was multiple choice grammar test, she found out that having knowledge in all those required structural categories for cloze test were needed here too, but there were some additional grammar focuses in part B, like adverbs, adverbs of frequency, prepositions, superlative adjectives and so on. Then she had to put those structural categories in a standard sequence in order to be sensible for students and to provide her students with a comprehensible input, here the requirements for a comprehensible input were satisfied because she didn't add anything to the content of the tests and the tests were just one level different of each other. (Nelson's pre intermediate test and intermediate test) .It seemed that Krashen's (i+1) theory was satisfied here. If we take the student's current level as I, the provided material was just one level above their current level and it was (i+1). Although there are many agreements and disagreements on Krashen's (i+1) but according to it we can claim that the material was comprehensive. Then she was to organize the categories/structures in a standard sequence, for a standard sequence she referred to experts of the field for example Interchange books of Jack. C. Richards. She found the categories/structures among Richards' intermediate level books, Intro & Interchange (1) and some of them in Interchange (2). She noticed the sequence of the structures and tried to put them in the same order as Richards had done. So she started with simple present tense and as followed them along the Intro, Interchange 1 and 2, she taught all of the structures. So it took her 16 sessions (24 hours totally) to teach all those structures to the learners. Fortunately none of the subjects were absent during the treatment in all three groups. And this would increase the reliability of the conclusions later. Because the researcher could make sure that all of them had equal exposure to the taught material, of course there can be other matters to question the equal exposure like teacher's mood, tiredness, the time of the class and etc. but here we take just the amount of class hours into account and take her teaching as granted since she has done her best to make balance among all three groups.

Finally, at the end of sessions, the subjects were given three free days to study for the final exam (post-test) and as we know three days is not a long time to bring about a gap for the subjects to forget whatever they had learned in class or practice more than what was needed for the exam, it seemed fair for those who wanted to review the structures. And this could help the reliability too. There were many other factors which she should consider for reliability of scores, first of all the time of exam, which was same for all 90 subjects. It was 9 a.m on Friday in Bina institute in Tabriz. The setting was completely reliable because there was not much noise from outside in the street to disturb the testees. The channel (the language in which the instructions was presented) was the subjects' second language "Farsi". Because all of them had school education in Farsi and as official language of Iran, it was guaranteed that all of the subjects are literate in Farsi and they can handle it easily. The allocated time for 50 grammar questions was 90 minutes. And those who finished the test earlier could leave the class.

It was worth to say that the post test with 50 items again consisting of the same sub tests of cloze and structure was completely similar to pre-test in style and framework but its content was different and it was a level ahead of the pre-test.

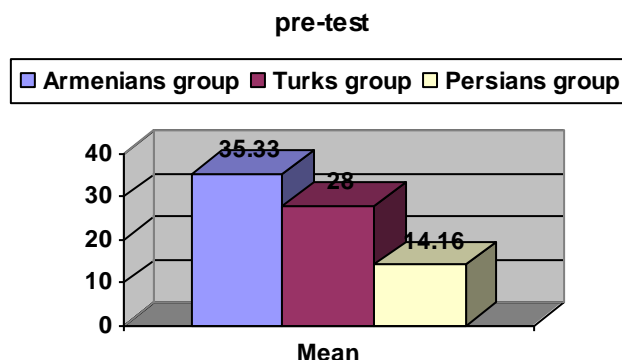
E. Results

In order to find an appropriate answer to these questions, three statistical analyses were carried out: three correlational procedures, one-way analyses of variance (One way ANOVA), and Post-hoc Scheffe. In the next section a detailed description of the above-mentioned statistical analyses

F. Descriptive Statistics

TABLE 4.1
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF STUDENTS' PRE-TEST SCORES BASED ON THREE GROUPS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Armenians' group	30	35.33	6.93
Turks' group	30	28	5.53
Persians' group	30	14.16	4.11



The F observed value for the comparison of the score in the pre test is 0.113 which at 2 and 87 degrees of freedom is much lower than the critical value of F, 3.11. Thus, it can be concluded that there is no significant differences among the means of the pre-test. The three groups are homogenous in terms of their language proficiency.

TABLE 4.2
RESULTS OF THE PRE-TEST FOR HOMOGENEITY OF THE SUBJECTS

Source	D.F	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F observed	F Probe
Between groups	2	890.022	445.011	1.534	.145
Within groups	87	2553.133	29.346		
Total	89	3443.156			

G. Deductive Statistics

In this section, the hypotheses of the research are tested and as we know we have two hypotheses in this research which are to be answered via the analysis of One-Way ANOVA. It must be noted that both hypotheses are going to be tested by this analysis.

Since we have three groups with pre-test and post-test in this research, so for data analysis, the post-test score of every subject was subtracted from her pre-test score and for obtaining the mean of scores ANOVA statistics was used.

TABLE 4.3
THE MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRE-TEST & POST-TEST IN THREE GROUPS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Armenians' group	30	12.46	7.43
Turks' group	30	8.36	7.15
Persians' group	30	2	2.25

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1657.756	2	828.878	22.289	.000
Within Groups	3235.400	87	37.189		
Total	4893.156	89			

$P < 0.05$

For inspecting the mean differences between pre-test and post-test, One way ANOVA analysis was used and calculated F is ($F = 22.28$, $df = 2, 87$), considering the obtained significant ($p = 0.000$) which is smaller than Error 0.05. So it can be concluded that the mean differences between pre-test and post-test of three groups is different from each other.

The comparison among the means of three groups in the test shows that the means of Armenians subjects (i.e. 12.46) are greater than Turkish subjects' means (i.e. 8.36) and the Persian group's means (2) are smaller than the others (Table 4.3).

As can be seen, the F observed value for the effect of the first language factor is 22.289 at 2 and 87 degrees of freedom, which is much greater than critical value of F, i.e. 3.06 thus, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference among the means of the three language groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis stating that there is no relationship between the subjects' first language and their performance on English syntax is rejected.

TABLE 4-5
POST-HOC TESTS
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Scheffe

(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Armenian	Turks	4.10000*	1.57456	.038	.1786	8.0214
	Persians	10.43333*	1.57456	.000	6.5119	14.3548
Turks	Armenian	-4.10000*	1.57456	.038	-8.0214	-.1786
	Persians	6.33333*	1.57456	.001	2.4119	10.2548
Persians	Armenian	-10.43333*	1.57456	.000	-14.3548	-6.5119
	Turks	-6.33333*	1.57456	.001	-10.2548	-2.4119

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

According to estimated significant in post hoc Scheffe test the following results have been obtained:

1) The mean differences between pre& post test is different between the Turkish and Armenian group ($p = 0.038$) and regarding the descriptive table (4.3) the mean differences in both tests (pre& post) in Armenians' group is larger than Turkish group.

2) The mean differences between pre& post test is different between Armenian and Persian group ($p=0.000$) and regarding the descriptive table (4.3) the mean differences in both tests (pre& post) in Armenians' group is larger than Persian group.

3) The mean differences between pre& post test is different between Turkish and Persian group ($p=0.001$) and regarding the descriptive table (4.3) the mean differences in both tests (pre& post) in Turkish group is larger than Persian group.

Now, considering the results of one-way variance analysis Scheffe test (ANOVA) we can examine two null hypotheses of this research.

1) H_0 = Bilingualism in Iranian schools does not bring any advantage in learning English syntax.

Regarding the results of the one way variance analysis test and post hoc Scheffe test, which showed that the mean differences among three experimental group(Armenian, Turkish and Persian) was ($p=0.000$, $p<0.005$) and also considering the descriptive table 4.3 in which the mean of Armenians was greater than Turkish and Persian And Turkish group's mean was larger than Persian group's mean, it can be concluded with 95% of insurance that the null H_0 is rejected and it can be claimed that bilingualism has advantage over monolingualism in Iranian students' syntax learning.

2) H_0 = Having academic education in first language in bilingual groups doesn't contribute to learning English grammar as their third language.

Regarding the results of the one way variance analysis test and post hoc Scheffe test, which showed that the mean differences among three experimental group (Armenian, Turkish and Persian) was ($p=0.000$, $p<0.005$) and also considering the descriptive table 4.3, the mean of Armenian group who have academic education in their first language was larger than their Turkish counterparts. It can be concluded that the null is rejected and it can be claimed that having academic education in first language contributes to learning English grammar for bilinguals.

H. Discussion

The study of bilingualism has not been exempted from the scholarly tendency to create dichotomies. Popular ones include coordinate vs. compound bilingualism (Weinreich 1953), early vs. late bilingualism (Lambert 1975) simultaneous vs. subtractive bilingualism (McLaughlin 1984, cited in Garcia & Baker1995), additive vs. subtractive bilingualism (Lambert1975, cited in Bialystock1991), and elite vs. folk bilingualism (Skutnabb-Kangas 1981). While such distinctions have served as a purpose in drawing attention to certain aspects of bilingualism, perhaps the most important lesson to be learned from these distinctions is that some of them refer to characteristics of individuals(the first three mentioned), and the others to characteristics of social group(the latter two). Linguists and psychologists have paid primary attention to the individual mental and cognitive properties of bilinguals; linguists and sociologists have primarily attempted primarily to characterize social groups in terms of the configuration of the language with respect to robustness, prestige, and other sociological and institutional features. (Krashen 1994) .And as we have discussed; Bilingualism is a feature not just of individuals, but also of societies. Societies in which two languages are used regularly, or in which more than one language has official status or a recurrent functions, can be called bilingual. For example, Canada is a bilingual country because French and English are both official languages, even though many citizens of Canada are monolingual English speakers. Saudi Arabia is also a bilingual society, as most Saudis speak both Arabic and English, though English has no official status. The nature of individual bilingualism is quite different in different communities--there are those where bilingualism is the norm for all educated citizens (as it is, for example, in relatively small language communities like Scandinavia and The Netherlands); those where bilingualism is the norm for

the minority language speakers but not those with the greatest political or economic power in the society (e.g., for Quechua speakers in Peru, for Turkish speakers in the Netherlands, for Spanish speakers in the United States); and those where bilingualism is the norm for the upper classes and better educated but not the relatively powerless (e.g., Colombia). It must be noted that the United States and other traditionally English-speaking countries observe a norm of monolingualism (low expectations for second/foreign language proficiency, low value placed on immigrant languages, universal emphasis on the need to speak English) that is possible only for speakers of a 'language of wider communication' living in an economy that is globally highly influential.

Our present understanding of the process of bilingual learning is far from complete, but our knowledge has increased greatly in the past thirty years. Indeed, our knowledge of bilingual learning can not be separated totally from important increments in our general understanding of language and learning.

The main objectives of this research were to answer to two following questions:

- 1) Is there any advantage due to bilingualism in learning English Syntax in Iranian schools?
- 2) Does school education in first language for bilinguals have any effect on learning English syntax as their third language?

The two null hypotheses in this research are as follows:

- 1) Bilingualism in Iranian schools does not bring any advantage in learning English syntax.
- 2) Having academic education in first language for bilinguals doesn't contribute to learning English syntax as their third language.

IV. CONCLUSION

In the data analysis section it was indicated that the subjects' bilingualism in both languages (Turkish and Armenian) has positive effect on third language acquisition. Thus, the null hypotheses which implied that 1) there is no significant relationship between bilingualism of Iranian pre-university EFL learners and their achievement in syntax, was rejected and 2) the second null hypothesis which had implied that having academic education in first language doesn't contribute to learning English syntax, was rejected too. The results of the tests and analyses also showed that Armenian students who had learned L1 and L2 academically and orally were more successful than Turkish subjects who learned their L1 orally.

The analyses also showed that Armenian-Persian bilingual students are more successful than Turkish-Persian subjects in vocabulary achievement in English. This is due to the fact that Armenian, Persian, and English belong to Indo-European languages, and there are some similarities in grammar and vocabulary between these three languages. Turkish belongs to Altaic family, which has no relation to English and Persian. Also the result of test implied that there is a relationship between the syntactic knowledge of two languages with the same language families and syntactic production of the third or second language as a foreign language. And also the results proved that having academic education in bilingual groups brings superiority to them in learning a third or a foreign language. In this study, Armenians as the group who possess academic education in their mother tongue did better than Turkish bilinguals who do not have school education in their mother tongue.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Suzette Haden (1974:187) argues that providing a bidialectal or bilingual education for the students, maintaining the language skills in the native speech medium while at the same time teaching the student's Standard English in order to use both modes. And according to her this is a compromised version of standard and non standard English in America mainly for two purposes first) to reach a justly education for all the minorities in America in order to improve learning English in her book (1974:187) she recommends:

"Let the student begin school in his or her native dialect or language and master the essential skills of reading and writing as well as the equally essential role skill of functioning in an academic environment in that native speech medium. Then at the level of perhaps the third or fourth grade, begin the shift to teaching in Standard English, while still allowing ample opportunity for the native speech medium to be used in enough areas of the curriculum to maintain competency"

Based on the findings of the present study the following implications apply to bilingual subjects and syntax achievement. It has been tried out to broaden the result to the areas of teaching, testing, and curriculum & syllabus design.

Implication for teaching

This research has theoretical and practical implications in the field of languages teaching. It provides a basis for improving the quality of practices in the teaching of first, second, and third languages' syntax.

This research is important in the design of the syntactic component of teaching programs as teachers can learn about their students' syntactic knowledge. The shortage of teachers who are qualified to teach in the first language of linguistic minority students and/or use specialized L1 techniques designed for working with second language learners has been a critical impediment to the implementation of appropriate education programs. So based upon the above mentioned statements, the review of the related literature, and the obtained results, we can conclude that if bilingualism

has positive impacts on learning syntax of a foreign language i.e English in Iran, we should provide the students of Iran with bilingual programs beginning in elementary schools. Providing this opportunity to all Iranian students will improve their chances for a better life and perhaps help to create a more equitable society.

Implications for curriculum and Syllabus Design

A number of international studies have shown that Iran is not alone in experiencing major changes in the linguistic and cultural diversification of its student body. Indeed, many nations of the industrialized world are facing similar issues and hold similar beliefs (including the belief that their country is alone in this 'problem' and has little to learn from the experiences of other nations). Greater comparative research on how bilingualism is promoted or thwarted through the institution of schooling can help overcome our parochialism in addressing the needs of our language minority students.

Bilingual subjects who have formal classes for both of the languages that they know (Armenian-Persian bilinguals) are more successful in syntactic achievement and we should have extra classes for our bilingual students. We should give more help to those that have no classes for both of the languages they know (Turkish students) and we should work more on their both language more easily. And in the case of monolinguals (Persian students) we can turn them into bilinguals by using bilingual education programs early in our schools like many other European countries who start English early in their childhood through bilingual education programs and produce bilinguals who do not inherit bilingualism from their parents but they can possess some of the advantages of bilingualism via bilingual education programs. Given these results, bilingual education programs beginning in early elementary school were recommended for Iran.

As it was proved bilingualism has positive effect on third language's syntactic achievement and we can start our primary schools with two languages from the first years of schooling (e.g. English and Persian).

Implications for Testing

Another implication of this test is related to test constructors and raters. Large bilingual test corpora are urgently needed in order to evaluate and compare methods in an objective manner. Existing test databases are monolingual, mainly in English. Large-scale test databases which are truly multilingual (i.e. with texts which are strict translations of each other) are needed. It will then be necessary to elaborate a set of queries in the various languages tested as well as to find the entire relevant document for each query.

Implication for Parents

We should encourage bilingual parents to maintain bilingualism at home and encourage their children to use both languages.

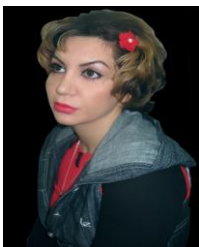
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On Frost's Colorful Imagery with Profound Implication

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Abstract—Robert Frost prefers employing common imagery to help express profound ideas. This leads to the deceptive simpleness of his poetry. The understanding of the imagery is crucial to the understanding of his poetry. Through the analysis of the colorful and ordinary imagery world, the poet's deep thoughts on nature and society is manifested: he finds nature both benevolent and violent; and facing the chaotic and disordered reality, poetry composition can provide a momentary escape for him and enable him to be courageous enough to treat the reality.

Index Terms—colorful imagery, profound implication, metaphor

I. INTRODUCTION

Image appears frequently in Frost's poems. In 1923, in answer to a question about his philosophy, Frost began by recalling that he had been baptized and brought up a Swedenborgian. He found persuasive Swedenborg's theory of a correspondence between natural facts and the world of spirit. It is in Emerson's *Nature* of 1836 that Frost finds the most compelling argument yet written by an American that natural facts are symbols of spiritual facts. Exploiting that conviction in poetry, Frost takes as his symbolic examples many of the same ingredients of the New England scene—farms, snowstorms, winds, birds, rivers—that Emerson has developed for his own purpose.

Walden (by Henry David Thoreau) influenced Frost a lot. In Frost's poems, there are particular images and events that echo *Walden*, including walking back in time, getting lost, and reaching a spring at least in imagination. Most important is the similarity to passages in *Walden* of Frost's insisting on metaphor as the key to the "a momentary stay against confusion".

He once declared: "Metaphor, parable, allegory, synecdoche—all the same thing" (Marcus, 1991, p.14). By "metaphor" he means all kinds of figures of speech, including imagery. Despite his insistence on the importance of diction, phrasing and intonation, Frost believes that metaphor is the essence of poetry, first because poets naturally think metaphorically, and second because they tend to convey their thoughts to others indirectly, by the suggestive power of metaphor.

In his *The Figure a Poem Makes*, he says:

The line will have the more charm for not being mechanically straight. We enjoy the straight crookedness of a good walking stick. Modern instruments of precision are being used to make things crooked as if by eye and hand in the old days (Frost, 1995).

"All thinking, except mathematical thinking, is metaphorical" (Potter, 1982, p.164), writes Frost in *Education by Poetry*. Men naturally think in terms of resemblances, some trivial and some significant. The correspondences between ideas and between objects, as Emerson has taught, are what began the process of poetic creation for Frost. All men perceive their world, and some become enthusiastic about the beauty or the strangeness of it. To tame this enthusiasm, the emotional response to experience, by filtering it through the intellect into metaphor is to subject it to artistic control. A poet must exercise his creative imagination to perceive and reveal to others correspondences with other phenomena which they may have noticed before but never thought of expressing. A reliance on suggestion, on the power of metaphor and symbolism, is natural to poets if not to all men as Frost sees it. It is certainly very like him to wish to remain reticent, to hide, as it were, behind his figurative language. He himself indicates this in "Revelation":

*We make ourselves a place apart
Behind light words that tease and flout,
But oh, the agitated heart
Till someone really find us out.* (Frost, 1995)

II. THE COLORFUL IMAGERY WORLD

Frost means all kinds of figures of speech by metaphor. The concrete images emerge as a strong base on which to build his metaphor. Plants is the most frequently occurred image. The orchis is Frost's favorite flower. It is the incarnation of beauty and holiness. The readers can see frequently in his poems this beautiful, attractive figure, such as in "A Late Walk" of *A Boy's Will*:

*I end not far from my going forth
By picking the faded blue
Of the last remaining aster flower*

To carry again to you (Frost, 1995)

The speaker's giving her a flower joins them in awareness of the season's sadness and affirms their bond, overcoming the sense of desolation. His carrying the flower to her "again" makes the personal gesture a lasting ritual between them.

The animal images presented in Frost's poems are also very rich. The animals in his poems seem to be interested in man, such as the butterfly that leads the speaker to the flowers in "The Tuft of Flowers":

*But as I said it, swift there passes me by
On noiseless wing a bewildered butterfly,
Seeking with memories grown dim o'er night
Some resting flower of yesterday's delight.* (Frost, 1995)

The swift action of the butterfly parallels the speaker's own yearnings; but the butterfly's disappointment in not finding a flower standing where it recently rested reinforces its desolation as well as his own.

The celestial world in Frost's poems is multi-colored and thought-provoking. In general, the celestial bodies represent beautiful things. Let's see the moon in "Moon Compass":

*And a masked moon had spread down compass rays
To a cone mountain in the midnight haze* (Frost, 1995)

The moon's measuring and contemplative embrace of a mountain is a parallel to a tender human embrace.

Frost's imagery of nature gives the readers a colorful picture. On the other hand, we can't ignore the imagery of familiar objects. They are arranged in such a way by Frost that they give the readers so deep an impression and enlightenment.

Readers might first think of "wall" while "Mending Wall" is mentioned. The wall always symbolizes limitation or barrier. In "Two Look at Two" a similar wall appears before the two lovers:

*When they were halted by a tumbled wall
With barbed-wire binding. They stood facing this,* (Frost, 1995)

The wall stands for barriers between the real and ideal and between humans and nature.

The images in Frost's poems are common objects and readers are familiar with them. They help make the poems appear to be simple and easy. The readers are apt to be misled by their superficial simplicity while reading the poems. Nevertheless, behind the rich world of Frost's images, conceals an unfathomable complexity. In order to study Frost's thoughts, we should enter deeply into his world of imagery.

III. SUGGESTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF FROST'S IMAGERY

A. *Expressing His Thoughts on Nature*

1. A beautiful and benevolent nature

Frost writes often about external nature—the mountains, lakes, woods, and fields, and the animals and plants found there. He appreciates nature and feels it is important. This point is expressed in many of his poem through images. From Frost's biography we know that he was a farmer-poet throughout his life; though in the latter half of his life, he did less farm work and more writing and lecturing. The original form of the table of contents for *A Boy's Will* includes a gloss for each of the poem. The gloss for "mowing" says "he takes up life simply with the small tasks" (Lathem, 1979, p.529). It is obvious that Frost likes this kind of life—farming while writing and lecturing. Through the description of mowing in field, the speaker tells us farm work is the only spiritual comfort. This experience is presented in past tense, but the scene seems to live in the speaker's mind as he remembers its quiet intensity in terms of overheard conversation between his scythe and its task—a conversation really his own. The scythe's whispering voice dominates the scene. He feels the sun's heat on his body and jokes that perhaps the scythe whispered in awe at the silence.

*It was no dream of the gift of idle hours,
Or easy gold at the hand of fay or elf:
Anything more than the truth would have seemed too weak*

...

*The fact is the sweetest dream that labor knows.
My long scythe whispered and left the hay to make.* (Frost, 1995)

With "It was no dream", the tone modulates into deep seriousness as he senses that anything expressed by such labor cannot be about easy achievements or mythical fancies. The next-to-last line, set off as a whole sentence, is one of Frost's knotty didactic statements. Fact stands in opposition to dream in the contrast between fancied rewards and real ones already mentioned, but fact as "sweetest dream" paradoxically gives fact the rich satisfactions of dream that hover over the whole entranced scene. Thus "fact" seems to be the act of labor itself, the specific harvest, and the reality confirmed by scene, labor and harvest.

In "A Passing Glimpse", the flowers briefly seen along a railroad track serve as the central symbol. The passing glimpse of the flowers is into a world of spiritual beauty, which can be seen only dimly in earthly things. The identity of the flowers can never quite be grasped. Had the speaker known just what he had seen, the vision might have been completed, though the flowers he names suggest this vision through their special qualities.

*I name all the flowers I am sure they weren't:
Not Fireweed loving where woods have burnt—*

*Not bluebells gracing a tunnel mouth—
Not lupine living on sand and drouth.
Was something brushed across my mind
That no one on earth will ever find?* (Frost, 1995)

Fireweed springs from destruction, bluebells grow where a tunnel plunges into obscurity, and the lupine flourishes where nourishment and water are scarce, all showing the miraculousness of spiritual creation. Here, the flowers are a token of spiritual beauty.

In “Moon Compasses”, the speaker steps out into a rain-drenched evening and sees the moon spread rays, toward the mountain below. He connects this scene with a tender human embrace. The moon’s power of measuring and the mountain’s exaltation connect the bestowal of worshipful status a female figure by a dominating male one. Frost’s use of four dots instead of a period at the end of the poem shows the poet’s reticence to complete his thoughts. But it is certain that Frost’s speaker relates the beautiful natural scene to the sweetest feeling in human life. Nature, in Frost’s mind, occupies an important position.

“In the Home Stretch” is a narrative with a minimal plot. A couple is in the home stretch of moving their household from a city dwelling to a farm. They are also in the home stretch of their whole lives—a desired goal. After moving into the house, the women looks through the window and sees the moon:

*It is by that? Or by the moon? The new moon!
What shoulder did I see her over? Neither.
A wire she is of silver; as new as we
To everything. Her light won’t last us long.
It’s something, though, to know we’re going to have her
Night after night and stronger every night
To see us through our first two weeks.* (Frost, 1995)

The new moon represents a fresh start for them. Though their future is unpredictable, the women’s determined love for the place as well as her faith in life suggests continued vitality.

2. A cruel and violent nature

Frost loves nature and turns to nature from human society. But he has a less optimistic view of nature. He conceives of the universe as a dichotomy between good and evil, and is much more conscious of the violence and evil at least potential in nature.

In “Once by the Pacific”, the stormy Pacific is a massive symbol of dangers to civilization—the end of the world, with the same God who began the creation by saying: “Let There Be Light” now sending down the “opposite and imperative” (Warren & Lewis, 1973, p.1871). The speaker, watching as if from a great distance, laconically issues a warning to humanity about terrible threats that seem more their concern than his.

*The clouds were low and hairy in the skies,
Like locks blown forward in the gleam of eyes.
You could not tell, and yet it looked as if
The shore was lucky in being backed by cliff,
The cliff in being backed by continent;
It looked as if a night of dark intent
Was coming, and not only a night, an age.
Someone had better be prepared for rage.
There would be more than ocean-water broken
Before God’s last Put Out the Light was spoken.* (Frost, 1995)

The image of clouds “like locks blown forward in the gleam of eyes” reflects the aggression in the waves’ stares. The sardonic understatement of the “something” the waves thought of doing implies unspeakably awful acts. Yet the speaker draws back as he says “You could not tell,” pretending uncertainty about his apprehension but possibly vindictive in his thoughts about punishments deserved by humanity. Some mock casualness continues with another “it looked as if,” this one broadening the threat from “a night” to “an age” and thus changing the merely geographical to the historical—that is, to the coming of another dark age.

Nature serves explicitly as a symbol for evil forces in the poem “Lodged”.

*They so smote the garden bed
That the flowers actually knelt,
And lay lodged—though not dead.* (Frost, 1995)

The speaker sees rain and wind as personified conspirators against the garden flowers. “Smote” suggests murderousness, and “the flowers actually knelt” suggests the speaker’s and the flowers’ surprise at an assault from usually kind forces. They “knelt/And lay lodged” to protect themselves from what seemed to be injustice, like innocents nursing their wounds.

The snow-white swamps add more terror and depression to the situation in “The Rabbit-Hunter.” Destruction remains a central theme in this poem. The speaker seems painfully both outside and inside the situation, empathizing with the hated hunter as well as the miserable rabbit.

Careless and still

*The hunter lurks
With gun depressed,
Facing alone
The older swamps
Ghastly snow-white.* (Frost, 1995)

The “gun depressed” describes both the slant of the hunter’s gun and speaker’s mood. The snow-white swamps, with the hunter’s existence, implies that the hunter shares some of the speaker’s mood.

In “Desert Places”, the speaker is awed by the swift descent of snow and night. He is disheartened by the smooth white cover over the last traces of vegetation, which presents a temptation to yield, for everything seems gathered in. He participates as he yields the snowy field to the woods, envies the animals in their protective burrows, and feels so absent that he does not even count as part of the scene.

*And lonely as it is that loneliness
Will be more lonely ere it will be less—
A blanker whiteness of benighted snow
With no expression, nothing to express.* (Frost, 1995)

The speaker generalizes about the scene: its loneliness will intensify long before any relief arrives. The snow cover will thicken and be covered by night, and will lack physical expression and anything to say.

B. Conveying “A Momentary Stay Against Confusion”

Frost says in *The Constant Symbol*: Every poem is an epitome of the great predicament; a figure of the will braving alien entanglements. He means “figure” in its primary sense of “outline” or “form” (Frost, 1995, p.787). In Frost’s poem, a figure is always a pattern of movement, a physical posture, or the man or animal performing the movement, assuming the posture. The poem does not stand for “the will braving alien entanglements”; it is “the imprint made on the world by this activity” (Wilcox, 1990, p.42). In *The Figure a Poem Makes* Frost declares: It runs a course of lucky events, and ends in a clarification of life—not necessarily a great clarification...but in a momentary stay against confusion (Frost, 1995, p.777). The movement, or the physical posture in Frost’s poetry is a repeated gesture of defiance, each of which is “a momentary stay against confusion”. The poems are full of such gesture of stay, transient but affirmative.

Frost presents man as a pilgrim seeking salvation and trying to demonstrate his moral worth in an imperfect world. Man’s sacred acts become the physical acts through which he resists the gravitational pull of sleep, decay and death. In Frost’s poems, often man is put in an environment in which nature objects produce various kinds of obstacles, difficulties and evil temptation.

The unknown woodsman in “The Wood-Pile” has left a human mark in that random wood where the view is “all in lines/Straight up and down of tall slim trees/Too much alike to mark or name a place by”. The expense of his energy into that swamp has left the organized and ordered wood pile as the symbol of man’s desire to make order out of the chaos of his environment. Having stacked his wood, he has turned on to fresh tasks, suggesting perhaps that the achievement of order is necessarily temporary.

All planting, building, tilling, chopping, line laying, all such acts are human acts of ordering chaos. One of the most famous of such acts in Frost’s poetry is mending wall. It becomes increasingly clear that the wall mending is not being condemned by the speaker. The speaker criticizes his neighbor for not asking why they mend walls. He himself initiates the mending process itself. The wall is mended as a gesture against that “Something there is that doesn’t love a wall./ That wants it down”. Together, the speaker and his neighbor are engaged in the fundamental human enterprise, making a momentary stand against the confusion that “spills the upper boulders in the sun”.

In “Brown’s Descent”, the old farmer maintains his fight against the physical world, grimly and determinedly. Though he slides all the way down the mountain on the icy snow, he never gives up his struggle against gravity; and he wins too. For finally, bowing to natural laws, he goes around the mountain and re-establishes himself on top. He slips down two miles of mountainside, undaunted by the hour, the climb or the fact that he has to go miles out of his way to get back up.

“Stopping By Woods On a Snowy Evening” provides another example. Here the speaker struggles against and overcomes the temptation to yield to the seductive woods. He turns a resolute back on the loveliness of dark woods and cold snow, with a certain weariness and yet with quiet determination, to face the needs and demands of life.

“Come In” is another version of the same story. The speaker begins his poem by telling us that at twilight, at the edge of the woods, he hears a thrush singing. He is almost deluded into believing that the thrush is inviting him to join her in her lamentation. But in the concluding stanza, he says:

*But no, I was out for stars:
I would not come in.* (Frost, 1995)

His original plan was an evening walk to look at the stars, not to enter the darkened woods to listen to thrush music. He resists the invitation of the bird to go into the greater dark and lament. He resists, too, in the poem’s final line, the temptation to read the world as inviting him to anything. He is out for stars, and he maintains his quest in the face of darkness and indifference.

“A Leaf Treader” describes an autumn day in New England. All day the speaker has tramped back and forth in his woodlot. The brightly colored autumn leaves are falling all about him, and he has trodden many a leaf into the mire underfoot. What has been worrying him comes out very clearly in the next stanza. The gist of the stanza is this: every autumn the speaker has

come to speculate on whether he will end up on top of the autumn leaves or the autumn leaves will end up on top of him. The leaves have been threatening. The speaker acknowledges that he is deeply involved in the processes of nature and is momentarily tempted to respond. But he pulls himself together and with a remarkable shift in tone concludes the stanza and the poem:

But it was no reason I had to do because they had to go.

Now up my knee, to keep on top of another year of snow. (Frost, 1995)

By treading the falling leaves underfoot, the speaker maintains his integrity by remaining upright. With the last line, he remembers that his triumph over the autumn leaves may be short-lived. Man's effort never stops, soon the snowflakes will be coming down, and the next pressing problem will be to stay on top of the snow rather than to allow the snow to provide a winter blanket for them.

In the long poem "Snow", the preacher Meserve is making his way home through an evening blizzard. He stops at the Cole's more than mid way to his home. He can remain overnight with his neighbors with no inconvenience to them or himself. The snow outside is seen as a monstrous and stupid creature that Meserve seems to want to challenge and then as something that when banked high against a house creates a special pleasure for those protected inside. He says that he likes the snow from inside more than from outside but that he doesn't want to be considered less than birds who can survive in such a storm and thrive on the morrow, so it is evident that he must face the worst challenge of the outside in order to enjoy the inside. Repose for him must be earned rather than just accepted. Thus, after half an hour or so, he proceeds into the storm, comparing it to a war that one would feel compelled to join. He must go and conquer the blizzard.

In "Gathering Leaves", the speaker tries to bring to an end a season of decline by struggling endlessly to fill bags of autumn leaves.

Spades take up leaves

No better than spoons,

And bags full of leaves

Are light as balloons. (Frost, 1995)

The concise similes show the difficulty of the task. This task seems out of proportion to his progress. Gathered leaves make mountains, yet these are small. But the task is joyous as well as frustrating in its playful physical engagements, and the elusive leaves become an amusing burden. The task seems endless and the gathered leaves slight and valueless. It is less the achievement than the gesture of ordering that interests Frost. What is important is the courage and not the accomplishment.

IV. CONCLUSION

Though Frost's poetry belongs to the Wordsworthian type which is plain, he lacks no creativity in his artistic technique. On the surface level, his poetry is simple and plain. Through the analysis of imagery in his poetry, a world of profound implication is manifested. The employment of imagery contributes a lot to the superficial simplicity of his poetry. But Frost hides behind a simple front, and he has proven more difficult of access in practical terms. He tries to put himself forward and remain in the background at the same time, and as a result produces poetry that is often quite deceptive for many readers. Without the study of the imagery in his poems, there is no comprehensive understanding of the poet.

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Pronominal Subject Clitics in Igbo

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Abstract—Pronominal elements in Igbo have been categorized into two types; the independent ones and the dependent, short, weak ones. Whereas the independent pronominal elements can occur both at the subject and object positions, the so-called dependent ones (which have also been analyzed as resumptive pronouns (Uwalaka, 1995)) are restricted to the subject position. This paper seeks to examine the dependent pronominal elements in Igbo and it has reanalyzed them as pronominal subject clitics (PSCs) based on certain syntactic evidence such as pronouns as second objects, pronouns in relation to prepositions, pronouns and enclitics, reflexive constructions (Nwaozuzu, 2007). Other syntactic evidence which strengthen our analysis of the dependent pronouns as PSCs are strict adjacency to a main or auxiliary verb, modification facts, topicalization, clefting, emphasis, coordination. Furthermore, based on evidence from Igbo causative construction, the PSCs have been analyzed as occupying *pro*-argument positions in the constructions where they appear. The paper therefore, concludes that the Igbo PSCs do not constitute prosodically autonomous lexical entities; rather they are phonologically deficient and dependent on adjacent lexical items. This study is based on a database including both actual and potential expressions, which standard Igbo speakers find to be in consistent with their language rules. The approach, which has been adopted for the analysis is purely descriptive. Igbo is the third largest indigenous language in Nigeria. It is spoken indigenously in the South-Eastern states of Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu and Imo.

Index Terms—clitic, pronominal, resumptive, causative, *pro*, affixal

I. INTRODUCTION

The two categorizations of pronominal elements in Igbo are the independent pronouns *mí(ú)* ‘I’, *gí* ‘you (sg)’, *únù* ‘you (pl)’, *yá* ‘s/he’ and *há* ‘they’ and the dependent, short, weak pronouns *í* ‘you (sg)’, *a/e* ‘some person(s)’ and *ó/ó* ‘s/he’¹ (Green and Igwe, 1963, Emenanjo, 1978). Thus, the dependent, short and weak pronouns in Igbo are three, each of the weak pronouns has two forms and each form is conditioned by the [ATR] feature of an immediately following verbal element. The pronominal elements in Igbo can also be categorized into person-number specific and non-person-number specific. With the exception of *a/e* ‘some person(s)’, which is non-person-number specific (it can refer to all persons), the other pronominal elements are person-number specific. In table I below, the PSCs are shown together with their substantive (independent) counterparts.

TABLE 1.
PERSONAL SUBJECT PRONOUNS AND PRONOMINAL SUBJECT CLITICS IN IGBO

Person/Number	Independent/Substantive Pronouns	Dependent/Non-substantive/PSCs
1 st singular	<i>m (ú)</i>	-
1 st plural	<i>ányị</i>	-
2 nd singular	<i>gí</i>	<i>í/i</i>
2 nd plural	<i>únù</i>	-
3 rd singular	<i>yá</i>	<i>o/o</i>
3 rd plural	<i>há</i>	-
non-definite	-	<i>a/e</i>

However, the categorial status of the dependent, short, weak forms, *í* ‘you (sg)’, *a/e* ‘some person(s)’ and *ó/ó* ‘s/he’ has not been given a uniform account. Whereas Green & Igwe (1963) and Emenanjo (1978) refer to them as independent pronouns, Uwalaka (1995) analyzes them as resumptive pronouns. However, given the restricted subject position of occurrence of the pronominal forms and their phonological conditioning by an adjacent verbal element, their status/analysis as either dependent pronouns or resumptive pronouns does not seem to reflect their characteristic behaviour.

In this paper, we shall argue, using some syntactic evidence; pronouns as second objects, pronouns in relation to prepositions, pronouns and enclitics, reflexive constructions (Nwaozuzu, 2007), strict adjacency to the main or auxiliary verb, modification, topicalization, clefting, emphasis and coordination that the dependent pronominal elements are pronominal subject clitics (PSCs). As PSCs, they can only occupy *pro*-argument positions in the constructions where they appear though superficially, they seem to appear at subject argument position. The Igbo PSC, as we shall argue has

the features of *pro* in pro-drop languages. We shall attempt to support our position by comparing the Igbo PSC with the *pro* in some pro-drop languages in addition to evidence from Igbo causative construction. The implication of the analysis being that Igbo should be among the group of pro-drop languages. We shall refer to the independent pronouns Igbo as substantive pronouns and they can be distinguished from the PSCs in many ways. Though our focus shall be on the pronominal clitics we shall nevertheless, in the course of our discussion, highlight on some of these distinctions.

II. THE IGBO DEPENDENT, SHORT AND WEAK PRONOUNS AS PSCs

Clitics serve as syntactic constituents but are phonologically bound to adjacent elements of lexical categorial status (Borer, 1986). Unlike lexical items clitics do not constitute prosodically autonomous elements and in this respect, they pattern like affixes. However, clitics unlike affixes enjoy a much larger freedom of attachment. They can attach to more than one grammatical category provided that grammatical category is located in the appropriate domain. Clitics straddle the boundaries between words and morphemes and between syntax and morphology. They raise interesting problems for any theory of the interface between syntax and morphology since they are syntactic words and also serve as word parts. Thus, their presence can be explained in terms of syntactic dependencies, though their position follows from morphological rules.

Clitics may be appended at the beginning (proclitic) or at the end (enclitic) of their host. Also a clitic can be a simple clitic or a special clitic (Zwicky, 1977). A simple clitic belongs to the same word class as some independent word of the language that can substitute for it in a syntactic position. A special clitic on the other hand is not a contracted form of self-standing word but a form that can only occur as bound morpheme appended to hosts in certain syntactic contexts (Katamba, 1993). A typical example of a simple clitic is the French singular definite article *le* or *la* which is realized as the proclitic *l'* before hosts which begin with vowels (e.g. *l'ami*) but as independent words before consonant-commencing hosts. The English genitive is an example of special clitic. Though it does not have a reduced form, it never occurs without being attached to a host.

The dependent, short and weak pronouns in Igbo fall within the category of special clitics since they appear in some special position, at the subject position before verbal elements as proclitics. In the sections that follow, we shall argue for their clitic statuses, as pronominal subject clitics (PSCs). Examples of the PSCs in constructions are given in (1)¹

- 1a) *ír ò r ò* *ńrí*
 2sg CL. eat-past food
 'You ate food'
- b) *ít à à* *ánụ*
 2sg CL. chew-past meat
 'You ate some meat'
- c) *ó r ò r ò* *ńrí*
 3sg CL eat-past food
 'S/he ate food.'
- d) *ót à à* *ánụ*
 3sg CL. chew-past meat
 'S/he ate some meat'
- e) *é r ò r ò* *ńrí*
 some person (s) CL. eat-past food
 'Some person(s) ate food'

III. SYNTACTIC EVIDENCE FOR THE CLITIC STATUS OF THE IGBO PSCs

Nwaozuzu (2007) extensively discusses one of the pronominal clitics, the so-called Igbo impersonal pronoun 'e/a' and calls it the 'unspecified' pronominal element. Using certain syntactic evidence which, we have outlined below (i-iv), she observes that 'e/a' syntactically behaves differently from the substantive personal pronouns in Igbo.

A. Pronouns as Second Objects of their Verb

It is only the substantive personal pronouns that can occur as direct or indirect objects of their verbs (2a) and never the 'e/a' (2b-c).

- 2(a) *Òbí nyèrè* *há yá* *(b) *Òbí nyèrè* *a yá*
 Obi give- rv past 3pl 3sg Obi give-rv past CL 3sg
 'Obi gave it to them'
- *(c) *Òbí nyèrè* *yá a*
 Obi give- rv past 3sg CL

¹ In the Igbo orthography, the pronominal clitics are written separately from a following verbal element

B. Pronouns in Relation to Prepositions

Substantive personal pronouns can be preceded by prepositions in Igbo (2d-e) unlike the 'e/a' (cf. 2f).

- 2(d) *Ọ́ bù nà gí/yá ká Àdà dàbèrè*
 It be prep. 2sg/3sg that Ada lean- on -rv benefactive
 'It is on you/him (her) that Ada relies /Ada relies on you/him'
- 2(e) *Ọ́ bù n' ányị/únù ká Àdà dàbèrè*
 It be prep. 1pl/2pl that Ada lean-on rv -benefactive
 'It is on us/you (pl) that Ada relies on/Ada relies on us/you (pl)'
- 2(f) * *Ọ́ bù n' a ká Àdà dàbèrè*
 It be prep. CL that Ada lean-on rv- benefactive

C. Pronouns and Enclitics (such as -kwa, -nụ)

While the substantive personal pronoun can co-occur with enclitics such as -kwa/nu 'certainly' (cf. 2 g (i)-(vi)), the 'e/a' cannot (cf. f (vii)).

- 2(g) (i) *mụ-kwá/nú* 'I certainly'
 (ii) *gí-kwá/nú* 'You (sg) certainly'
 (iii) *yá-kwá/nú* 'S/he Certainly'
 (iv) *ányị-kwá/nú* 'We Certainly'
 (v) *únù-kwánú* 'You (pl) certainly'
 (vi) *há-kwá/nú* 'They certainly'
 (vii) * *e/a-kwa/nu?*

D. Reflexive Constructions

Substantive personal pronouns occur in reflexive constructions (3a-c) unlike 'e/a' (3d-e).

- 3(a) *mú òwémí*
 'I myself'
- (b) *gí òwégí*
 'You yourself'
- (c) *yá òwéyá*
 'S/he herself/himself'
- (d) * *é òwé é*
 CL self CL
- (e) * *á òwé á*
 CL self CL

On the basis of the observed syntactic differences between the lexical/substantive personal pronouns and the 'e/a', the unspecified personal pronominal element, Nwaozuzu (2007) notes that "it is better to talk of the empty category NP subject verb form (cf. 1a-e) rather than...referring to an impersonal pronoun" (p.26.) She further notes that there is no reason to separate 'e/a' from its hosting verb, concluding that 'e/a', the so-called impersonal pronoun in Igbo "could be a remnant of the nominalizer or the nominal marker associated with the Niger Congo group of languages to which Igbo belongs".

It is important to note that the syntactic behaviour of the 'e/a' as observed in (1) is not different from those of the person specific ones (i/í, o/ọ). They are all subject to the above syntactic conditions as outlined by Nwaozuzu (2007) and even much more, as we shall see in the following section, hence our reanalysis of them as clitics

IV. STRENGTHENING EVIDENCE FOR THE CLITIC STATUS OF THE IGBO PSCS

In this section, we shall examine the following features of the pronominal elements, which provide strengthening evidence of their clitic status. These features are outlined below.

A. Adjacent to Main /Auxiliary Verb

The PSCs in Igbo must be adjacent to main or auxiliary verbs unlike substantive pronouns and lexical NP subjects, which pattern differently (4a &b). Jaeggli (1981) has made this same observation about pronominal subject clitics in French.

- 4 (a) *Ọ́ (* náání) gàrà áhíá*
 3sg.CL only go. rv past market
- (b) *Ézè/ Únú (náání) gàrà áhíá*
 Eze 2pl only go-rv market

‘Only Eze/ you went to market’

B. Modification

The PSCs always occur on their own without modification while the substantive pronouns can be modified by numerals (5a & b).

- 5(a) \dot{O} *àtó kà há chọ̀rò
3sg. CL NUM Foc. 3pl want-rv self benefactive
- (b) Yá (àtó) kà há chọ̀rò
3sg. NUM Foc. 3pl want-rv self benefactive
‘It is the three (of them) that they want’

C. Topicalization

Unlike both lexical NPs and substantive pronouns, pronominal clitics cannot be topicalized. This accounts for why (6a) is ungrammatical.

- 6 (a) * \dot{O} , kà Àdà nyèrè –t égō
3sg.CL Foc. Ada give-rv past money
- (b) Yá/ Há/ Únù/Ézè, kà Àdà nyèrè –t égō
3sg. 3pl 2pl Eze Foc. Ada give-rv past money
‘It is him/they/you (pl)/Eze that Ada gave money’

D. Clefting

Whereas substantive pronouns and lexical NPs can be clefted, the pronominal clitics cannot as the following examples show.

- 7 (a) * \dot{O} bù ó kà Àdà nyèrè –t égō
it be 3sg.CL Foc Ada give –rv past money
- (b) \dot{O} bù yá/há/únù/ Ézè kà Àdà nyèrè –t égō
it be 3sg. 3pl 2pl Eze Foc. Ada give-rv past money
‘It was him/ them/ you (pl)/Eze that Ada gave (some) money’

E. Emphasis

Whenever there is emphasis on the subject, a substantive pronoun is used rather than a PSC (8a & b).

- 8 (a) * \dot{O} bǎá !
3sg.CL come
- (b) Yá/Únù/Há bǎá !
3sg. 2pl 3pl come
‘Let him/you/you (pl)/them come’

F. Coordination

A PSC cannot be conjoined with a substantive pronoun or lexical NP. This is unlike the substantive pronouns and lexical NPs that can be conjoined with each other (9a, b & c).

- 9 (a) * \dot{O} nà Àdà bǎàrà
3sg.CL and Ada come –rv past
- (b) Yá nà únù bǎàrà
3sg. and 2pl come –rv past
‘S/he and you (pl) came’
- (c) Yá/há nà Àdà/ǵí bǎàrà
S/he and Ada you come –rv past
‘S/he and Ada/you came’

In addition to the above syntactic evidence, there is also a phonological one; the [ATR] vowel quality of pronominal clitics is conditioned by the [ATR] vowel quality of a following verbal element. This can be observed in all the examples cited.

It is however worthy of note that what we are calling PSCs have also been referred to as resumptive pronouns by Uwalaka (1995). According to her, the resumptive pronouns are fully grammaticalized in Igbo occurring in interrogatives (10), left-dislocated structures (11), purpose clauses (12) and complement clauses (13).

- (10) ́Ngózi í ò g à à áíá?
́Ngózi í 3sg go-past market
‘Did Ngozi go to market?’
- (11) Òb í óì bù nwòkè

- Òb í 3sg be man
 ‘(As for) Obi_i he is a man’
- (12) ́Ngó z í b ́à à [CP k à [IP ó h ́ú h á]]
 ́Ngó z í come-past that 3sg see them
 ‘Ngozi came so that she will see them’
- (13) ́É z é m à [CP n à [́ ò g à à ́ ù ó n y é í í]]
 ́É z é know that 3sg will pr.be person head
 ‘Ézé_i knows that he_i will be a leader’

It has however been noted that what Uwalaka refers to as resumptive pronouns are indeed pronominal clitics “which are obliged to occupy the subject position of the constructions where they occur though, they are phonologically bound to a following a verb” (Anyanwu, 2005, p.161). Unlike a pronominal clitic, a resumptive pronoun is an overt (substantive) pronoun, which can occur in certain types of relative clauses and even in the non-dislocated part of a left dislocation (Trask, 1993). Resumptive pronouns occur in both English (*she* in 14a, *her* in 14b) (Trask, 1993) and Igbo (*ya* in 15a & b) as the following examples show.

- 14 (a) That is the woman_i [that I did not know if *she_i* was coming] (Relative clause)
 (b) Lisa_i, I really like *her_i* (Left dislocation)
- 15 (a) Nwókè áhù [ónyè anyi kwùrù nà yá_i gà-àbia] bù ònà m (Relative clause)
 man that who we say-rv past that 3sg. will pr.come be father my
 ‘That man_i who we said (that he_i) would come is my father’
- (b) ́É z è , À d á h ́ù r ́ù y á _i (Left dislocation)
 Eze, Ada see-rv past 3sg.
 Eze_i, Ada saw him_i

The fact that the pronominal elements in (14-15) can be conjoined with substantive NPs is enough evidence that they themselves are also substantive pronouns. This is shown below (in 16–17).

- 16 (a) That is the woman_i [that I did not know if *she_i* and *John* were coming] (Relative clause)
 (b) Lisa_i, I really like *her and Mary* (Left dislocation)
- 17 (a) Nwókè áhù [ónyè ànyí kwùrù nà yá nà À d á g à -à b ́í á] bù ònà m (Relative clause)
 man that who we say-rv past that 3sg. and Ada will pr. come is father my
 ‘That man_i who we said that he_i and Ada would come is my father’
- (b) ́É z è , À d á h ́ù r ́ù y á nà ́ N g ó z í (Left dislocation)
 Eze, Ada see-rv 3sg. and Ngozi
 Eze, Ada saw him and Ngozi

Before going into the issue of the argument or pro-argument status of the Igbo PSCs, let us further examine some of their syntactic features which provide strengthening evidence of their clitic status.

V. PSCs: SOME CROSS-LINGUISTIC INSIGHT

Ndimele and Kari (1997) have also discussed PSCs in Degema, comparing the Degema subject clitics with verb agreement markers in *pro*-drop languages such as Italian and Spanish. They argue based on the role the subject clitics play (just like the verb agreement markers in Italian and Spanish) that Degema is also a *pro*-drop language. The Igbo PSCs functionally pattern like the Degema PSCs and also like the verb agreement markers in Italian and Spanish; hence it can be argued that Igbo is also a *pro* drop language. For the purposes of illustration, let us compare the Igbo constructions (18a-f) which contain both substantive subjects (lexical and pronominal) and PSCs with Italian (19), English (20) and Degema (21). The data are adapted taken from Ndimele and Kari (1997).

Igbo

- 18 (a) ́É z è n à -às ́ F r e n c h (b) Y á ² n à -às ́ F r e n c h
 Eze aux pr.speak French S/he aux pr. speak French
 ‘Eze speaks French’ ‘S/he speaks French’
- (c) ́ Ó n à -às ́ F r e n c h (d) *Y á ́ ó n à -às ́ F r e n c h
 3sg CL aux pr. Speak French S/he 3sg CL aux pr. speaks
 ‘S/he speaks French’
- (e) * ́ É z è ́ ó n à -às ́ F r e n c h (f) ́ É z è , [́ ó n à -às ́ F r e n c h]
 Eze 3sg Cl aux pr. speak French Eze 3sg CL aux pr. speak French
 ‘Eze, he speaks French’
- (g) Y á , [́ ó n à -às ́ F r e n c h]

² The occurrence of *yá* in subject position as in (4b) is a variation that occurs in certain dialects. However, a coordination of *yá* with a substantive subject (e.g. *Yá nà Ádà nà-àsú French*) seems to be an option that cuts across most dialects.

second and third persons singular as well as the non-specific personal pronouns that have subject clitics which, incidentally, cannot co-occur with their respective personal pronouns but can only occur alone. This points to the fact that Igbo is a *pro*-drop language as has been reported by Eze (1995).

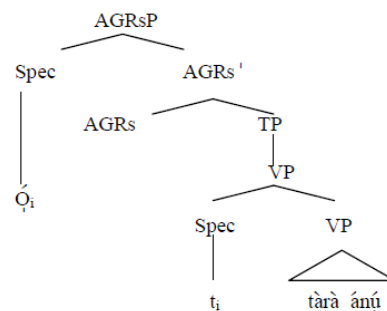
Ndimele and Kari (1997) have made a categorization of language typology based on the *pro*-drop parameter as shown in the table below. They note that both Japanese and Chinese exemplify their category C with the characteristic features listed. To this group C we add Igbo.

Category	Characteristics	Examples of Language
A	Languages with rich system of verb agreement where licensing of <i>pro</i> is possible	Romance languages (e.g. Italian and Spanish)
B	Languages with rich system of subject clitic agreement where licensing of <i>pro</i> is also possible	Degema
C	Languages with underived inflectional forms exhibiting neither rich system of verb agreement nor rich system of subject clitic agreement and yet the licensing of <i>pro</i> is possible	Japanese, Chinese + Igbo
D	Languages exhibiting erratic or partial verb agreement where <i>pro</i> licensing is not possible	English ³

VI. THE IGBO PSCs: *PRO*/ARGUMENT STATUS

Given the morphosyntactic status of the PSCs in Igbo and also the fact that it is restricted to the subject position of a sentence, it is important to investigate whether they can function syntactically as independent arguments or just as affixal agreement markers. Thus, the PSCs can be analyzed in two ways; they can be analyzed just like the English subject pronouns in which case, the PSCs are arguments in the spec of AGRsP as in (22).

(22)

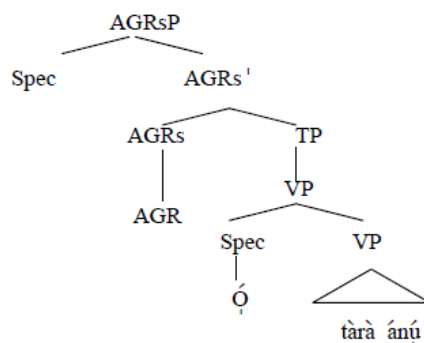


Based on (22), which represents the substantive argument analysis of PSCs, it can be argued that the PSC is generated at Spec, VP from where it raises to Spec, AGRsP for nominative case marking. Also, given the morphosyntactic status of the pronominal clitics, the argument analysis implies that the subject pronominal clitic having undergone a Spec-to-Spec move operation is at some point, lowered⁴ to AGRs by a syntactic operation or by a purely phonological process of cliticization. On the other hand, it can be argued that the PSC cannot occupy Spec, AGRsP argument position but just a mere functional element generated at AGRs which, identifies a null pronominal in subject position (cf. Rizzi, 1986). This type of analysis, the *pro* analysis as in (23), entails that the PSC is base generated at AGRs while its Spec, AGRsP is occupied by *pro*. Thus, the PSC is a spell- out of subject agreement features (cf. Campbell 1998).

(23)

³ In English, the verb agreement suffix *-s* is synchronically limited to the third person singular and as such seems to be at the verge of extinction. In Igbo, it can also be argued that the PSCs, which mark the second and third singular as well as the non-personal pronouns, are vestiges of a language, which once had a rich and robust pronominal clitic system

⁴ It is important to note that in the Principles and Parameters approach adopted here feature lowering is not a permissible operation (Radford 1997).



In line with the *pro* argument analysis, an Igbo sentence cannot have a PSC if the subject is already a substantive lexical NP. This prediction is true (24).

(24) *Ézè ò tàrà ánú

Eze 3sg.CL chew- rv past meat

Even in certain structures (e.g. interrogative (10), topicalized (18f)) where there is a juxtaposition of a substantive lexical NP and a PSC, the PSC surfaces as an overt trace of the substantive NP, which is moved and adjoined outside the minimal AGRsP.

The following section will further examine the morphosyntactic and morphophonological aspects as two independent dimensions. That is, it is either that the PSCs have substantive argument status and thus, are prohibited from co-occurring with overt lexical arguments or the PSCs are agreement markers (*pros*) and thus, do not count as substantive syntactic arguments but count as semantic arguments. We shall compare these two analyses and this we hope to do by examining the occurrence of the PSCs in Igbo syntactic causatives.

VII. IGBO PRONOMINAL SUBJECT CLITICS AND SYNTACTIC CAUSATIVES

'Causative' is term used to refer to a valence (NP) increasing mechanism. A causative construction is normally derived from a basic or non-causative construction. Though the basic and causative constructions each express some situation, it is only the causative one that has an additional different subject. It is the referent of this additional subject that brings about (or prevents) the state of affair described by the basic/non-causative construction (Comrie, 1985, Anyanwu, 2005). A causative verb is used in expressing a causative construction and such a causative verb may be a transitive verb (formed from an intransitive verb) or as found in some languages, a ditransitive verb (formed from a transitive verb). Cross-linguistically, three types of causatives have been identified. These are the syntactic (analytical) (consisting of a causative verb and complement clause), morphological (comprising of a causative verbal element and some other verbal element) and lexical (consisting of just an inherent causative verb). Causative constructions are exemplified by the following English and Igbo examples (Anyanwu, 2005)⁵.

English

(25) Mary **makes** Peter smile a lot

(Syntactic Causative)

(26) Mary **enslaved** her husband

(Morphological Causative)

(27) Mary **broke** the plates

(Lexical Causative)

Igbo

(28) Ézè **mèrè** Àdá èríé jĩ

(Syntactic Causative)

Eze cause/make-rv past Ada E-pr.eat E-suff. yam

'Eze caused/made Ada eat yam'

(29) Ézè **médàrà** éféré áhù

(Morphological Causative)

Eze cause/make fall-rv past plate that

'Eze caused that plate to fall'

(30) Ézè **kùwàrà** éféré áhù

(Lexical Causative)

Eze hit-break plate that

'Eze broke that plate'

From the English and Igbo examples, it is obvious that a causative construction (whether syntactically, morphologically or lexically based) has one unique feature; the feature that an NP is specified as being responsible for causing or (not causing) a given state of affairs. In the syntactic causative, the causative verb **mé** 'cause/make' takes an AGRsP complement. This is true regardless of whether the subject of the complement clause is a substantive NP, an accusative pronoun or a PSC. Thus, the causative construction in Igbo involves a reduced clause complement to the causative verb **mé** as in (28). The reduced clause complement is obviously an AGRsP for a number of reasons. First,

⁵. Igbo causatives have been discussed extensively in Anyanwu (2005).

unlike a full clause complement where an overt COMP (lementizer) is normally present (31), no such COMP is required in the causative construction (32) and this shows that the COMP is absent; the clause complement is not a complementizer projection.

- (31) *Ézè kwùrù (nà) ó rìrì jĩ*
Eze say-past that 3sg.CL eat -rv past yam

- (32) *Ézè mètè (*nà) ó ríé jĩ*
Eze cause/make that 3sg.CL eat E-suff. yam

Secondly, the embedded clause complement can be negated independently and this suggests the presence of the NEG (ative) (P) hrase within it (33).

- (33) *Ézè mètè ò ríghĩ jĩ*
Eze cause/make-past 3sg.CL eat NEG suff. Yam
'Eze caused/made him/her not to eat yam'

Also the subject (causee) of the complement clause can be a pronominal clitic or an accusative pronoun as in (34) and (35) respectively.

- (34) *Ézè mètè ọ táá áńũ*
Eze cause/make-past 3sg.CL chew-suff. meat
'Eze caused/made him/her eat meat'

- (35) *Ézè mètè yá àtáá áńũ*
Eze cause/make-past pr. chew meat
Eze caused/made him/her eat meat

It can also obviously be observed that there is no semantic difference between (34) and (35) and it is therefore important to know whether or not (34) and (35) have different structures. On the surface, both (34) and (35) seem to have essentially the same structure as shown below in (36) and (37) respectively where the causative verb in each case takes a clause complement, which can be negated independently. Note that independent negation is possible only within AGRsP (Campbell, 1989, 1995). Whereas the causee in (34) is a pronominal clitic, in (35), it is a substantive pronoun, an exceptionally case-marked subject (not a matrix object). While *yá* in (35) can be substituted with a lexical NP (e.g. *Àdà*) without any loss of grammaticality (36), this is not so with *ọ* in (34) as shown in (37).

- (36) *Ézè mètè Àdà àtáá áńũ*
Eze cause/make-rv past Ada pr. chew E-suff. meat
'Eze caused/made Ada eat (some) meat'

- (37) * *Ézè mètè Àdà táá áńũ*
Eze cause/make-rv past Ada chew E-suff. meat

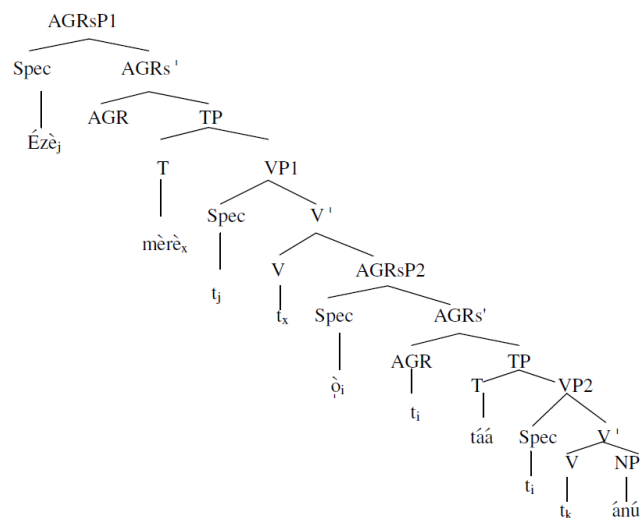
From (34) and (35), it can be observed that other than the morphological shape of the causee (*yá* or *ọ*) and perhaps case, there seems to be no reason to argue for a structural difference between the two constructions. It is however, very crucial to account for why the two different pronominal forms that are formally distinct but semantically identical occur in identical environments. Being able to account for the alternation is central to choosing the substantive argument or *pro* argument analysis of Igbo pronominal clitics. However, the difference in morphological shape between the two pronominal elements as either a pronominal clitic *ọ* in (34) or a substantive pronoun *yá* in (35) cannot be attributed to a difference in structural relations between them and the subjects of their matrix causative verbs.

Based on Condition B of Chomsky's (1981) binding theory, a pronominal element (overt pronoun or *pro*) must not co-refer with a constituent within the smallest clause that contains the pronominal element and its governor (its binding domain). In both (34) and (35), the pronominal causee *ọ* or *yá* cannot co-refer to *Ézè*, the matrix subject. This is an indication that the binding domain of the pronominal causee in the embedded Spec, AGRsP is the matrix AGRsP (clause) in both cases and the governor in each case is the matrix causative verb, *mètè*. Thus, facts from binding have shown that in (34) and (35) the matrix causative verb governs each causee irrespective of its morphological shape. These binding facts as they relate to (34) and (35) differ from the one in (38) for instance, where a substantive pronoun *yá* is governed within the embedded AGRsP which of course is its binding domain. Since *Ézè* in (38) is outside the binding domain of *yá*, there is therefore no violation of Condition B of the binding theory if *yá* and *Ézè* co-refer.

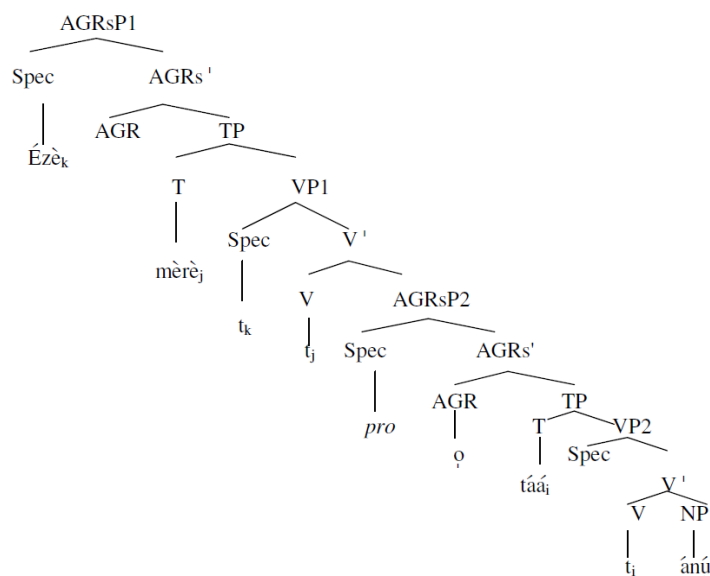
- (38) *Ézèì ché nà yáì gá-àb́j́á*
Eze thinks that he will come
'Eze thinks that he will come'

Obviously, the difference in the morphological spell-out of the causee in (34) and (35) correlates with a difference in the structural position occupied by each of them. Thus, accounting for this alternation basically entails positing distinct structures for (34) and (35). For (34), there are two possibilities; one in which the pronominal clitic is in Spec, AGRsP and is therefore, assigned a nominative case (assuming that the substantive argument analysis is correct (39)) or one in which there is a *pro* in Spec, AGRsP which has the PSC as its spell-out in AGR (if the *pro* argument analysis is correct (40)).

(39)



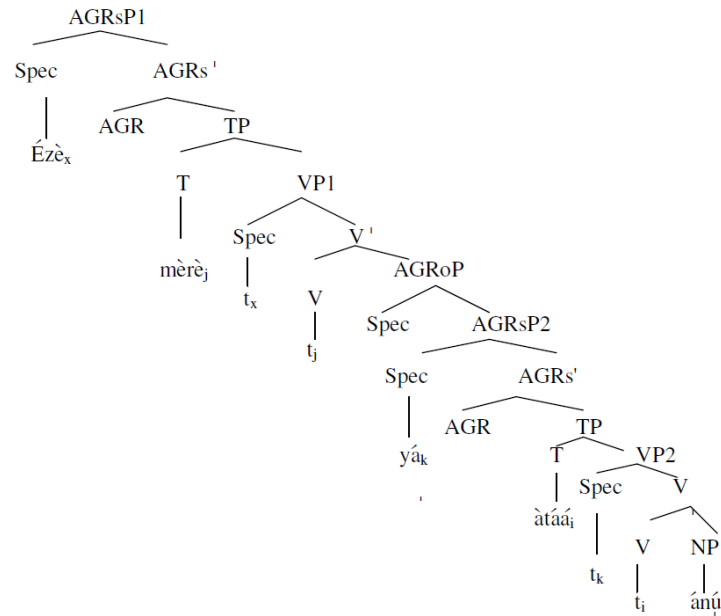
(40)



A substantive argument analysis for the PSCs in Igbo such as (39) would be ill motivated. Given their morphosyntactic status as clitics, the PSCs (as has been argued for Degema PSCs (Ndimele and Kari, 1997)) are not generated at Spec, VP (a position for substantive NPs that can be conjoined, topicalized, etc.) as shown in (39) but at the head of AGRs', AGR. An analysis such as (39) assumes that the PSC raises from the embedded Spec, VP to the embedded Spec, AGRsP via AGR, and a case of Spec-Head-Spec movement. A *pro* argument analysis such as (40) is well motivated. The *pro* in the embedded Spec, AGRsP is identified by the PSC generated at AGR. This shows that the AGR must spell-out the features of Spec, AGRsP if Spec, AGRsP is *pro*. This is expected given the fact that such a configuration is where subject agreement applies. The verb of the embedded VP obligatorily raises⁶ to T (ense) for T finite features and this ensures that the V (erb) occurs to the right of the PSC. The association between the PSC and the V ensures that the PSC receives nominative case properties associated with the *pro* in Spec, AGRsP in fulfillment of Extended Projection Principle (EPP) (Chomsky 1982) and theta-marking condition of subjects (Burzio, 1981). For (35), its tree structure representation is (41). Unlike in the *pro* argument analysis of (40) the causee **yá** in (41) is a substantive pronoun and indeed subject to the syntactic processes of substantive arguments. Whereas the causee **yá** raises overtly from Spec, VP2 to Spec, AGRsP and covertly to Spec, AGRoP for Exceptional Case Marking (ECM), no such raising affects the PSC in (40).

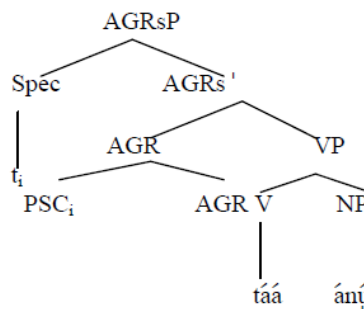
(41)

⁶ Again, the Igbo orthographic convention/representation, which separates the PSC and a following verbal element, does not reflect the phonetic/phonological affinity between the two



Further evidence against a substantive argument status of the PSC in Igbo comes from a Universal Grammar feature which requires an affixal element and its host to form a syntactic unit. Thus, PSC and its host form a syntactic constituent. If the PSC is however analyzed an substantive argument, it then follows that it would have to adjoin to AGR thus resulting in a structure such as (42)⁷

(42)



As can be seen in (42), the moved PSC does not c-command⁸ its trace since the first category dominating the PSC, AGRs' does not dominate Spec, AGRsP. Therefore, the trace in Spec, AGRsP is not antecedent governed, a violation of the Empty Category Principle (ECP) (Chomsky, 1986) which again, makes the substantive argument analysis for *pro* untenable.

VIII. CONCLUSION

In this paper we have been discussing PSCs in Igbo. Using certain syntactic evidence (strict adjacency to the main or auxiliary verb, modification, topicalization, coordination, etc.), we have shown that the PSCs in Igbo are not substantive pronouns. With respect to whether the PSC can occupy a *pro* argument or a substantive argument position, we have argued, appealing to evidence from causative constructions that the *pro* argument analysis for the PSCs in Igbo is superior to the substantive argument analysis.

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⁷ We have ignored some other projections, illustrating only with the ones relevant for the purpose.

⁸ We assume the definition of c-command where a category X c-commands another Y only if the first category dominating X also dominates Y.

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Praise and Censure to Female, Beauty or Evil—Recognition of Noble Concubine Yang, Classical Beauty of China

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Abstract—For years Chinese literature output has very big deficit, especially for Euramerican deficit is about 100:1 above. In recent years many translators devoted to the introduction of Chinese literature to the world. The National Social Science Fund conducted long-term foreign translation project of Chinese academic programs. This article tries to restore a real female image of Chinese classical beauty in the literary works through recognition of noble concubine Yang, and is devoted to let the world re-know this literary image. Noble concubine Yang Yuhuan was the first of the four classical beauties in ancient China. Another three were Xi Shi, Wang Zhaojun, and Diao Chang, with the idiom “the beautiful women shame the moon and flowers” describing the four. Noble concubine Yang Yuhuan was also the beautiful woman with highest status and biggest authority among the four in ancient China, as well as an imperial concubine who was largest affect in the world in China’s feudal dynasties. In the Chinese history, did not any woman have to be richer than noble concubine Yang’s story the romantic and full of legend color. “Beauty is the cause of evil” has been the excuse of men to cover their mistakes in history. In number of writings noble concubine Yang was described as this. However in some other words Yang’s beauty was pure and her nature was kind in such struggle of the imperial palace. Her love was sincere. According to some historical material and even some tales we can have recognition of this unique beauty in China’s ancient history.

Index Terms—Noble Concubine Yang, female, beauty, evil

Noble concubine Yang (Yuhuan) was the first of the four classical beauties in ancient China. Another three were Xi Shi, Wang Zhaojun, and Diao Chang, with the idiom “the beautiful women shame the moon and flowers” describing the four. Yang Yuhuan was also the beautiful woman with highest status and biggest authority among the four in ancient China, as well as an imperial concubine who was largest affect in the world in China’s feudal dynasties. In the Chinese history, did not any woman have to be richer than noble concubine Yang’s story the romantic and full of legend color!

Yang Yuhuan originally was wife of prince Li Mao, Emperor Tang Xuanzong’s son. Xuanzong Li Longji was attracted by her beauty and couldn’t control himself from getting her, helped by the Unofficial Gao Lishi, Xuanzhong first made her the female Taoist, giving her the title Taizhen. In the fourth year of Tianbao she was conferred rank and title officially for noble concubine. “Beauty is the cause of evil” is the excuse of men to cover their mistakes in history. In number of writings noble concubine Yang was described as this. However in some other words Yang’s beauty was pure and her nature was kind in such struggle of the imperial palace. Her love was sincere no matter to Li Mao and Li Longji. She should not be responsible for the Rebellion of An and Shi¹ of Tang dynasty.

I. NATURAL BEAUTY AND BEING TALENTED WITH MUSIC

Yang Yuhuan (719-756 A.D) was born in Rong County, Canton, later came into Sichuan because her father was sent to be an official there. When she was ten years old her father died. Her uncle took her to Luoyang and educated her until one day she met with Li Mao, one of sons of the Tang emperor. At that time Luoyang was the east capital of Tang, every year the emperor Xuanzong(Li Longji) would be there for a long time with his family members. So at the age of 17 Yang Yuhuan became a princess of Prince Shou, Li Mao. Later the emperor saw her closely at the palace of his favorite concubine Wu, Prince Shou’s mother. Then the emperor would never forget Yang’s beauty. After concubine Wu’s death the emperor even felt other concubines monotonous. He was often in a state of utter stupefaction and he even had no desire for the affairs of imperial court. His unofficial Gao Lishi knew what he wanted. Helped with princess Yuzhen, Li Longji’s younger sister, Gao arranged Li and Yang dated several times. The emperor was not satisfied with only such dates. He wanted to have this beauty permanently. Then Yang Yuhuan was made female Taoist, given the title Taizhen when she was 22 years old. In the palace there was a Taoist temple named Taizhen Temple where she lived and dated with the emperor for 5 years. In the fourth year of Tianbao she was conferred rank and title officially for noble concubine.

¹ Rebellion of An and Shi: That was an important event in the tang dynasty even in the history of China, a turning point of Tang dynasty from being glorious to declining. An refers to AN Lushan(also AN Qingxu), Shi to SHI Siming (also SHI Chaoyi).They started a revolt against Tang dynasty since Tianbao 14 year of Tang Xuanzong (755 A.D.) to the beginning year Baoying of Tang Daizong (762 A.D.). It lasted for eight years.

"Turning her head, she smiled so sweet of grace. That she outshone in six palaces the fairest face" (Xu, 2003). This was described by Bai Juyi in *The Everlasting Regret*. Noble concubine Yang was so beautiful that all the women in the palace were dark comparing with her. Yang Yuhuan was familiar with music, talented with dancing. The famous "Rainbow Skirt and Feathered Coat." was her choreography. For the large dance, the emperor himself composed, the emperor ordered to set a special theatre. Such a large dance has come down in Chinese history and today it is also played in Xi'an, once the ancient capital. "In revels as in feasts she shared her lord's delight, /His companion on trips and his mistress at night./In inner palace dwelt three thousand ladies fair;/On her alone was lavished royal love and care." Now the emperor's love was given to Yang alone. "Seeing slow dance and hearing fluted or stringed song,/The emperor was never tired the whole day long" (Xu, 2003).

Sometimes she was little capricious. Twice she was sent out of the palace but soon she was taken back every time because the emperor couldn't live without her. Her sisters and cousins were given treasures and official. She saw the serious problem of this. And she would like to stop it but in vain. That was foreshadowing for her tragic fate.

II. LOYAL TO LOVE WITHOUT INTERVENING ROYAL AFFAIRS BUT A VIOLENT DEATH

"All her sisters and brothers received rank and fief, /And honors showered on her household, to the grief" (Xu, 2003). Because of her rank, the emperor gave her family official positions and wealth. Her foster father was advocated Confucianism and angry with her change from a princess to a noble concubine of the emperor. Not long after he was dead because of being terrified restless. Yang Yuhuan's three female cousins separately got the title of Noble Madame Qin, Han and Guo. Another cousin named Yang Zhao got appreciation from the emperor for his talent and was promoted repeatedly until he became the prime minister. The Emperor changed Yang Zhao's name to Yang Guozhong. Yang Guozhong himself took part in some struggle of the palace and other family members sometimes were arrogant in capital city. Noble concubine Yang realized her family got too much from the emperor. She had a little worry and once asked the emperor to take something back from her cousins. But the emperor did not pay attention to her suggestion. The emperor even loved her more because she did not intervene in affairs of the royal government. Even someone asked her to help her former husband Li Mao to become crown prince, she thought it over and decided not to trouble the emperor. She knew that Li Mao had no such ability to be the crown prince. Gradually she transferred her whole love to the Emperor only. On the night of July 7, Chinese lunar calendar, she asked the Emperor with her to pray to Altair and Vega, "hoping to be the husband and wife forever" (Nan, 2005)! To Yang Yuhuan, she was satisfied with love and music. She arranged the large-scale palace dance: "Song of Rainbow Skirt and Feathered Coat", which was composed personally by the emperor himself. She had a group of actors and actress and led them to practice, sinking happiness.

"But rebels beat their war drums, making the earth quake / And 'Song of Rainbow Skirt and Feathered Coat 'broke" (Xu, 2003). The Turmoil of An and Shi in Tang Dynasty broke out in 755 and forced the emperor to flee from the capital to Sichuan. On the 2nd afternoon after they left Chang'an, they arrived Mawei Slope, southwest Xingping County, Yang Yuhuan's cousin, prime minister Yang Guozhong was accused to have plots of rebellion. He was killed by the angry palace guard soldiers. Those traitorous soldiers asked that noble concubine Yang must also be killed or they wouldn't escort the emperor. The emperor was very angry with great pain and grief. He shouted: "What does this matter with the noble concubine since she has been in deep palace, how does she know the prime minister's rebellion?" "The 'noble concubine is innocent" (Nan, 2005)! But in such critical time piteous Yang Yuhuan had no other choice except death for her country. Then the first beauty of China was hanged in the hall for worshipping the Buddha of Mawei Slope. "The monarch could not save her and hid his face in fear;/ Turning his head, he saw her blood mix with his tear" (Xu, 2003). After noble concubine Yang died, her corpse was ordered to be put down on a plank in the station garden, the imperial guard military officers Chen Xuanli etc. were invited to come in autopsy. After having looked, Chen Xuanli with other officers only then had taken off their armors and helmets, kowtows to the emperor to apologize.

III. TALES AFTER NOBLE CONCUBINE YANG'S DEATH

Noble concubine Yang died, and the emperor harbored regret all day long since that. In order to give expression to his grief over Yang's death he even carved a small statue of Yang himself. But there has been another legend about noble concubine Yang. She didn't die on Mawei Slope. Common people would like to believe as well as spread this. After she was put down on a plank autopsy, the emperor and soldiers went on. Her close maidservants who left to handle the things after her death felt that she still had weak breath. One of them made rescue breathing for her. After a while Yang resurrected herself in a miracle. In order to cover the fact they made a dummy and buried it. With the help of Li Mao, Yang's former husband, several close eunuchs and maidservants escorted Yang to escape from another way, not to Sichuan, but to a road from Hanshui River down eastward. On the way they met an old music worker who then followed Yang faithfully. After arriving Xiangyang they bought a twin mast's river boat and employed the local boatmen, taking the canal to Jiangxia, then eastward along the Yangtze River until they arrived Yangzhou. In Yangzhou they heard a version: noble concubine Yang did not die in Mawei event(Nan, 2005)! They stayed in Yangzhou nearly half a year then occasionally they met Yang Guozhong's daughter-in-law Xu with her son, who lived in the same city with Japan's envoys. Xu told them during the Mawei event her son and her were not together with her mother-in-law and they escaped their lives with the help of one of their old servants. Then they met with the Japan's envoys, who accepted them

because Xu's husband had been in charge of foreign affairs and the old servant knew those envoys. Because the current political situation was serious, Xu had decided to take her son to go to Japan with Japan's envoys. Tengyuan, the head of Japan's envoys, urged to ask noble concubine Yang to travel eastward to Japan. After a deep thought and a long discussion, noble concubine Yang brought Xu and Xu's son to Japan with the envoys, along with them so many four seasons clothes, all kinds of gift and the apparatus produced in Yangzhou, several big boxes of the gift department, several big boxes of the apparatus department, one box is the stationery aspect, only various types of writing brushes 750, in addition, also two boxes of various types books, from the writing of ancient Laoze, Confucius to modern Li Bai's prose. Those had been purchased in Yangzhou city, giving first to the Japan envoys.

According to Japanese ancient times fable: noble concubine Yang and the party of people arrived in Japan A.D. 757 years, it was said that the ship she took landed in Ogimachi of Laihu inland sea mountain pass. Another saying was that noble concubine Yang landed in Zyuzin County. In Yamaguchi Prefecture of Japan, the "township of the noble concubine Yang", there is noble concubine Yang's grave. In 1963 a Japanese girl demonstrated a genealogy to the television viewer, saying that she was noble concubine Yang's posterity, the Japanese famous movie star Yamaguchi Momoe also said she was noble concubine Yang's descendant.



(noble concubine Yang's statue in Japan, in front of her grave in Zyuzin County) (Gao, 2007)

During Expo 2010, Shanghai, there was a copy boat of Japan's envoys exhibited at Japan Pavilion. It was said that copy boat started from Osaka, along the ancient envoys' tracks, one month later arrived in Shanghai. Meanwhile Dinner of Noble Concubine Yang was exhibited at Japan Pavilion.



a copy boat of Japan's envoys, 2010, Shanghai

Folklore noble concubine Yang's death and resurrection reflected people with fondly memory and sympathy to her. After the wind and rain of Anlushan's Rebellion people started to reconsider the historic Tianbao chaos, and realized finally to the historical truth, the folklore innate fair judgment. It is quite often objective to historical personage's appraisal, death of the noble concubine Yang already had one side which it had only herself to blame, the other side she had achieved the name of a sacrificial victim, therefore people fantasized noble concubine Yang could reactivate. Perhaps it was just infinite memory from people. "Where 'mid the clods beneath the slope he couldn't forget, /The fair-faced Lady Yang, who was unfairly slain" (Xu, 2003). On the way back to the capital the emperor asked Gao Lishi reburied noble concubine Yang, but they did not find Yang's corpse. After the emperor came back to Chang'an, he asked "Linqiong Taoist" to seek for Yang everywhere. "He learned that on the sea were fairy mountains proud / that now appeared, now disappeared amid the cloud" (Xu, 2003). It was said Li Longji sent a special envoy with a small statue of noble concubine Yang to Japan seeking for Lady Yang. Japan also sent an envoy to bring back Lady Yang's news. But they were thwarted to see Li Longji by the present emperor Daizong, Li Longji's son. It is also said that the overlord Li Longji's final years were very chilly pain, day and night he was missing in overseas Lady Yang(Nan, 2005). "Fireflies flitting the hall, mutely he pined away; /The lonely lampwick burned out; still he could not sleep." "One long, long year the dead and the living were parted; / Her soul came not in the dream to see the brokenhearted" (Xu, 2003). It was said

the statue of Lady Yang in Japan is the same as the one at Mawei Slope of China.



(noble concubine Yang's grave, Shan'xi Mawei Slope)



Yang's statue, Shan'xi Mawei Slope

IV. CONCLUSION

Looking all about several thousand long history annals of China, noble concubine Yang was not Zhao Feiyan, a beautiful woman in Han dynasty of China who waited on the emperor with the world outstanding person favors in the harem. When Tang Xuanzong asked great poet Li Bai to create "Qingpingle Three Chapters" to praise Lady Yang's beauty, there was "Asking Han Palace who was the same as her, the poor Feiyan must rely on new dress" (Wang, 2009). Noble concubine Yang was not Wu Zetian, the only orthodox empress in China's history who seized the throne by her beautiful appearance and plotted power. Noble concubine Yang was not Empress Dowager Cixi, who attended to state affairs by the unrivalled ambition in the court discipline. Noble concubine Yang was herself, above her peerless beautiful appearance was the valuable purity. She fell into the power and influence was her natural disposition goodness, and her love was a pay of true feelings! The years flowed on, the emperor had three thousand beauties in his palace, it was natural he moved his love from one to one. But facing with such exciting fighting of the palace, for 11 years Yang Yuhuan, without aid and without her own party, without using any trick, became the noble concubine to manage the whole harem, at last the emperor Xuanzong loved her only. Their love became a poetic masterpiece through the ages in the Chinese history. Noble concubine Yang Yuhuan was a beauty but not the cause of evil. She was only a most beautiful woman in China's history, who lives in people's mind and appear on the contemporary screen by the lifelike most beautiful woman!

For years Chinese literature output has very big deficit, especially for Euramerican deficit is about 100:1 above. In recent years many translators devoted to the introduction of Chinese literature to the world. The National Social Science Fund conducted long-term foreign translation project of Chinese academic programs. I hope more and more Chinese literary works to be introduced to the world and let Chinese literary art treasures glint in the world.

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Analysis of Working Memory and Its Capacity Limit in Visual and Auditory Information

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Abstract—This study is an analysis of working memory capacity in the context of both visual and auditory information. Working memory storage capacity is important because cognitive tasks can be completed only with sufficient ability to hold information as it is processed. The ability to repeat information depends on task demands but can be distinguished from a more constant, underlying mechanism: a central memory store limited to 3 to 5 meaningful items in young adults. The purpose of this study is to use strategies that can increase the efficiency of the use of a limited capacity or allow the maintenance of additional information separate from that limited capacity. The researcher will discuss why this central limit is important, how it can be observed, how it differs among individuals, and why it may exist. The review focuses on the term nature of capacity limits, storage capacity limit, views of researchers on working memory, and evidences of both visual and auditory working memory. The results suggest a focus on central capacity limits that are beneficial in predicting which thought processes individuals can do, and in understanding individual differences in cognitive maturity and intellectual aptitude.

Index Terms—working memory capacity limits, visual information, auditory information, central storage capacity limits, chunks, core capacity

I. INTRODUCTION

When we talk about the things human beings can do, we should certainly discuss the limits to what they can do. There are severe limits in how much can be kept in mind at once (about 3–5 items). When, how, and why does the limit occur. Miller (1956) demonstrated that one can repeat back a list of no more than about seven randomly ordered, meaningful items or chunks. Some have concluded that the limit “just depends” on details of the memory task. It has been difficult to determine the capacity limit of working memory because multiple mechanisms retain information. Considerable research suggests that one can retain about 2 seconds’ worth of speech through silent rehearsal (Baddeley & Hitch, 1974).

Memory cannot be limited this way alone, though; in running-span procedures, only the last three to five digits can be recalled (less than 2 seconds’ worth). In such procedures, the participant does not know when a list will end and, when it does, must recall several items from the end of the list (Cowan, 2001). Working memory is used in mental tasks, such as language comprehension, problem solving, and planning. Many studies indicate that working memory capacity varies among people, predicts individual differences in intellectual ability, and changes across the life span (Cowan, 2005). The main purpose of this article is to characterize limits in the number of chunks of information individuals can retain in working memory and the importance of this chunk capacity limit in both visual and auditory working memory.

II. DEFINITION OF WORKING MEMORY

Working memory is the brain system for holding and manipulating a small amount of information temporarily and it is essential for many cognitive activities (Baddeley & Hitch, 1974). Working memory is the use of controlled attention to hold and manage information. Cowan (1999) defined working memory as the collection of mental mechanisms that hold information in a temporarily accessible form that can be of use in cognitive tasks. Working memory can be thought of as both a general cognitive construct and an individual difference measure, and is thought to be an important component of higher-level cognitive performance.

III. NATURE OF WORKING MEMORY CAPACITY LIMITS

Two things are important to understand the nature of working memory capacity limits: process-related and storage-specific distinction. These two distinctions have to do with whether the task under consideration prevents processing strategies that individuals adopt to maximize performance, and whether the task minimizes processes that interfere with storing information in working memory. Storage-specific capacity is a more analytic concept, and the capacity limit stays constant across a much wider variety of circumstances. Working memory ability varies widely depending on what processes can be applied to a given task. To memorize verbal materials, one can try to repeat them in one’s mind. One can also try to form chunks from multiple words. To memorize a sequence of spatial locations, one can envision a

pathway formed from the locations. Though we cannot yet make precise predictions about how well working memory will operate in every possible task, we can measure storage-specific capacity by preventing or controlling processing strategies. That is how one can observe a capacity limit of three to five separate items (Cowan, 2001).

With respect to rehearsal and grouping, information can be presented (a) in a brief, simultaneous spatial array; (b) in an unattended auditory channel, with attention to the sensory memory taking place only after the sounds ended; (c) during the overt, repetitive pronunciation of a single word by the participant; or (d) in a series with an unpredictable ending, as in running span. In such task conditions, one can observe that a handful of concepts can be held in the conscious mind. These boundary conditions are also of practical use to predict performance when the material is too brief, long, or complex to allow such processing strategies. Young adults can recall three to five chunks from a presented list no matter whether these are learned pairs or singletons. The most precise result was obtained by Chen and Cowan (2009). Ordinarily, the result would depend on the length of the list and of the items but, when verbal rehearsal was prevented by having the participant repeat the word “the” throughout the trial, individuals remembered only about 3 units, no matter whether those were singletons or learned pairs. With similar results across many types of materials and tasks, we believe there truly is a central working memory faculty limited to three to five chunks in adults, which can predict mistakes in thinking and reasoning.

Storage and processing capacities both make important contributions to intelligence and development. The inclusive versus central distinction has to do with whether we allow individuals to use transient information that is specific to how something sounds, looks, or feels—that is, sensory modality-specific information—or whether we structure our stimulus materials to exclude that type of information, leaving a residual of only abstract information that applies across modalities (called central information). If one is trying to remember a spoken telephone number, for example, further conversation produced by the same speaker’s voice interferes with auditory sensory information and leaves intact only the abstract, central information about the digits in the telephone number.

Although it is useful for human memory that people can use vivid memories of how a picture looked or how a sentence sounded, these types of information tend to obscure the finding of a central memory usually limited to 3 to 5 items in adults. That central memory is especially important because it underlies problem solving and abstract thought. Limits to central memory can be observed better if the contribution of information in sensory memory is curtailed. An array of coloured squares was presented at the same time as an array of simultaneous spoken digits produced by different voices in four loudspeakers. The task was sometimes to attend to only the squares or only the spoken digits, and sometimes to attend to both modalities at once. The key finding was that, when attention was directed different ways, a central working memory capacity limit still held. People could remember about 4 squares if asked to attend only to squares, and if they were asked to attend to both squares and digits, they could remember fewer squares, but about 4 items in all. This fixed capacity limit was obtained, though, only if the items to be recalled were followed by a jumble of meaningless, mixed visual and acoustic stimuli (a mask) so that sensory memory would be wiped out and the measure of working memory would be limited to central memory. With an inclusive situation (no mask), two modalities were better than one (Cowan, Fristoe, Elliott, Brunner, & Sauls, 2006).

IV. THE STORAGE CAPACITY LIMIT

Cowan (2005) reviewed a variety of hypotheses about the central working memory storage limit of 3 to 5 chunks. They are not necessarily incompatible; more than one could have merit. There are two camps: (a) capacity limits as weaknesses, and (b) capacity limits as strengths. The capacity-limit-as-weakness camp suggests reasons why it would be biologically expensive for the brain to have a larger working memory capacity. One way this could be the case is if there is a cycle of processing in which the patterns of neural firing representing, say four items or concepts must fire in turn within, say, every consecutive 100-millisecond period, else not all concepts will stay active in working memory. The representation of a larger number of items could fail because together they take too long to be activated in turn or because patterns too close together in time interfere with each other. If the neural patterns for multiple concepts are instead active concurrently, it may be that more than about four concepts result in interference among them, or that separate brain mechanisms are assigned to each concept, with insufficient neurons at some critical locale to keep more than about four items active at once.

If capacity is a weakness, perhaps superior beings from another planet can accomplish feats that we cannot because they have a larger working memory limit, similar to our digital computers. The capacity-limit-as-strength camp includes diverse hypotheses. Mathematical simulations suggest that, under certain simple assumptions, searches through information are most efficient when the groups to be searched include about 3.5 items on average. A list of three items is well structured with a beginning, middle, and end serving as distinct item-marking characteristics; a list of five items is not far worse, with two added in-between positions. More items than that might lose distinctiveness within the list. A relatively small central working memory may allow all concurrently active concepts to become associated with one another (chunked) without causing confusion or distraction (Cowan, 2005).

V. ANALYSIS OF VISUAL WORKING MEMORY CAPACITY

Visual working memory experiments come up with capacities in the vicinity of 4--or less than 4 items (McElree, 2006). We briefly mention a quite different paradigm that has come up with the same number. One such paradigm involves the number of items that people and monkeys-- can effortlessly keep track of. For example, at a rhesus macaque monkey colony on a small island off of Puerto Rico, Marc Hauser and his colleagues did the following experiment. Two experimenters find a monkey relaxing on its own. Each experimenter has a small bucket and a pocket full of apple slices. The experimenters put down the buckets and one at a time, they conspicuously place a small number of slices in each bucket. Then they withdraw and check which bucket the monkey goes to in order to get the apple slices. The result is that for numbers of slices equal to or smaller than 4, the monkeys overwhelmingly choose the bucket with more slices. But if either bucket has more than 4, the monkeys choose at random. Monkeys chose the greater number in comparison of 1 versus 2, 2 versus 3 and 3 versus 4, but chose at random in cases of 4 versus 5, 4 versus 6, 4 versus 8 and, amazingly, 3 versus 8. The comparison of the 3 versus 4 cases (where monkeys chose more) and the 3 versus 8 cases (where they chose at random) is especially telling (Hauser, Carey & Hauser, 2000). The 8 apple slices simply overflowed working memory storage. Infant humans show similar results, although typically with a limit more in the vicinity of 3 rather than 4 (Feigenson, Carey, & Hauser, 2002). Using graham crackers instead of apple slices, Feigenson, et al., found that infants would crawl to the bucket with more crackers in the cases of 1 versus 2 and 2 versus 3 but were at chance in the case of 1 versus 4. Again, 4 crackers overflow memory storage. In one interesting variant, infants are shown a closed container into which the experimenter--again conspicuously--inserts a small number of desirable objects (e.g. M & Ms). If the number of M & Ms is 1, 2, or 3, the infant continues to reach into the container until all are removed, but if the number is more than 3, infants reach into the container once.

Vogel and Machizawa (2004) developed a procedure to allow measurement of a physiological marker of the maintenance of object information in visual working memory. By presenting several objects in each visual hemifield but indicating that the array in one hemifield must be retained for comparison, they were able to use electrical activity over the contralateral side of the scalp as an indicator of whether information was held in working memory. A clear signal was obtained, which increased with the number of array items in a manner closely resembling the behavioural marker--the capacity of working memory according to a formula that corrects for guessing (Cowan, 2001). Across individuals, working memory capacity correlated well with the increase in magnitude of the lateralized electrical signal between array sizes of 2 and 4 items. Many investigators of visual working memory have assumed an automatic, modality-specific memory faculty. However, the new data suggest that memory maintenance might be attention-demanding rather than automatic. Theoretically, the type of attention involved could be specific to vision.

However, other data indicate that a general, amodal type of attention is involved. A memory load of six or seven random spoken digits to be recited aloud interferes with maintenance of a visual array. This is not the result of recitation *per se*: unlike random digits, reciting a well-learned number has no effect (Morey & Cowan, 2005). Some studies have shown that people can recall about 4 items including a number of features of each one. However, other studies (Xu, 2002) have suggested smaller working memory capacities for more complex items. Xu and Chun (2006) have perhaps resolved this controversy by showing that there are two different systems with somewhat different brain bases. One of these systems has a capacity of about 4 spatial locations or objects at 4 different spatial locations, independently of complexity, the other a smaller capacity depending on the complexity of the representation. The upshot for our purposes is that neither visual working memory system has a capacity higher than 4.

Saults and Cowan (2007) tested a conceptual framework in a series of experiments in which arrays were presented in two modalities at once or, in another procedure, one after the other. A visual array of coloured spots was supplemented by an array of spoken digits occurring in four separate loudspeakers, each one consistently assigned to a different voice to ease perception. On some trials, participants knew that they were responsible for both modalities at once whereas, in other trials, participants knew that they were responsible for only the visual or only the acoustic stimuli. They received a probe array that was the same as the previous array or differed from the previous array in the identity of one stimulus. The task was to determine if there was a change. The use of cross-modality, capacity-limited storage predicts a particular pattern of results. It predicts that performance on either modality should be diminished in the dual-modality condition compared to the unimodal conditions, due to strain on the cross-modality store. That is how the results turned out.

Moreover, if the cross-modality, capacity-limited store were the only type of storage used, then the sum of visual and auditory capacities in the dual-modality condition should be no greater than the larger of the two unimodal capacities (which happened to be the visual capacity). The reason is that the limited-capacity store would hold the same number of units no matter whether they were all from one modality or were from two modalities combined. That prediction was confirmed, but only if there was a post-perceptual mask in both modalities at once following the array to be remembered. The post-perceptual mask included a multicolored spot at each visual object location and a sound composed of all possible digits overlaid, from each loudspeaker. It was presented long enough after the arrays to be recalled that their perception would have been completed. The mask was capable of overwriting various types of sensory-specific features in activated memory, leaving behind only the more generic, categorical information present in the focus of attention, which presumably is protected from masking interference by the attention process. The limit of the focus of attention was again shown to be between three and four items, for either unimodal visual or bimodal stimuli (Saults & Cowan, 2007).

VI. ANALYSIS OF AUDITORY WORKING MEMORY CAPACITY

Darwin et al., (1972) carried out an auditory experiment and found a limit of about four items even though the observed decay period for sensory memory was about 4s. The common four-item limit is best viewed as a capacity limit rather than a rate limit. Baddeley et al., (1975) found that lists of short words are recalled more successfully than lists of longer words. This phenomenon has been explained on the grounds that the phonological representations of some words are lost from short term storage while other words are being covertly rehearsed or overtly pronounced, with the extent of loss dependent on the duration of the articulated words. Broadbent (1975) proposed some situations in which multi-item chunk formation was not a factor, and suggested that the true capacity limit is three items. For example, although memory span is often about seven items, errors are made with seven-item lists and the error-free limit is typically three items. When people must recall items from a category in long-term memory they do so in spurts of about three items on average.

Baddeley, Thomson, and Buchanan (1975) stated that there is a fixed chunk capacity limit. They showed that a list of short (e.g., monosyllabic) words was recalled better than a list of the same number of longer (e.g., polysyllabic) words. They also found that an individual's recall was equal to the number of items that he or she could pronounce in about 2s. This led to a theory that the limit in memory was not the number of chunks, but the amount of time for which the materials had to be remembered. The theory was that items were refreshed by rehearsal in repeating loop (the phonological loop in the model of Baddeley, 1986). If a given item was not refreshed in about 2s, it was lost from the working memory representation through temporal decay. Cowan (2001) noted other such situations in which multi-item chunks cannot be formed. For example, in running memory span, a long list of items is presented with an unpredictable endpoint, making grouping impossible. When the list ends, the participant is to recall a certain number of items from the end of the list. Typically, people can recall three or four items from the end of the list, although the exact number depends on task demands. Individuals differ in capacity, which ranges from about two to six items in adults and the individual capacity limit is a strong correlate of cognitive aptitude (Cowan, 2001).

VII. CONCLUSION

Limitations in working memory capacity are a significant source of limitations in the performance of cognitive tasks. The magical number seven plus or minus two is constant in short term processing including list recall, absolute judgment and numerical estimation experiments. Although it is true that memory span is approximately seven items in adults, there is no guarantee that each item is a separate entity. Later studies suggested that the limit in capacity is more typically only three or four units. This means that there are strategies that can increase the efficiency of the use of a limited capacity or allow the maintenance of additional information separate from that limited capacity. Some researchers disagree on the number of items or chunks encompassed by the capacity limit, others believe instead in only a time limit, and others believe in a modality specific limit or in no special working limit at all just a single set of rules for all of memory. The concept of capacity limit; measured in meaningful chunks seems sound despite difficulties in identifying chunks. Working memory limits must be viewed as strength as well as limitation. The ability to hold ideas in mind, combine them into new ideas, and manipulate them is a basic human strength. That working memory has a small capacity seems to be a human limitation although it is possible that we would be overwhelmed with too much information to process at once if working memory capacity were unlimited. Recent work suggests that there is an underlying limit on a central component of working memory—typically 3 to 5 chunks in young adults. Central capacity limits are useful in predicting which thought processes individuals can execute, and in understanding individual differences in cognitive maturity and intellectual aptitude.

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On the Formation, Replication and Transmission of Strong Memes and their Cognitive Psychological Motivations*

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Abstract—This article first advances a fact that a Chinese word *geili* has suddenly become very popular and known to almost every one. It then tries to explain the reasons that it has become so hot in such a short time. The author tries to explain this phenomenon with the meme theory, and summarizes the characteristics of strong memes. Then it dwells on the cognitive psychological motivations that influence the formation, replication and transmission of strong memes.

Index Terms—strong memes, characteristics, cognitive psychological motivations

The Chinese word *Geili* (给力, pronounced as “gěi lì”) is from a northern Chinese dialect, and was scarcely known by most Chinese people several years ago. But in the last few years, it suddenly caught people’s attention and has become populous among the Netizens at first, and then became ubiquitous, including newspapers, advertisements and TV and radio programs and almost every thing that needs to attract people’s attention, even appeared in many serious newspapers, for example *China Daily*, one of the most serious newspapers in China. And now it has come to people’s everyday speech.

On April 27, 2011, the author put it in the searching engine Baidu and instantly got about one million relevant outcomes, from which we can easily see how popular it has become. From these outcomes, the author carefully picked 100 sentences, then analyzed and classified them.

The result shows that it mainly have two parts of speech.

First of all, as adjective, meaning “good, supportive, strong, powerful, cool, awesome, etc”, for example, on class the students may be saying “这课上得好枯燥，不给力呀！” meaning “This lecture is not interesting.” and in the company when the boss is more generous about the employees’ salary, the clerks might talk with each other like “这BOSS真给力啊！” meaning “this boss is very good and generous”.

People soon coined an English word for it, which is “geilivable”, and it’s opposite word is “ungeilivable”, meaning “something is far from what you have expected, disappointing, not good”.

Second, as verb, which means “to bring strength, or cheer up”, for instance, “要给力啊，后期靠你了” meaning to call on some one to work hard because he is depended on by every one.

Exactly how do ideas spread, and what are the factors that make them genuine thought contagions? Why, for instance, do some beliefs spread throughout society, while others dwindle to extinction? How could this word suddenly be accepted by so many people and become so hot? If we could find out the reason, may be we could use it to make other things just as acceptable and that might be a great contribution to many fields, for example, the advertisement or language learning. The author has done a lot of research and referred to many books and magazines in order to find an explanation for this. At last, she found the meme theory, which can very properly explain this phenomenon.

The meme theory is a new theory to explain the formation and development of language. Its replication and transmission provide a quick and an effective way to enrich advertising slogans. The paper tries to explain the characteristics and cognitive psychological motivations for strong memes.

I. MEMES AND MEMETICS

In 1976, Richard Dawkins, a British zoologist from the Cambridge University advanced the famous Meme Theory in his book *The Selfish Gene*, and applied it into the practice of explaining culture. Since then, many western scholars began to do innovative research by combining the meme theory with a lot of subjects, including old as well as new ones, broking them down and then compounding them in different new ways. They have developed a fairly large scale of cross-disciplinary research with the meme theory as the main thinking train. In recent years, many Chinese scholars began to introduce, interpret, study and demonstrate this theory and combine it with many subjects in culture, language, language teaching and various other fields. They have done a lot of research and achieved remarkable success.

Heylighen (1992) argues that meme has to experience four different stages from the moment it is selected by a new

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master and is afterward passed on, which consists of assimilation, retention, expression and transmission. The most attractive, most vital, most infective ones with the fastest spreading speed and hugest influence were named strong memes by him.

The Meme Machine (Blackmore, 1999) is a popular science book by psychologist Susan Blackmore on the subject of memes. Blackmore attempts to constitute memetics as a science by discussing its empirical and analytic potential, as well as some important problems with memetics. The first half of the book tries to create greater clarity about the definition of the meme as she sees it. The last half of the book consists of a number of possible memetic explanations for such different problems as the origin of language, the origin of the human brain, sexual phenomena, the internet and the notion of the self. These explanations, in her view, give simpler and clearer explanations than trying to create genetic explanations in these fields.

Effective memes will be those that cause high fidelity, long-lasting memory. Memes may be successful at spreading largely because they are memorable rather than because they are important or useful. An important task of memetics will be to integrate the psychology of memory with an understanding of memetic selection.

Chinese scholar He Ziran (2005) believes that memes actually refer to cultural memes. It exists by transmission and language is one of its carriers. Meme is propitious to the development of languages and meme itself depends on the replication and transmission of languages. From the point of view of memetics, language memes discover the law of the spread of speeches and the transmission of languages. Memes in natural languages are expressed in three aspects: education and the teaching of knowledge, the exploitation of language itself and the communication and intercourses through information. He Ziran advocated (2008) that as a meme, language's vitality depends on whether it could be accepted during the process of being used and in turn be widely copied and transmitted. Usually the most widely copied and transmitted memes are strong memes.

II. CHARACTERISTICS OF STRONG MEMES

Though each brain's structured capacities are different, there must be some commonality in the basic cognitive apparatus of human beings which allow some memes to be more easily assimilated and retained. Thus, it is a crucial task to seek the common features and constraints of human mind and make memes more adapted to them.

In this section, we explore several principles which are more memorable and cognitive and make strong memes, but they are not for completeness or exhaustiveness, just for suggestion and illumination.

Cognitive psychologist George A. Miller (1956), argued that human being's working memory is severely limited in size, for it can only hold approximately 5-9 chunks of information (seven plus or minus two). Chunk is any meaningful unit, which can be a digit, a word, a saying, a poem, and so on. Its capacity depends on people's knowledge and experience. To cope with the constraints of working memory, writers and speakers are suggested to follow two principles: first, strong memes are often short and terse; second, the capacity of a strong meme is often enlarged by chunking, which is a way of grouping individual pieces of information into larger units.

Obviously the word *geili* has become a strong meme, and it is not accidental but inevitable, because it has almost all the striking characteristics of a strong meme. For example:

1 Novelty. Speeches with original and special structures could better capture people's attention. In this highly developed internet and information age, there is a universal tendency of seeking novelty, and fancy words could attract people's eyes or ears instantly.

2 Sensibility thrill. Compared with common language, memes with sensibility thrill have stronger infection and vitality, and will be bitterly received after having got into the acceptor's brain.

3 Terse. It can also be called short or economic. Such memes could spread with very fast speed and could become popular in a large scope within a short time, because they save time and energy at least. Furthermore, their popularity will increase with the pass of time.

4 Expressiveness. A strong meme must be very expressive in order to be accepted by both the users and the readers and listeners. Only when it has this character, the users would want to resort to it and the others would readily accept it.

5 Easy to accept. They already have certain information foundation among the receivers, i.e. people are familiar with their original structures which the disseminator has only varied and copied directly but applied them in totally different context. This creative application of memes acquired very good effect. They spread very fast because they are easy to understand and remember.

6 Easy to imitate. Memes spread mainly through imitation and only the ones that could easily be imitated are able to transmit quickly, and therefore become strong memes.

7 Having a stable structure. To exist in people's communication for a long period, a meme must have a relatively stable structure, and the transmission of memes is based on certain structures. As we all know, during the transmission, memes could show variations. But no matter how memes vary, the varied meme and the original meme structure have at least one thing in common in order to sustain the certain relationship between them. The community they formed could be called meme field and all the memes in the same field have one common characteristic, which is similar meme structure. That is to say, the same and similar structure is the most basic requirement to sustain the meme field, and it is the foundation for the transmitters and acceptors to resonant with each other during the process of transmission. The essence of people replicating memes is virtually the replication of its structure.

8 Of informal Style. To create strong headline memes which are easily understood by readers and listeners, writers and speakers must first of all make negotiable choices on code and style. According to Verschueren (He Ziran, 1999), style can be reserved to describe variability along dimensions of formality and informality, range from casual or colloquial speech to highly formal uses.

Looking back on the successful and classical meme home and abroad, most of them are novel, short, direct, colloquial, easy to accept and closer to everyday speech. Here we regard this informal style as "a strong meme of form" in the field of headline delivered in this form can not only be easily understood, but also be effortlessly expressed, and ultimately become more popular.

The eight characteristics concluded above are exterior presentations shown by strong memes. To study the reasons that some memes could become strong ones, we need to penetrate into the interior and focus on its cognitive reasons.

III. COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL MOTIVATIONS

When language memes are studied, their cognitive psychological motivations shouldn't be neglected. Cognitive psychology is one of the main reasons that people take specific actions, including physical activities and speeches. Memes become one of the main means that people spread and perceive the world, which is also brought about by people's specific cognitive psychology. Some cognitive methods may be able to explain this phenomenon. For example:

1 flashbulb memory. It is highly detailed, exceptionally vivid "snapshots" of the moment and circumstances in which surprising and consequential (or emotionally arousing) news was heard. It has six characteristic features: place, ongoing activity, informant, own affect, other affect, and aftermath. It is stored on one occasion and retained for a lifetime. Usually, such memories are associated with important historical or autobiographical events. For example, many people in the US who were adults in the 1960s have flashbulb memories for the assassinations of President Kennedy and Martin Luther King, and can recall in elaborate detail when and how they heard the news. (Younger Americans sometimes have flashbulb memories for the explosion of the spaceship Challenger.) By contrast, few people have detailed memories of events which happened the day before or after each assassination. People also may form flashbulb memories of important personal events, such as hearing about the death of a family member or witnessing an unusual trauma such as a disaster. It is believed to be an appropriate name for the phenomenon in that it suggests surprise, an indiscriminate illumination, and brevity. The name is inappropriate, however, in that an actual photograph, taken by flashbulb, is indiscriminate and preserves everything within its scope. Flashbulb memories, in actuality, are only somewhat indiscriminate and are far from complete.

What makes the flashbulb memory special is the emotional arousal at the moment that the event was registered to the memory. It increases the ability to recall the details of the event and tend to be retold over and over again.

2 Short-term memory (or "primary" or "active memory") is the capacity for holding a small amount of information in mind in an active, readily available state for a short period of time. The duration of short-term memory (when rehearsal or active maintenance is prevented) is believed to be in the order of seconds. A commonly cited capacity is 7 ± 2 elements.

Whatever the cause or causes of forgetting over the short term may be, there is consensus that it severely limits the amount of new information that we can retain over brief periods of time. This limit is referred to as the finite capacity of short-term memory. The capacity of short-term memory is often called memory span, in reference to a common procedure of measuring it.

Capacity of STM can be affected by the following: Influence of long-term memory, Reading aloud, Pronunciation time and so on.

3 human beings have an innovative tendency. It can also be called the psychology of seeking discrepancy. It means people want to create and break rules and they have a psychological tendency to deal with and solve problems in a unique way. The transmission of most memes is caused by this specific innovative tendency of human beings. A lot of researches show that every one has creativity, but some people's are recessive and not shown. But in their subconscious, they are willing to accept original things.

The time-worn question of conservatism as against change has evidently much in common with that of personality as against institutions. Innovation, that is, is bound up with the assertion of fresh personality against mechanism; and the arguments for and against it are the same as I have already suggested. Wherever there is vigor and constructive power in the individual there is likely to be discontent with the establishment. The young notoriously tend to innovation, and so do those of a bold and restless temperament at any age; the old, on the contrary, the quiet, the timid, are conservative. And so with whole peoples; in so far as they are enfeebled by climate or other causes they become inert and incapable of constructive change. Innovation or the opposite may be a public habit, independently of differences in age or vigor. The attitude toward change is subject to the same sort of alteration as public opinion, or any other phase of the public mind (Cooley, 1909).

People could feel aesthetic fatigue toward prosaic and dull things and are not ready to pay more attention to them. On the contrary, creative things are easy to be accepted by most people. The transmission of memes is controlled by this psychology. In speech intercommunication, common memes can't satisfy people's creative and discrepancy seeking tendency, therefore can't get people's attention. As a result, people change common memes and create original, unique memes which could better satisfy the need of reality.

Memes evolve by natural selection in a process similar to that of Genes in evolutionary biology. What makes an idea a

potent meme is how effectively it out-propagates other ideas. In memetic evolution, the “fittest ideas” are not always the truest or the most helpful, but the ones best at self replication. Thus, crash diets spread not because of lasting benefit, but by alternating episodes of dramatic weight loss and slow regain. Each sudden thinning provokes onlookers to ask, “How did you do it?” thereby manipulating them to experiment with the diet and in turn, spread it again. The faster the pounds return, the more often these people enter that disseminating phase, all of which favors outbreaks of the most pathogenic diets. Like a software virus traveling on the Internet or a flu strain passing through a city, thought contagions proliferate by programming for their own propagation. Lynch (1996) argues that certain beliefs spread like viruses and evolve like microbes, as mutant strains vie for more adherents and more hosts. In its most revolutionary aspect, memetics asks not how people accumulate ideas, but how ideas accumulate people.

Therefore, it is not accidental for strong memes like *geili* to be widely copied and transmitted, but has certain characteristics necessary for it to be widely accepted and is a social phenomenon according with the universal cognitive psychological foundation of human beings. Therefore, it can be used by advertisement makers or teachers to make a slogan widely accepted or to impress the audience.

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Multidisciplinary Curriculum to Teaching English Language in Sudanese Institutions (A Case Study)

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Abstract—Teachers in Sudan usually teach one subject in isolation, in other words they use the disciplinary approach. Stake holders recently are questioning the efficiency of the use of more than one discipline. It appears that clarification of a problem or discussing topics needs to relate different aspects together and that by melting various disciplines in one pawl to enable students to think critically and to have the ability to use the proper analogy and analysis of a concepts of their universe or the content under study. Teaching English language needs to integrate knowledge and contents. Designing a curriculum or a programme that help bringing different disciplines homogeneously to better educate students .It requires syllabus designers to design a program that incorporates the appropriate aspects of history, religion, politics business, communication, and other sciences that meet the objectives of the content being taught. This study builds a rationale for the combining different disciplines of the curriculum to be taught in Sudanese Institutions. Finally, this paper discusses small scale of a project that has melt more than one aspects of different contents, subjects and concepts and it has been implemented through problem solving method.

Index Terms—rationale, subject, interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary, integration, curriculum, language

I. INTRODUCTION

Language policy and language planning in the Sudan passed through four distinct stages: In the colonial times there was a clear-cut language policy: Arabic was for elementary education. English was for secondary education and college level. English was taught very economically, for the small groups that are to take the junior posts in the public service. At College level special English was to be taught for the prospective careers of the graduates. Towards independence some recognition was given to Arabic as a medium of instruction. After Independence there was no clear language policy. Matters were left to chance. After the conclusion of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) between Sudan and South Sudan, the outline of language policy and language planning were drawn but they are yet to take shape and dimensions. There has been a general consensus of opinion often voiced by educationist and those concerned about the status of English language in the Sudan. All the parties who are concerned with the issue seem to unanimously agree that there has been a steady and continuous deterioration in the standards of English language amongst the students at all levels of education. This agreement has turned into an axiom that all people take for granted and over the years it has led to the development of uncompromising attitudes amongst all of the stakeholders. All these queries have to be taken on board if we are really keen to get into the depth of the problem. The introduction of the multidisciplinary approach to teaching and the learning of the English language is intended to satisfy the demand for a broad education that will meet the needs of modern Sudan of knowledge. Institutions are doing their very best to prepare their students for the job market.

II. OBJECTIVES OF THIS PAPER

The objectives of this paper are:

1. To investigate the impact of the application of multidisciplinary or integrated approaches to English language teaching in Sudan.
2. To conduct a needs analysis the use of the multidisciplinary instruction to the teaching of language at the Sudanese institutions.
3. To present a small scale of a multidisciplinary project done by the national committee of curricula reforms and development.

III. DEFINITIONS OF THE KEY TERMS

This paper deals with two important approaches. The first one is what educationists call subject matter approach. The second one is the key term of this study, the multidisciplinary, or the integrated approach to teaching and learning. The simple descriptions of the terms are given below

- The subject matter approach is a teacher-centered approach where students are more passive participants in the learning process.
- A multi-disciplinary course involves different subjects of study in one activity.(Cambridge dictionary).

IV. THE SUBJECT APPROACH

The Subject approach in this paper means the teaching and the learning of language in a traditional way, which also means breaking the language into discrete components and taught them separately. Disciplinary approach also considers English language as subject and should be separately taught apart from other school subjects. English language in Sudan for decade is taught as a different subject from Psychology, Philosophy, and History and so on. In this way, each subject has a well defined boundary from which there is no connection to the other. The subject approach is the dominant approach in the Sudanese institutions.

V. MULTIDISCIPLINARY APPROACH

Multidisciplinary approach to language teaching is an old/new approach. It came into the field of education and other fields, around 1920s, and it has once again gained attention in the United States as an alternative, or as an extension, to a separate subject curriculum (Akins & Akerson, 2002; Goodlad, 2000; Perkins, 1991). "Teachers who emphasize a multidisciplinary approach usually keep the content of each subject intact, but they unite disciplines by organizing the curriculum around complex concepts, questions, themes, problems, or projects to capitalize on connections" (Akins & Akerson; Mansilla, iller, & Gardner, 2000; Ross & Frey, 2002) cited in Janet C. Richards and Kim T. Shea University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida. Multidisciplinary in this paper means the comprehension of an issue, problem or concepts through various related or discrete subjects or disciplines. Natural language acquisition occurs in context; natural language is never learned divorced from meaning; and multidiscipline instruction provides a context for meaningful communication to occur (Met, 1991 cited in Bashoum); as well as combining content with knowledge second language acquisition increases with the involvement of more than two disciplines, because students learn language best when there is an emphasis on relevant, meaningful content rather than on the language itself.

VI. ADVANTAGES OF A MULTIDISCIPLINARY APPROACH

There are many advantages in integrating more than one disciplines focusing on one problem, i.e. a multidisciplinary approach. Students are able to see and make connections, are required to make linkages among several subjects and disciplines. Students are enabled to explore the interrelationships between fields of knowledge. Students have a more unified sense of content and process. (Deborah, adeyemi 1998)

VII. RATIONALE FOR USE OF MULTIDISCIPLINARY APPROACH IN SUDANESE INSTITUTIONS

The pace of changing the course books, methods of teaching and approaches are very slow. This means that too many 'lost generations' suffered through learning English by using out-of-date materials, Language is a living body. It changes rapidly. English language is especially particular in this regard. It changes round the clock. Do we teach our learners English or the History of English? For decades we use the same token, theories and principles of language and language learning. We should change so as to keep up with the advances in the field. Don't we need to keep pace with the swift change in this area? Periods that last for a decade, a decade and a half, or two decades in the ages of language courses are extremely long and they will inevitably create more problems than they can solve. One strong cause of the unacceptable situation of English language in the Sudan is the slow pace of change of material and ways of teaching. We cannot just go on pretending that we do not see. The rationale also behind using multidisciplinary approach Rather than limit the learning to one subject, is that, it highlights the connection between traditional content -- such as language arts, science, math, and history. Interdisciplinary teaching increases students learning abilities. It helps them to develop better problem solving skills and knowledge. The interdisciplinary approach teaches students how to think critically when faced with difficult issues. It also Helps Students uncover Preconceptions, helps students overcome the tendency to support their preconceived notions. Teachers through the multidisciplinary approach can introduce students to subject content from different perspectives. It also challenges their existing notions and allows students to look at where they came from. Once the student has set their pre-existing notions aside, they allow themselves to adopt a range of methods that promote learning. Research shows that multidisciplinary teaching increases motivation for learning. It also increases the level of active engagement. Those who take part in multidisciplinary learning become more involved in the process and recognize the value of what they have learned. When compared to learning methods in isolation, students participating in multidisciplinary learning understand new information better. Cognitive skills can be developed when using multidisciplinary approach and the students can carry out complex tasks. Students develop both procedural and declarative knowledge, which is needed to solve complex problems. It enhances students' knowledge formation capacity, so they can engage in discussion of complex. Greater learning occurs when teachers expose a range of skills and meaningful insight about the educational process to students. Teachers using the multidisciplinary approach encourage students to examine the disciplines that focus on social interaction when studying problems. As a result, multidisciplinary learning advances students understanding of how to learn by combining ideas from multiple disciplines together. (Jackie Rowson 20013). In Sudan we lack the skillful Economists, journalist, politicians, engineers... who master the language as well as their specializations; it is a fact that English is the language of progress and development. It is widely accepted that majority of new knowledge is created by developed countries in which

English has enjoyed a special status. It is also recognized that developing countries enjoy efficiency gains if they adopt the knowledge created in developed country.

There are many justifications offered by researchers for the Use of multidisciplinary approach:

- an increase in interest in learning ;
- Learning will be more effective, focused and purposeful;
- Learners will smoothly transfer what they have learned to all of the other fields of their lives; this should render them more useful members of their respective.

VIII. ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING IN THE CONTEXT OF MULTIDISCIPLINARY APPROACH

The efficacy of an educational environment is principally determined by the approach educator's use, and the learning methods supported. It is obvious that educators in Sudan have to re-examine and update academic programs and language curricula introducing changes in the content and scope of the different subjects in the curriculum. Multidisciplinary academic programs represent the convergence of various disciplines in the language syllabus. Multidisciplinary programs are characterized by integration of topics; general subjects humanities, social sciences, management, are incorporated with professional language subjects. Since Sudanese learners have diverse ethnic, cultural and linguistic backgrounds, it is vital that they have the language skills and meaningful communicative competence necessary to understand and converse with people in and out Sudan, to obtain the required information, to make further research in the given area, and to provide mobility across world. It is precisely this fact that explains the barest necessity of foreign language integration into the curriculum, together with multidisciplinary skills. In this context, increasing coordination of foreign language training with the objectives and outcomes of the other disciplines and program is a necessity. Grounding of students in a foreign language must be synchronized with studying other subjects. The multidisciplinary approach can serve as a common and flexible platform for teaching various subjects including English for Specific Purposes (ESP), or English for Science and Technology (EST) as a form of ESP. For practical realization of the multidisciplinary approach, both traditional methods and new strategies can be applied and they must be based on the analysis of our graduates' goals. Some experts draw attention to a few innovative educational strategies that are employed to enhance language education: cooperative (active) learning, i.e. engaging students in doing and thinking instead of passive listening, wide use of information and communication technologies, project-based learning, etc. We may also combine universal educational strategies with some popular approaches, methods, techniques and models, which are widely used for the practice of the English language teaching. We need such approaches and methods, which will be focused on using particular language forms in a variety of contexts and for a diversity of purposes.

IX. LITERATURE REVIEW

Research in the field of the use of the multidisciplinary approach vary in answering the questions of why, how, when and to which level should be used. Most of educationists in Sudan have supported the idea of using the multidisciplinary approach to small groups of learners and in a limited way. However, few of them have provided good and convincing reasons why. Some other researchers nationally and internationally argued that the integration of materials in other words the use of the multidisciplinary approach would help modernize or improve education. Professionals in the field of education view that it is there are good reasons to implement the multidisciplinary.. General topics which have been discuss are: theories of advanced learning and thinking, situated learning (context), transfer of learned knowledge, the nature of problems to be solved, and working in cooperative teams. (Robert C. Wicklein and John W. Schell1995).

X. LEARNING AND CRITICAL THINKING

Thinking critically believed to be occurring when students face a problem or a challenge, and that happens when integrating various, disciplines, domains of knowledge and experience in homogeneous way. The process of articulating a learning program that yield to learning how to think critically and in order to construct knowledge base, forces learners to reflect on what they are studying in new and meaningful ways. It is a mere fact that students learn through an integrated program have better chance to make connections between the logic of the different disciplines, and what is important in life. Multidisciplinary education provides a rich context for the manifestation of critical thinking. In integrated programs, students are challenged to determine the basis of arguments and analyze truth claims across disciplines (Kelder, 1992 cited in Lana Ivanitskaya, Deborah Clark, George Montgomery, annd Ronald Primeau).

XI. TRANSFER OF KNOWLEDGE

Students, as the result of learning, automatically and directly transfer what they have learned from one discipline to another and to workplace and life settings. Many of the important concepts, strategies, and skills taught in the language arts, they transfer readily to other content areas. Many concepts may be found in discreet disciplines for example Science and Arts. Strategies for learning and assessing a written or an oral text can be directed to reading material in any

content area. Cause-and-effect relationships exist in Arts science, and social studies. Interdisciplinary/cross-curricular teaching supports and promotes this transfer. Critical thinking can be applied in any discipline.

XII. THE MULTIDISCIPLINARY PROJECT

A. *The Project Underwent through Four Stages These Are:*

B. *Stage One. Setting the Main Plan and the Sub Plans:*

Multidisciplinary approach is like any approach needs to set a well-constructed action plan. Where there are sub plans for the teachers that are involve in the project. The main plan consists of subjects, specific information and knowledge, we refer to it as” subjects needed contents” in other words it describes the context. The word context in this project means the overall teaching and learning environment, program, and curriculum. The sub plans are lessons plans and also we call them scenarios. They describe the stages of each lesson, the role of each teacher, the pace, the time, the activities, and the role of the students. We have started be combining the Sudanese culture and English language. Other combinations can be math, music, language arts and technology. Teachers are engaged in what we call it rehearsal stage. In this stage teachers lean how to cooperate, and teach together. One of the efficient training program is that we ask teacher to shadow professors performing multidisciplinary approach. Teachers of English are asked to attend lectures in other disciplines in other words we ask teachers to engage collecting information about the different disciplines.

C. *Stage Two. Choosing the Subjects and Institution*

Subjects: The multidisciplinary program is set at the Ahfad University for first year of pre-sessional programme. The course is offered by the University to provide all incoming students with the foundational knowledge necessary to proceed in their general and specific areas of study. The Foundation Program aims to bridge the gap between secondary school and university education. The English Program is designed to build skills in reading, writing, listening, speaking, vocabulary, grammar, critical thinking, and self-learning.

Instructors: The instructors who participated were:four full time lecturers and twenty three partime lecturers.

D. *Stage Three: The Process of Teaching and Learning*

The students were 100 divided into five groups. The course started on the 6th of October 2010.The students worked 4 contact hours a day for 3 days a week. They studied for ten weeks then they took a proficiency test to be promoted to level two. With this instructional design, students received both English and Sudanese studies and culture credit. Teacher-led discussions were followed with video presentations, student learning exercises, and experiments relating to the major components curriculum. Curriculum is divided into steps and parts each taught by the teacher who master both the process and the knowledge of the content. Teachers supplement their plans by materials chosen according to the students interest and level. This motivates and encourages teachers to participate in the designing of the syllabus. As for students are required to write reports do assignment then presented to the class.

E. *Stage Four: The Proficiency Test*

Students were took a final proficiency test. The test was taken from the students’ material provided by the project planners and the teachers. The following table shows the students results which show that the overall situation is good despite few problems.

Numbers of Students	Absent Students	Absent %	Attended Students	Passed	Passed %	Failed	Failed %
100	11	10.6	89	71	80	18	20

F. *Problems*

The problems can be summarized as follow: 1. Class room conflict and availability of the rooms.2.there are problems associated with the part timers, one of the major drawbacks is that they are less commented and the turnover rate among them is significantly higher than the rate of the full timers. About ten percent of the par timers did not follow the proposed plan. 3. Insufficient time. 4. No Internet access, computers and projectors.

G. *Findings*

We can safely say that multidisciplinary approach to teach English Language have made a positive impact in both Teachers and students. We found that teachers are open to change and are willing to challenge themselves and their students to enhance students motivation, self-efficacy, self-steam that lead to effective learning, this project works as a trigger for more improvements in a country like Sudan that has limited resources to train teachers and to educate students a quality education that can be transferred to work place and life settings at large. Multidisciplinary approach can help teachers to learn from each other regarding the teaching strategies and knowledge

XIII. CONCLUSION

Multidisciplinary found to be very efficient in Sudanese institutions because it increases cooperative teaching as well as learning. Knowledge can be transferred to real life settings and that by crossing boundaries among the disciplines. Students are able to develop their learning self-efficacy. It develops the tendency of team work in addressing and solving a problem with input from a large variety of views. Teachers enhance their knowledge of various disciplines.

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On the Teaching of English Listening

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Abstract—Language is a socializing tool. The fundamental purpose of English teaching is training the students to put English into practical social use. As the most common medium to acquire knowledge and develop a sensation for a language, accurate listening, is mandatory before accurate speaking. Only when the listener has listened to the instruction correctly, could the listener do according to the instruction; this demonstrates the social function of language.

Index Terms—English listening, skill improvement, listening teaching

Other than being a socializing skill, listening is also the basis of improving other language skills. However, as observed in our teaching experiences, students commonly do well in written-exams, but face much difficulty in listening-exams. When learning English, listening is what students struggle the most. There hence, improving the students' listening skills, for them to be capable in basic English communication, has become a problem we need to deal with efforts. Now I will discuss several approaches and experiences regarding helping students to improve listening skills.

I. ENHANCE EDUCATION IN FUNDAMENTS OF LANGUAGE. HELP STUDENTS TO OVERCOME LANGUAGE AND VOCABULARY BARRIERS.

Listening skill is a synthesis of listening and comprehension. Comprehension is a process which one makes use of various knowledge and skills. During the process of listening, what determines the efficiency of comprehension is the level of knowledge the student possesses in the language. That is the reason in teaching, I emphasize the training of phonetics, and ensure the students to learn the international phonetic transcriptions. Also, skills I have intentionally instructed to the students include spelling-rules, stresses when pronouncing words, stresses when pronouncing sentences, etc. Disciplinarily training the students' pronunciation, especially patterns in long and short, for example, fifty[ˈfifti]—fifteen[ˈfif ti:n], mouth[mau θ] — mouths [mau θ z], house[hauz] — houses[hauziz].: meet you[mi:t ju:] — [mi:t u:], did you [did ju:]—[did u:], a look at it [teik luk t it], Wednesday [ˈwenzdi] climb [claim], blackboard [ˈbl kb], etc.

Memorizing and building a pool of vocabulary is indispensable to the learning of any new language. The most advantageous attribute of English vocabularies is that the spelling and pronunciation of words are generally in match. If students have overcome the oral barrier through training, and are able to accurately read the phonetic transcriptions, they should be able to speak and spell accurately of what they could read. Therefore, while teaching new vocabularies, I often inform the students with pronunciation patterns or knowledge of phonetics, and then help them to categorize with vocabularies which they have previously learned; additionally, I point out the pronunciation patterns, while requiring the students to pronounce accurately and memorize firmly by the rules of spelling and pronunciation. This is an important approach helping the students to overcome barriers in oral English and vocabularies, and acting as a driving force for students to improve listening skills and get a grasp on the language.

II. CREATING A POSITIVE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT IN ENGLISH CLASS AND HELPING STUDENTS TO ADAPT TO HABITS OF LISTENING.

First of all, in class, I try to conduct the majority of the lectures in English, for the students to receive as many opportunities of exposing to English as possible. Direct stimulus from the language helps the students to listen more attentively and nurtures their sensitivity and imagination to the language; in the meantime, it is convenient for me to get an idea of whether they have understood the lecture from their responses by eye contact.

Secondly, when introducing or practicing a new exercise, I ask the students to listen carefully and pay attention to pronunciations. For instance, before getting into new materials, I recommend the students to close the textbook and listen to the instructor put in picture of the background and story relevant to the passage or text, using English. Next, they will listen to a voice-recording of the text and answer questions from what they have listened; and they will listen to it again after they read the text. This helps them to develop a positive listening habit.

In addition, the amount of new content taught in every class session may be reduced, and alternatively the instructor may set-up a “free talk” session or spends time discussing a previous topic, during the 5 minutes before lecture begins. As an example, after completing unit 6 of volume I, the students may take turns by their seating order and present a talk

in topics such as class participation, study and activities, personal hobbies and family conditions; sometimes the instructor may tell stories and read poems in English, or asks the students to perform a simple piece of drama. Instructor could also ask a student to tell a story in English, and from the story's content raise a question or two for the classroom; this guarantees that the listeners stay in focus in order to answer the questions. The approach is a training of both speaking skill and listening skill, with the speaker actively leading the listeners to follow

Overall speaking, through creating a positive learning environment, for students to adapt to a positive listening habit, the instructor may train and improve the students' sensitivity, imagination, focus on English and their ability to think in English. The improvements of these skills are doubtlessly positive to the students' overall improvement.

III. MAKING USE OF LISTENING-PRACTICE MATERIALS

One of the most distinguished qualities of the "New Goal" textbooks is that they do not include exercises of pronunciation, tone, stresses, into syllables, stresses and pauses in sentences. However, beginning from volume I, I have scheduled listening practices in every unit and intended to incorporate important phonetic rules such as the 48 phonetic symbols, stresses, repetitive reading of words, stressed reading, pauses and tones in sentences into in-class exercises. In teaching of English-listening, sufficiently making use of these exercise materials and investigating a new system of listening skill training is crucial to the improvement of the students' level of comprehension by listening.

I believe listening-classes should not follow a simple routine of "instructor put on recording---students listen---going over answers", instead, they should be a integrated process of skill-improvement and a unity of explanation and assessment, and combination of speaking, reading and writing. For the listening exercise of every unit, I often guide the students to listen with questions, which help them to keep a clear purpose in mind and to listen more attentively. For example, when I give a lecture on unit 9 in the grade 7 textbook, I start by telling them that this is a weather forecast, since the students have already become familiar with weather vocabularies such as rainy, sunny, windy, cloudy, foggy, snowy, stormy and etc; they have also learned the format of a weather forecast speech and its sentence structures; the weather forecast lecture should be easier for them to follow. Then, I would raise questions like "How is the weather there?" "what are the temperatures of these cities." After listening to the reading once, they will read the questions from their textbook and then listen for one more time; after that, they will fill the answers into the blank. The recording will be put on for a third time, for the students to check their answers and I will go over specific rules of pronunciation and grammar. The process helps the students to tackle oral and grammatical difficulties and to develop understanding on the theme or the overall content. Lastly, the students will listen to the recording again, in the meantime reading it from text and writing it down. Writing-while-listening is an effective exercise to train listening skills, spelling skills and knowledge of grammar rules. Thus, the unity of listening, reading and writing allow the students to figure out the solution through listening. In the meantime of getting a solution and learning new knowledge, they have developed a sense of the language and improved their listening skill gradually.

IV. FOCUS ON TRAINING THE STUDENTS TO ADAPT LISTENING TECHNIQUES AND MAKE THEIR LISTENING MORE EFFICIENT.

It is only possible to make listening more efficient, if the students have a grasp on the listening techniques. In teaching, I sufficiently exploit the listening-training materials that are in the same package with the textbooks, and conduct the training along with the curriculum. The emphasises of my teaching include guidance and training of listening techniques, in order for the students to become familiar with common phonetic patterns, and also importantly comprehension techniques (reviewing, predicting and filtering the content acquired by listening). The training also includes fast-reading of exercise questions, and catching as much information given by the question as possible. For example, a question asks to choose the word appeared in a recording (Xiaoming is eating a pear.) from a set of four pictures. It is facile to recognize the names of these pictures [A) bear, B) pear, C) hair] have the common pronunciation ([æ]); the key to solving the problem is seeing the difference of the consonants [b], [p], [h], and paying attention to the consonant said in the recording, in which B) is the correct answer. For another example, to answer listening comprehension questions from a dialogue or reading of a short prose, it is advisable to go over the questions before the recording begins and focus on the "who, what, where, why, when, how" and other problems asked by the question.

Dialogue questions often involve details such as numerals, calculation, place, setting, occupation, relationship, affirmation and denial. Forms of the question may include making out the meaning of a word from the text, the distinct functions of the language in different circumstances and understanding the connotation of a speech from the level of the entire dialogue. For instance, if all the four choices in a question appear to be names of places, one should pay attention to places mentioned in the dialogue.

Short prose questions require students to make predictions from the content, to locate the thesis statement and to catch key words; listening word by word is not recommended, since this would hinder the students' understanding of the text as a whole. The thesis statement is often placed in the beginning or end of a paragraph. The thesis statement acts as a guide to the contents followed and reveals the main idea of the paragraph; it determines the direction which the writing will move forward. Locating the thesis statement makes it easy to determine the theme of a passage; from here, it is possible to make accurate prediction of the text. Catching the key words refers to paying attention to the concrete

vocabularies (nouns, verbs, numbers, adjectives and averbs) and words expressing time, space, giving examples, comparing, contrasting, with extended or curved meanings, words making a deduction and conjugating words reflecting a logical connection, such as “so, but, however,” for example.

Furthermore, the training also helps the students to develop sequential memorization abilities and learning to take English-listening notes. For example, when recording numbers, students may use Arabic numerals; names, places, dates, time, age and prices heard from the recording could be recorded in a concise manner; places and names could be abbreviated; unfamiliar vocabularies could be recorded by their pronunciations.

In general, training the students to become capable of summarizing, recognizing the main idea, sequential memorization, quick thinking and using imagination upgrades their analytical, summarizing and other integrated abilities; this helps to make their listening more effective, and is crucial to the improvement of their listening skills.

V. HELPING THE STUDENTS TO DEVELOP A CONFIDENT MIND

Good listening skill is mandatory to mastering the English language, but with out doubt to listen, in the meantime to understand is difficult in some extent; this is the reason that in teaching it is important to educate the students to study with a purpose, encourage them to develop confidence and give them the courage to overcome barriers. To study English with a long term plan, such as constantly improving the studying methods, studying the basics of English including pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and language habits, listening intensively to recordings and intensive oral practice all require a firm determination. In addition, the instructor should set an active and harmonious atmosphere in the classroom and make efforts to reduce the psychological learning barriers born from fear, concerns and resentment; this could be done by promoting a competition system in the classroom, inspiring the interests of students and giving rewards to students who have made improvement; for example, a teaching session may adopt the form of competing responses; in other words, whoever respond to the question the quickest and give the correct answer will receive rewards. The above teaching approach boosts the student’s desire to listen and maintain a positive attitude of listening, which are vital to improvement of their listening skills.

VI. PAYING MORE ATTENTION TO AFTER-CLASS LISTENING PRACTICE

Listening, speaking, reading and writing are four basic skills of language learning. You can not say that you have mastered the language without any one of them. Of the four skills, listening, one of the means of communication, is used most widely in people’s daily lives. In linguistics, giving the students a lot of listening activities is a good way of improving comprehension of listening. Prepare the listening material into 3 stages: primary stage, intermediate stage and advanced stage.

A. Primary Stage

This stage belongs to the foundation stage. For those who are not so good at listening, they can go on training from the following aspects: consistent listening to the sentence pattern drilling exercises and short stories, simple materials on Great Britain and American history or geography, etc.

B. Intermediate Stage

Students who stay at the middle level of English listening, carry out the following training: listening to special VOA or BBC. These two programs are relatively slow in pace. At the beginning one can choose to listen to special BBC or VOA and then transit to standard VOA or BBC progressively.

C. Advanced Stage

At this stage, the listeners should reach or be close to the listening level of the natives and can deal with various situations. For example, listen to foreign accents, academic discussion, reports of literature, history, politics and economy etc. There are some important factors to take into consideration when listening, some things that characterizes it in most situations according to Penny Ur are: we listen for a purpose and with certain expectations. We make an immediate response to what we hear. There are some visual or environmental clues as to the meaning of what is heard.

VII. TIPS FOR BEING A GOOD LISTENER

1. Give your full attention on the person who is speaking. Don’t look out the window or at what else is going on in the room.
2. make sure your mind is focused, too. It can be easy to let your mind wander if you think you know what the person is going to say next, but you might be wrong! If you feel your mind wandering, change the position of your body and try to concentrate on the speaker’s words.
3. let the speaker finish before you begin to talk. Speakers having the chance to say everything would like to say without being interrupted. When you interrupt, it looks like you aren’t listening, even if you really are.
4. Let yourself finish listening before you begin to speak! You can’t really listen if you are busy thinking about what you want say next.

5. Listen for main ideas. The main ideas are the most important points the speaker wants to get across. They may be mentioned at the start or end of a talk, and repeat a number of times. Pay special attention to statements that begin with phrases such as “my point is” or “the thing to remember is...”.

6. Ask questions. If you are not sure you understand what the speaker has said, just ask. It is a good idea to repeat in your own words what the speaker said so that you can be sure your understanding is correct. For example, you might say, “when you said that no two zebras are alike, did you mean that the stripes are different on each one?”

7. Give feedback. Sit up straight and look directly at the speaker. Now and then, nod to show that you understand. At appropriate points you may also smile, frown, laugh, or be silent. These are all ways to let the speaker know that you are really listening. Remember, you listen with your face as well as your ears.

Putting the above into a net-shell, listening skill covers the listener’s basic knowledge in English and his or her ability to understand. The level of student’s listening skill is not only relevant to the student’s familiarity with knowledge, but also depends on the student’s mind or attitude, ability to make distinctions, ability to understand and other factors. There are multiple aspects to improving a student’s listening skill; in daily teaching, if we focus on the training of listening, speaking and reading, consistently develop techniques that enrich their knowledge in the language, and help them to develop positive listening habits and a proactive attitude, we will certainly see improvements in their listening skills; they will eventually possess cross-conversational ability, which is the goal of English education.

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First Language Acquisition: Psychological Considerations and Epistemology

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Abstract—This article aims to provide an overview of major theoretical approaches and psychological considerations related to child language (first language acquisition). The field is multidimensional, as illustrated by the many courses on child language or language acquisition that are taught in departments of Linguistics, Psychology, Cognitive Science, Speech Pathology, Education, and Anthropology. This cross-disciplinary nature of the field is also reflected in many handbooks and articles yearly published across the world. In this article I mainly present a general overview of theoretical/epistemological and classical/modern accounts and approaches to the study of first language acquisition. In other words, the present paper is to investigate the psychological/epistemological considerations of first language acquisition with the aim of shedding a bit of light on this human-species phenomenon.

Index Terms—first language acquisition, cognitive science, speech pathology, education

I. INTRODUCTION

Scientific interest in this area has, as one would look ahead to, shown itself in both theoretical and practical dimension. However, briefly, arguments relating to first language acquisition have been tied in to arguments about particular models of language acquisition and hence about particular conceptions of language. Probably the most renowned example of the theoretical dimension is the linkage of the notion of such arguments to the ‘innateness hypothesis’, the idea that language acquisition is only possible because of an inborn ‘language faculty’. Of course, the connection between the age factor and this hypothesis is quite straightforward. If there is an innate language faculty and language develops in a way similar to, say, a physical organ or bipedal locomotion (Chomsky, 1988), one can expect to be able to identify age-related stages in such development and periods of particular readiness for such development. To the extent that such age-related phases are discoverable, they can be represented as supportive of the innateness hypothesis. The matter does not just rest there. The innateness hypothesis has even more ramifications. If there is a faculty concerned specially with language which is inborn, this not only sets language apart from behaviors which are acquired purely from the nurturing environment, but also suggests that language is an indispensable, perhaps defining, part of the human make-up, and renders very reasonable the notion that language is peculiar to our species.

The age effects on the acquisition of first language have been explored by many linguists and applied linguists since the 1960’s (e.g. Lenneberg, 1967; Schachter, 1988; Long, 1990) and the existence of critical period for language acquisition has been one of the controversial issues in first language acquisition research. The results of SLA research are also both interesting and confusing. Some make an analogy between the first and second language acquisition and hypothesize that there is also an age of onset (AO) for second language learners. To put it in another way, some applied linguists (e.g. Cook, 1995) believe that undoubtedly children are probably believed to be better at learning second languages than adults. People always know one friend of acquaintance who started English as an adult and never managed to learn it properly and another who learned it as a child and is not distinguishable from a native; whereas, the results of some other studies indicate that adult language learners can attain native like proficiency in a second or a foreign language. That is, there are still some late beginners who in spite of their old age were able to learn a second language exactly like early beginners and some cases have been reported who acquired near native like performance in different subparts of a language such as pronunciation and grammaticality judgments.

As different theoretical dimensions are at work in explaining the astonishing phenomenon of first language acquisition, this paper is an attempt to shed light on the issue under discussion. To put it in another way, the present paper is to investigate the psychological considerations of first language acquisition with the aim of shedding a bit of light on this human-species phenomenon.

II. CRITICAL PERIOD REVISITED

The commonly held view that there is a ‘critical period’ for the acquisition of language is not normally subjected to more than rather superficial inspection. The majority of adults merely take it for granted that children are of their nature endowed with the ability to acquire their mother tongue with almost no effort. Psychologists often regard the matter in a similarly self-evident fashion but endow the assumptions they make with scientific documentations by introducing

concepts and terminology from such areas as neuropsychology and nativist linguistics. Quite obviously the Critical Period Hypothesis, like other hypotheses, enjoys its own critics. Indeed, the question of whether there is a critical period for language acquisition has bred strong debates among scholars and the debates seem to rest there forever. The discussion seems to be of the same interest to both L1 and L2 acquisition researchers. For some scholars the Critical Period Hypothesis is important because the notion of maturational constraints on language acquisition is considered to be related to the idea that language acquisition is possible via special bioprogramming. With respect to language education, the Critical Period Hypothesis has corollaries regarding decision-making about the starting point for the instruction of L2 at schools. However, in this article L1-related issues are of priority and L2-related evidence is left for SLA researchers.

On the nature of critical Period

Biologically point of view, Critical period, is the term used in biology to refer to a limited phase in the development of an organism during which a particular activity or competency must be acquired if the activity or the competency is to be incorporated into the behavior of that organism. The critical period for a behavior is within these time limits. The term critical period has been used by linguists and applied linguists to explain language acquisition. If language acquisition in human beings is strictly constrained by the boundaries of a critical period, the implication is that L1 acquisition begins only at the inception of this period and does not happen at any other time. An extra implication may be that even if L1 acquisition begins within the critical period it does not carry on away from the end of that period. Lenneberg (1967), who is normally recognized as the ‘father’ of the Critical Period Hypothesis, refers to the critical period as beginning at the age of two and ending about puberty. This period overlaps with the lateralization process; that is, the specialization of each hemisphere of the brain to take over different functions. Lenneberg mentions a variety of evidence of changes in the brain happening all through the period under debate. However, his assertion that lateralization ends at puberty has been significantly challenged by later studies reinterpreting the relevant data as indicating that the process is already complete in early childhood (see e.g. Kinsbourne & Hiscock, 1977; Krashen, 1973). One can make a distinction between a weaker and a stronger version of the Critical Period Hypothesis. The weaker version argues that language acquisition has to begin within the critical period, and that if language acquisition begins immediately after the inception of the critical period it will be more effective. The stronger version presumes that even if language acquisition begins within the critical period it does not go on past the end of the period.

The truthfulness of the critical period hypothesis

This part of the paper dealt with an introduction to and definition of Critical Period Hypothesis with regard to First Language Acquisition. Lenneberg (1967) claimed that the inception of the critical period is at two years of age and that puberty constituted the stop point for the critical period. Although the contribution of Lenneberg (1967) to this theoretical framework was praiseworthy, his claim, in the light of evidence from neurological research, from deaf studies, and from other studies, was discussed and shown to be improbable and that language acquisition is in process from birth forwards and a well-defined cut-off point where L1 acquisition ceases cannot be pointed to unambiguously. While there is some evidence to support the existence of some linguistic advantages in line with early L1 acquisition, there are no clear foundations for accepting that language acquisition definitely cannot crop up after puberty. Moreover, post-pubertal L1 acquisition in the normally developing population was looked at and the conclusion was made that L1 acquisition continues into early adulthood and indeed, at least in the realm of semantics and pragmatics, it carries on to middle age and even onwards. All things considered, the available evidence does not clearly support the notion of a critical period for L1 acquisition.

III. CLASSICAL APPROACHES TO EPISTEMOLOGY: NATIVIST AND EMPIRICIST APPROACHES

If you look at psychology books from the 1940s and 1950s, you will find that what we now call “language acquisition” tended to be described as the “acquisition of verbal habits.” This reflects the ideas of behaviorist psychologists like B.F. Skinner and his predecessors who viewed children’s language learning as a rather passive process of imitating the speech they heard from adults, accompanied by positive reinforcement when they got it “right” and negative reinforcement when they got it “wrong.” In other words, there was no essential difference between the way a rat learns to negotiate a maze and a child learns to speak. The problem with the notion of reinforcement as a mechanism for language acquisition is that it is difficult to see quite how it would work with young children, considering the complexity of the linguistic system they must acquire. Parents put a great deal of effort into keeping conversations with their young children going, but only very rarely do they explicitly approve or disapprove of their children’s grammar. When they do comment in some way about mistakes, we often see that the children either “miss the point” or resolutely stick to their version. Here are just two examples:

Child: Nobody don’t like me.

Parent: No, say “nobody likes me.”

Child: Nobody don’t like me.

(the above sequence is repeated eight times)

Parent: No, now listen carefully; say “nobody likes me.”

Child: Oh! Nobody don’t likes me.

Child: Want other one spoon, daddy.

(Data from McNeill, 1966)

Parent: You mean, you want the other spoon.

Child: Yes, I want other one spoon, please Daddy.

Parent: Can you say “the other spoon”?

Child: Other...one...spoon.

Parent: Say “other.”

Child: Other.

Parent: “Spoon.”

Child: Spoon.

Parent: “Other spoon.” (Data from Braine, 1971)

Child: Other...spoon. Now give me other one spoon?

There are even bigger problems with imitation. Children do sometimes imitate what they hear, but they clearly do much more than that. They also construct rules to produce forms of the language that they could not have heard from adults, for example, words such as *mouses* and *hitted*, and sentence structures such as *Don't say me that!*

A *rationalist* perspective proposes some innate competence (thus the term “nativist” is often used). In a classical empiricist paradigm, “learning” based on input explains all knowledge; the Initial State therefore is a *tabula rasa*. (See Wilson 1999 for overview) These approaches differ in the form of reasoning which they recognize to underlie knowledge acquisition. *Induction* (building on direct experience of input data) is central to an empiricist paradigm; *deduction* (which does not depend on experience of data to confirm conclusions) to a rationalist paradigm. All in all the two classically opposed approaches to the representation and acquisition of knowledge differ in their views of: (a) the *ultimate source* of knowledge (external and led by environmental input or internal, led by the structure of the mind); (b) *mechanisms* of acquisition; (c) *characteristics* of the Initial State, i.e., whether or not innate “knowledge” of some form exists.

Hermeneutic theories of child language acquisition

Nature versus nurture

The ancient theories of child language acquisition explore the dilemma of nature versus nurture; that is, whether language is inherent and God-given or learned from environment.

Behaviorism: Environmentalist theories

Behaviorist studies both in psychology and linguistics originate in the beginning of the 20th century. They claim that child language acquisition is governed by habit forming and reinforcement by imitation, repetition, and analogy. The newborn's mind as a blank slate ‘tabula rasa’ is borrowed from the era of Illumination. It was a still progressive phenomenon in comparison with solely religious explanation of child language acquisition on one hand, and on the other, with persons' classification through their social origin, otherwise, with a genealogical identification and evaluation of one's mental capacities by their birth in a social class.

The most eminent representative of behaviorism, B.F. Skinner came up with the concept of operant conditioning. Language acquisition is a learned set of habits. Structural linguistics claims that languages differ from each other without limits. A linguist observes and describes only the speech, performance, parole, i.e., the ‘publicly observable responses’ analyzing language units till they become inseparable (sentence diagramming, words, affixes, endings, phonemes, and phoneme distinguishing features). According to classical behaviorism stimuli and responses create human behavior on ‘tabula rasa.’ A psychologist should rigorously describe only what is objectively perceived, recorded, measured. Concepts of consciousness, innateness, intuition, thinking processes were outside the domain of observable, hence any research.

Innatism or nativism

The nativistic approach to child language acquisition originated as a direct antipode to behaviorism in the late 50ies of the 20th century and dominated the field until the last decade. Nativists claim that children are born with an innate ability to acquire language because they do have language innately. The Universal Grammar [UG] is hard-wired in brain, which contains a language acquisition device [LAD]. UG is the grammar of the human language, that is, the universal principles of organizing all languages. This is the reason children can accomplish cognitively a very challenging task of language acquisition even though they are still unable to do some simpler, cognitively less demanding things.

A rationalist approach

Noam Chomsky (1959) in his criticism of the behaviorist approach to language acquisition, in contrast to Skinner, proposed (and continues to propose) that children actively construct the rule systems of their native language aided by a brain already pre-wired with a special language capacity that is separate from other types of mental abilities. While current approaches to language acquisition all concentrate much more on the child actively building their knowledge of language, they still tend to divide along nativist and empiricist lines. A nativist approach, like Chomsky's Principles and Parameters Theory proposes a fair amount of inborn knowledge in the child. That is, knowledge about the general rules that all human languages obey (Principles), and knowledge about the “permitted” ways that languages can vary from one another (Parameters). Empiricist approaches, do not assume any such inborn knowledge. Some empiricists like Jean Piaget, and those working in his tradition, see language development as the result of the child's striving to make sense of the world and to extract meaningful patterns, not just about language, but about all aspects of their environment.

Language acquisition is seen as a product of general intellectual development rather than of a separate language processing capacity. In one respect, the Piagetian approach is similar to Chomsky's in that it focuses largely on factors internal to the child. However, other empiricist approaches tend to orient to factors external to the child and concentrate much more on the role of children's caregivers in helping them to "crack the code."

Chomsky's theory reflects a rationalist explanation of language acquisition: (a) the ultimate *source* of knowledge is the mind, not the external input. Grammar in the mind applies to, and to some degree determines, linguistic experience. (b) The essential *mechanism* of knowledge acquisition lies in the mind's ability to *generate* what is perceived as input, and to *deduce* new knowledge. (c) The Initial State is *biologically programmed* prior to experience in such a way that it makes linguistic experience possible and constrains its form.

The language faculty

Chomsky proposed and investigated a theory of the Initial State, i.e., the "Language Faculty" of the human species: "[T]here is a specific faculty of the mind/brain that is responsible for the use and acquisition of language, a faculty with distinctive characteristics that is apparently unique to the species in essentials." (Chomsky 1987). This Language Faculty "serves the two basic functions of rationalist theory: it provides a sensory system for the preliminary analysis of linguistic data, and a schematism that determines, quite narrowly, a certain class of grammars" (Chomsky 1975). The theory involves an *innateness hypothesis* (1986) which claims that "[I]t must be that the mind/brain provide a way to identify and extract the relevant information by means of mechanisms of some sort that are part of its biologically determined resources" (Chomsky 1988). Linguistic analysis and computation must be, at least in part, distinct from other forms of cognitive computation (reflecting a *modular* theory of mind).

Chomsky's LAD

Chomsky's early formulation of a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) logically explicated the preconditions for acquiring linguistic knowledge on the basis of projection from input (Chomsky 1984; Chomsky 1999). Formulation of the LAD appeared to beg the issue of language acquisition. It was often implied that a predetermined set of "specific language grammars" were innate (English, Swahili, Sinhala, Hindi, etc.) and that these merely needed to be "selected from," raising the question of how these grammars arise and how children judged whether the data were "compatible" with the grammar hypothesized (Peters 1972).

From LAD to UG

Chomsky moved the theory of the Language Faculty from LAD to Universal Grammar (UG). "[U]niversal grammar is part of the genotype specifying one aspect of the initial state of the human mind and brain." (Chomsky 1980). The definition of UG is formal, general and abstract, no longer suggesting access to a list of pre-defined grammars. UG differs from LAD in its formulation of what is proposed to be biologically programmed. "Universal grammar may be thought of as some system of principles, common to the species and available to each individual prior to experience" (Chomsky 1981). UG is bidimensional. "Universal Grammar might be defined as the study of the conditions that must be met by the grammars of all human languages" (Chomsky 1968) "In a highly idealized picture of language acquisition, UG is taken to be a characterization of children's pre-linguistic initial state" (Chomsky 1981) and of the "language faculty" (Chomsky 1981). If all natural languages follow a universal architecture, and the human species is so programmed, this would explain why universals of language exist and why any language is normally acquired in children's first years.

IV. THE USAGE-BASED THEORY OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

The usage-based approach to linguistic communication may be summarized in the two aphorisms: 1) meaning is use 2) structure emerges from use. 'Meaning is use' represents an approach to the functional or semantic dimension of linguistic communication. It originated with Wittgenstein (1953) and other pragmatically based philosophers of language, who wanted to combat the idea that meanings are things and instead focus on how people use linguistic conventions to achieve social ends. 'Structure emerges from use' represents an approach to the structural or grammatical dimension of linguistic communication. It is implicit in the work on grammaticalization and language change of many historical linguists, and has been made explicit by Langacker (1987, 2000) and other usage-based linguists, who want to combat the idea of a wholly formal grammar devoid of meaning and instead focus on how meaning-based grammatical constructions emerge from individual acts of language use. Drawing on the work of many other researchers, Tomasello (2003) proposes a usage-based theory of language acquisition. Paralleling the two aphorisms above, the proposal is that children come to the process of language acquisition, at around one year of age, equipped with two sets of cognitive skills, both evolved for other, more general functions before linguistic communication emerged in the human species: 1) intention-reading (functional dimension) 2) pattern-finding (grammatical dimension). 'Intention-reading' is what children must do to discern the goals or intentions of mature speakers when they use linguistic conventions to achieve social ends, and thereby to learn these conventions from them culturally. Intention-reading – including skills of joint attention – is the central cognitive construct in the so-called social-pragmatic approach to language acquisition (which is most often used in the study of word learning; Bruner 1983, Nelson 1996, Tomasello 1992, 2000, 2001). 'Pattern-finding' is what children must do to go productively beyond the individual utterances they hear people using around them to create abstract linguistic schemas or constructions. As a summary term for such things as categorization, analogy and distributional analysis, pattern-finding is the central

cognitive construct in the so-called usage-based approach to the acquisition of grammar (Goldberg 1995, 2006, Tomasello 2000, 2003).

These theoretical positions on the functional and grammatical dimensions of language use and acquisition are minority positions in the field. Essentially, they represent the view that the pragmatics of human communication is primary, both phylogenetically and ontogenetically, and that the nature of conventional languages – and how they are acquired – can only be understood by starting from processes of communication more broadly.

V. THE CONNECTIONIST MODELING OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Connectionism has had an enormous impact in the theories that people have developed about many aspects of human cognition. Cognitive processes were assumed to be carried out by discrete operations that were executed in serial order. Memory was seen as distinct from the mechanisms that operated on it. And most importantly, processing was thought of in terms of symbolic rules of the sort that one finds in computer programming languages. These assumptions underlay almost all of the important cognitive theories up through the 1970s, and continue to be highly influential today. But as research within this framework progressed, the advances also revealed shortcomings. By the late 1970's, a number of people interested in human cognition began to take a closer look at some of basic assumptions of the current theories. In particular, some people began to worry that the differences between digital computers and human brains might be more important than hitherto recognized. In part, this change reflected a more detailed and accurate understanding about the way brains work. For example, it is now recognized that the frequency with which a neuron fires—an essentially analog variable—is more important than the single on/off (or digital) pulse from which spike trains are formed. But the dissatisfaction with the brain-as-computer metaphor was equally rooted in empirical failures of the digitally based models to account for complex human behavior.

This approach has stimulated a radical re-evaluation of many basic assumptions throughout cognitive science. One of the domains in which the impact has been particularly dramatic—and highly controversial—is in the study of language acquisition. Language is, after all, one of the quintessentially human characteristics. Figuring out just how it is that children learn language has to be one of the most challenging questions in cognitive science.

VI. CONCLUSION

The study of language is notoriously contentious, but until recently, researchers who could agree on little else have all agreed on one thing: that linguistic knowledge is couched in the form of rules and principle (Pinker & Prince, 1988). Current theories of language acquisition continue to reveal a tension between the philosophical paradigms of Rationalism and Empiricism. “Functionalist” and “usage based” models which have arisen in contrast to the leading Rationalist theory of Noam Chomsky reveal a central concern for understanding the interaction of children with the input data during the time course of language acquisition. This concern is also central to current studies of language acquisition in a linguistically based rationalist framework, although applications of these approaches differ critically in their proposals regarding the ultimate source and mechanisms of language acquisition. Both rationalist and empiricist approaches must now be tested against the empirical facts of language acquisition. Neither logical analyses nor computational modeling alone will be conclusive in building a comprehensive theory of language acquisition unless supplemented by empirical research.

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